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The Necessity of Formation and Transformation of Principals

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Abstract
Nowadays, it is quite evident how the "age of information" is causing the school to lose its privileged role towards knowledge and its distribution. Paradoxically, the targeted decentralization of the education system - at the same time - is accompanied by the tightening of centralized control mechanisms. This is applied through the "action" of national testing, increasing demands for performance, professional and scientific competencies. In this context, the world of the educational leader is seen as one of increasing change, complexity, diversity, and intensity. It has also been portrayed as a world of great responsibility. The growing importance of educational leadership and management is evidenced not only by reference to the increase number of research on the leadership in education, but also to the increasing preparedness of governments to invest in the leadership of the education system. Information Technology has influenced the outbreak of ideas – somehow confusing approaches and policies related to borrowed or copied models – that have caused a diffusion of ideas in this field. Some quality issues in literature, the way of selecting (appointing) leaders in education, as well as the job training or organized training formats, will be addressed in this study. The purpose of this study, is to present the need for training leaders – the development and transformation to achieve leadership effectiveness – and to recommend some forms and methods to complete the leader’s formation. Regardless of whether a subject, will graduate at a university or get certified at a training from a licensed institution, there is a common challenge to be addressed: what is the necessary set of knowledge, skills, values attitudes and competencies, that each program should address on the formation of educational leaders.

Keywords: educational leadership, leadership formation, educational leaders, school principals

Introduction
School leadership is a field of interest nowadays. This is happening in a time when information technology is investing so much and so quickly on tracking information and knowledge, therefore is placing the school, its evaluation system and its teachers in a new position. On the other hand, the school is the institution that should prepare individuals, in order for them to be able to cope with the challenges that will be presented in the future, coupled with the rapid technological development. Increasing school accountability, the pressure of constant reform, and the challenge of continuous quality growth, require direction and administration of education, based on the concept of school management as a profession, and not the formation of leadership in the empirical way through the on-the-job training. This need arises because school management is a process that sets the leader ahead of a complexity of challenges that give him an important role in the success of a school. Today's leader needs to recognize leadership theories and raise his awareness of the competences he possesses and the modalities of influencing and managing different situations and different groups of people (teachers, parents, students, highly ranked leaders, etc.). He should recognize, implement and build protective mechanisms in relation to law enforcement and the protection of the rights of students and pedagogical staff. It should also focus on the common goal of quality education of student generations, knowledge transformation and continuous personal improvement as well as the improvement of its staff to maintain a cohesive performance with the demands of society.

The concept of leadership as a profession is a need articulated by many researchers in recent years, as well as a necessity, which is particularly notable in eastern European countries. In these states, patterns and rudiments of an authoritative style are still visible in the model of the school principal.
Methodology

This paper was based on the review of literature and analyses of some research studies done by authorities and expert on leadership field. Also, a survey was conducted in the region of Korca, in the southeastern part of Albania to identify the need for the leaders in office to form and transform in relation to leadership skills.

This paper presents content analysis, as the basic method for this study. This method displays the research conducted by field experts, accompanied by an empirical field study about actual leaders and principals, along with their university trainings about leadership development. “Over the last half of the 20th century, a good deal of attention was devoted to the topic of preparing leaders for schools” (Murphy, J et al. 2009). The “Handbook of research on the education of school leaders” by Michael D. Jung, et.al 2009 and “The Second International Handbook of Educational Leadership and Administration”, by Leithwood & Hallinger, 2002, provide this paper with the right orientation and guidelines, in order to properly address the issue of leader’s formation and transformation. The expert’s study and their conclusions are presented in this paper – the territory of the Republic of Albania has been used as study field - where there’s an urge for a new philosophy for leaders, as well as for successful leadership models.

Albania is experiencing leadership models - even after two decades of transition - that pertain to the communist era. Leader's autocratic models - up to the last few years - are transmitted without having the opportunity to handle the formation and orientation of more appropriate models to professionalism and effectiveness. By 2013, MASH(Albanian Ministry of Education) programs (Standartet e Drejtorit (Principals Standard) MASH, 2013) have revealed this immediate need for changing the methodology. But "reading" the need for training in the direction of current leaders and new aspirants, has oriented the institutions - which are under the responsibility of the respective Ministry - only towards some fragmentitt training seasons, by accredited agencies or universities outside the state standards set by the ministry. All the result achieved by this organization had little impact on improving the quality of the management. At present, the MASR(Albanian Ministry of Education, Sport and Youth) is carrying out some new development efforts, implementing a pilot project on organizing a "principal's school". These efforts are organized in the same form of trainings as the old model, the difference is that the responsible institution, is under the direct dependence of Ministry of Education.

So the empirical survey on Ministry documents, which will perform the inventory of state institutions' activities to form leaders in education, will continue by applying a survey to educational institutions in the region of Korça.

This study will serve: (1) to recognize the current problem, (2) to distinguish the sharpness and specific features that characterize the field of leadership, (3) to test the opinions and perceptions of the subjects affected from the educational institutions of leadership.

About 200 subjects underwent this survey over a period of several months in 2017. Their interviews were conducted through questionnaires, which were delivered through mail service and direct meetings. In the same way, questionnaires were gathered, and then their processing was carried out, through statistical analysis.

Why is the Korca Region, a representative subject, covering the entire Albanian Republic?

This region is a representative for the whole country, because it has common and general features such as: (a) owns all levels of education, from pre-school education to higher education; applies both types of education, both public and non-public, at all levels; (b) includes a significant number of schools as one of the most populous regions of the country, as well as an early education tradition (the first Albanian public school marks its birth in the city of Korca).

Subjects were interviewed on: (1) the need to develop leadership skills, leadership theories, as well as knowledge of legislation and its interpretation; (2) actual formation training methods: Have they met the needs of leaders; (3) favorable ways to meet the needs in forming the leader.

Semi-structured interviews - in relation to what has been mentioned above - will support the articulated hypothesis about the formation of leaders. Also, these interviews will serve to formulate some recommendations for the most effective forms in applying this "profession".

The need for leadership formation

The concept of formation demonstrates that the learning process is closely related to the subsequent (later) realization of a particular engaging role. It emphasizes the importance of learning over the years, identifying an individual's career as a
preliminary part of his socialization. Training is about the product of opportunities and ambition of the candidates. This ambition can appear in the formal (on-duty) and in the informal format of the leader. Based on a purely functional view, the mechanisms for realizing the formation, recruitment and selection of leaders, are necessary for the continuity of social systems and organizations, deriving from classical managerial theories (P. Gronn, 2002, p 1033).

Throughout the detailed research of the literature, with regard to theories of leadership, we can mention Miner's thesis (JB Miner, 1984, p 296-306), to fulfill the need for continuous empirical studies and encouraging initiatives for academic studies in this field. The Miner is probably the only researcher who wants to abandon research related to leadership, criticizing the research methodology so far, which often results in contradictory conclusions and contradictory data.

Almost all scholars around the world argue the importance and the strong correlation between formation and success in carrying out tasks, as well as the community’s influence on the formation of school principals and administrators. Even with regard to this issue, within the scope of leadership, March's observation (J. March, 1978, p 217-250) is presented in connection with his skepticism regarding the role of formation and preparation of leaders, especially when striving to relate its importance to the changes and in particular, to the progress of education. He presents his argument by doing this parallelism: "Any attempt to improve the educational system, starting to change its organization and administration, must be treated with skepticism. Changing education, by changing educational administration, is like changing the course of the Mississippi by "spitting" into Allegheny”. But there are many scholars and authors who reject the skepticism of March. Thus, Huber (2004, p 174), quotes many other scholars in several continents in their research and reports, over a decade of time, from 1976 to 2004, and underlines that "the central role of the school principal - as a functional school factor - has been confronted and confirmed by data from the research results of school functionality in recent decades.

Numerous and deep empirical studies have shown that: "Leadership is a central factor for the quality of a school - in relation to what has been mentioned above - where we can distinguish leadership patterns in North America, Great Britain, Australia and New Zealand, as well as the Netherlands and the Scandinavian countries.

"Mulford (2003, pp. 35-36), after studying and observing a few years ago, reports the need to train school and education leaders at all levels. He starts arguing with this question: should not the direction in schools and in the education system - just like lawyers or doctors - be considered a profession? Nobody looks strange when lawyers and doctors, nurses and architects are subject to licensing examinations. This exam continues to apply to some professions, consistently (Mulford, 2003, p. 35). In places like the UK, only 17% of school principals think they are "really prepared" for running the school.

Also, one in eight senior teachers agree with this section. The author quotes Bolam (Mulford, 2003, p. 36) in the OECD Report 2003, that in a study conducted with young leaders in Europe, 65% of them did not receive any informal or planned training for their tasks. In Canada, Hickcox (2002) reports that current trainings are sporadic and not coordinated for new candidates, in order for them to become leaders. Certifications of these trainings are realized on a volunteer basis and desire, and often are not archived or even protocol-based. Caldwell (2002), brings another, more disturbing look to other countries, such as Australia, Hong Kong and Sweden. He concludes: "The biggest concern, is not the problem of leadership formation, but the small number of candidates offered in this position and their quality".

These statistics are followed by very positive developments. Here we can mention Great Britain, where a great deal of specialists is devoted to the institutionalization of the National College for School principals. At the same rate, we can mention New Zealand, where initiatives are taken to establish and structure training and development centers for the formation of school principals. The professional development of managers remains a complex and widespread issue with regard to structuring and organizing the qualification or certification of school directors. Here one can see a lack of balance between the need for leadership formation and the interest shown by policymakers and the higher hierarchy of education systems.

Professor at Monash University in Melbourne, Peter Gronn (2002, p.1033) calls: "The whole problem of leadership training - and generally of maintaining and forming elites - should receive a high priority in scientific studies. This should work in conjunction with applied policies and organization of leadership formation ... All societies and cultures can be expected to regularize agreements for the production and reproduction of leaders and leader groupings in their key sectors".
Gronn (2002, p 1031-1070) adds an additional characteristic to the need for leadership formation, which should influence the acceleration of this process and the content of training programs. Gronn - using the opinion of other scholars of this field - underlines that "Management systems are very different, both from the cultural and historical point of view." In the process of leadership formation, the focus has been placed on seeking the appreciation and understanding of these cultural and national features (1991, 1994), which emphasize the importance of the value system of joint programs, based on the differences, that different societies have historically presented. Different cultural and national values are thought to define organizational problem solving strategies, as well as the diversity in management strategies and leadership. Therefore, they affect the capacity of these elites to solve issues that arise from cultural transitions and their following social developments.

The process of leadership formation is important because: (1) It enables management theories to synthesize two sources - amongst others - from which derives guidance information. These resources form the methods - or the ways - of the institutional leadership. They also show how individuals and leaders have walked along these paths. Studying the role of the institutions of a society is very important for the formulation and modeling of leadership in all its systems. It is also important to recognize the transformation of individuals' character, to abandon some roles and to acquire some others, and to be part of the dynamics of society. (2) Some theorists in the field of management think that the training process is the one that gives the recruitment opportunities to those members of the elites who are more receptive to democratic ideas and values, or those who are equipped with the ability to handle the complexity of recognition, which is constantly growing. The space and leadership training programs will shed light on recognizing these factors as well as highlighting the more appropriate temperaments and personalities desired to lead.

(3) On the other hand, the lack of these processes will hamper the work of researchers and the education system itself over the required management groups. Specifically, the control carried out by Avolio and Bass (the founders of transformational leadership theory) in the training processes of aspiring candidates to be leaders, as well as current leaders in charge of duty, brought evidence in: "Similarities of leaders regarding personality, intelligence, values, attitude, family background and education," (Gronn, 2002, p.1035).

Referring to the above authors, I think that in Albania an articulated idea for a new concept of leadership - from different scholars - should be added to the planning on the formation of school principals. This should be developed in relation to the need for the formation of education leaders in developed countries as well.

The continuous reformation of the Albanian school puts the leaders of education and all its institutions faced with many challenges in an effort to meet the contemporary requirements and standards. Continuous change and improvement requires quality management skills in the organizational and implementation plan.

But - most of all - it requires the leadership's political ability to clearly transmit the goal, as well as the methods to be used to motivate the staff steadily. This is accomplished by involving each member in a shared vision and promoting their professional and personal development.

One of the features of school reform - not just in the Albanian one - is school autonomy. "Although reforms have been going on for decades, school autonomy remains a key issue for the political agenda in most European countries," said Ján Figel, former European Commissioner for Education, Training, Culture and Youth (2007). This is a fact that shows that the process of decentralization takes time, due to the changes that the school and the education system will require. Auto-Management requires management and leadership skills for institutions that need to accomplish many indicators in terms of funding, selection of pedagogical staff, definition of assessment indicators, selection of literature, etc.

All this leader work cannot be accomplished by itself, with fragmented training in their content, nor left to the spontaneity of leadership skills. Past experiences, as well as scholars, underline the importance of training a leader as a profession.

This need and necessity is evident, at the moment when the MASR designs and plans the realization of leadership formation through licensing or certification. The time span of these programs throughout the school year is a factor that will influence the conception of this process by the leaders. Also, this factor provides a long-lasting help to their work and challenges during the fulfillment of the task.

Faculties of Education in Albanian Universities should be considered as training agencies for managers. This is an opportunity that should be addressed quickly and responsibly by the academic staff of these institutions, in order to develop
this responsibility towards the design and completion of full-time study programs (legal obligation for regulated professions) (Law no.10 171, dated 22.10.2009 On regulated professions in the Republic of Albania, Article 5).

I think that this organization will also have its effects in highlighting management subjects and career leaders, avoiding the numerous appointments of school principals who follow every political switch. Individuals who will invest in the leadership career will exhibit consistency and professionalism, presenting themselves in the direction. Thus, the spirit of a "good school" will be created for its staff members and the entire community of the institution that this person leads.

At the end of this issue - on the need for leadership formation - should also be mentioned the "call for attention", transmitted by: John's studies (2002) in the study of the preparation of school administrators in India; Sommerbakk (1994), in the study on school management training programs in Norway; Ogunu (1999) in Nigeria; and Rakhashani (1998) in Iran (Lumby, et al, 2009 p 175). All the aforementioned scholars argue that the systems of their countries (where they conduct the study) differ in sharp contrast to Western standards and patterns that these countries intended to implement. The criticism of the preparation of education leaders in developing countries failed to "live" according to the fully Western approach. They think that these Western models need to be adapted to overcome cultural barriers and national values that are undoubtedly part of their systems and the community they represent. These models nurture the forces of globalization, as well as the integration and harmonization of their direction and preparation. But to have a positive effect, the training needs must be carefully reviewed, together with their patterns and perceptual differences.

Ways used to form leaders. Overview of formal education of leadership skills

In the "Research Manual on the Education of School principals" (2009, Young, Crow, Murphy, Ogawa, p.395-415), it is mentioned that the idea of formalizing training and preparing school principals is not a very new idea, although in many countries around the world it is still treated as a challenge. Specifically, Johann Sturm, the classical German Renaissance pedagogue, was recruited by Strasbourg officials in 1537 to organize the curriculum, choose teaching methods, select the right lecturers, to set up the city's high school. This activity started after he was selected in relation to the skills demonstrated in school management. He fulfilled his job in creating, designing and running this second level education institution in this city, only after a year of work. This is cited by Hart & Bredeson (1996) as "The Best Model of an Open Learning Institute"

In the other four centuries, the degree of formal studies and preparation for the position of the school principal was different in different countries, but the pattern of "informal socialization" was generally followed - teachers with enough experience and expertise were selected - displacing their teacher from class to administrative tasks. Throughout the 18th century, the term head-teacher was used to name the position and responsibilities, on the discipline and supervision of student life, of boys who attended school away from their family (Hart & Bredeson, 1996). In Western Europe and North America, the rise of cities throughout the industrial revolution was accompanied by massive social and economic reforms that influenced the mission, structure and number of educational institutions, especially public schools (while in Great Britain, including private ones). The increase in the number of schools and the complexity of their mission resulted in the need for school principals who would have to spend more time on school administration issues as well. Nowadays, in the same way, the demands of the post-industrial and technological revolution are the ones that are knocking on the school's doors as well as on its leaders.

Formal models of "professional socialization" and preparation programs emerged in most countries at the end of the 20th century. Bredeson (1996, pp. 251-277) writes:

"In the United States, for example, the first course on college management at college level was offered by Michigan University in 1879. Education departments existed in many colleges and universities. But in very few specific courses, the administration of the school was programmed and developed."

However, it is the beginning of the 1960s, which prompted rapid growth in formal training and training programs, initially in North America, followed by countries from Europe, Australia and several countries in Asia.

Despite cultural differences, Hart and Weindling (1996, p.310) report that these programs tend to share these features:

1. Programs tend to emphasize the importance of learning before or after the appointment of a person as a leader.
2. The programs emphasize the importance of formal and informal learning (based on the ways in which the structures and agencies that develop the process use it).
3. The programs are dependent on the institutions, colleges or universities that develop it, based on the relevant teaching traditions and course organization.

4. Programs pay more attention to absorption by appointed directors.

5. Programs, more or less, rely on mentors to prepare school principals.

But, during the development of these programs, the coordination and the pace of holding training and qualifications are very important, along with the development itself and the developmental stages of the leaders.

Huber (2003) - cited by the authors of The Design and Delivery of Leadership Preparation (Grogan, Bredeson, Sherman, Preis, Beaty, 2009, p.407) - has identified four apparent stages in which the formation of leaders emerges: a) orientation, (b) preparation, (c) position occupation, (d) continuous formation. At the National College of School Leadership - the National College of School principals (UK) - the development and management frameworks plan their activity based on these five stages of a leader's career.

In the United States, the formation of leaders is based on these stages, while it is developed and supported by professional associations of school principals, state education departments, and university programs. To refer more clearly to the above authors, stages usually include: seasonal training of individuals aspiring to be leaders, formal education, certification programs or university licensing, trainings for leaders and principals, mentoring, continuous development and re-licensing (e.g., initial license, professional license, MBA).

I think it is important to recognize and appreciate this effort in relation to the development of school leadership skills, for a clearer picture of leadership formation, and the impact of informal learning on their performance. The daily contexts of the complex problems of the school leadership process are aimed at gaining new skills or new insights.

Informal development - day-to-day learning - is an important learning environment. But - referring to the knowledge and theories of leadership - the main weight in the formation and development of leaders lies in formal education. Knowledge of the leader's profession makes them aware of the personality and style they should use in accordance with this profession. Also, the staff situation and the problem that requires a solution should be considered.

In Albania - referring to the history of education development, as well as the Law on Education and various regulations - we can distinguish efforts to train leaders by participating in conferences or national meetings, creating the opportunity to exchange experience and collaboration between one another. The preparation of leadership manuals has been another effort to help their work, to facilitate the organization of work. This is especially noteworthy with regard to organization, planning and evaluation at school. Meanwhile, the guidance and decision on certification of managers from training agencies accredited by the MASR is a very important step in the development of Albanian education in relation to school management. Concretely, the opinion of the subjects of this study - composed of school principals, on the need for training - addresses the question: "How necessary are the trainings that assist the challenges of leadership”? Responses are listed below in Table 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Usefulness of training in leadership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A little</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somehow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Useful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very useful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table, it turns out that there are 97.5% of subjects who think that training on leadership challenges is much needed. This represents the need for qualification, recognition, information and training skills.
The question - "Do training modules address issues that disturb you during the leadership process?" - aimed at gathering information on the usefulness and validity of the trainings conducted with regard to leadership as well as the current issues that concern them.

| Table 2. The rate of trainings (based on request) |
|-----------------|--------|--------|-----------------|
| Frequency       | Percentage | Valid Percentage | Cumulative Percentage |
| Valid No        | 24     | 12.0   | 12.0            | 12.0                   |
| Sometimes       | 87     | 43.5   | 43.5            | 55.5                   |
| Always          | 89     | 44.5   | 44.5            | 100.0                  |
| Total           | 200    | 100.0  | 100.0           |                        |

From the data shown in the table above, it turns out that the subjects' opinion is: "Trainings developed by various certified institutions develop issues that concern the leaders and the direction of the school in general. Specifically, 44.5% of respondents think that trainings always develop such issues, 43.5% think this sometimes happens and 12% think that these trainings do not develop issues of interest to leadership. It is clear that the on-job leaders are in constant need for professional formation and transformation, in relation to the role of school principals.

The structures involved in organizing leadership formation

The selection, certification and development of the practices for the formation of school principals and administrators is different in different states and regions.

On the one hand, are they the individuals who have graduated in a profession they want, who aspire to become leaders and school principals (United States, Australia, France); on the other hand, there are also those who are appointed to the leadership position by hierarchical authorities or local authorities (Albania, Azerbaijan, Belarus, China, etc.). In many countries, individuals can follow programs run by non-governmental organizations or private schools, and may serve as head teachers or school principals. Researchers have classified two different approaches to assisting teachers to provide them with knowledge and administrative skills. One approach foresees or requires individuals to study the education administration before taking up their position as a school principal. The other approach is very different. It places the individual in the position of the leader, provided that these new administrators participate in the training activities of managers and administrators. Each approach affirms different assumptions about the best quality development of the leaders and each one seeks support from different infrastructure models.

For those who want to become school principals, they can win this position by showing merit and skill - France, Britain and the United States - or benefit from family, clan, or policy-making - Nigeria, Botswana and Azerbaijan - (2009, Lumby et al., P. 157-194). Some states - like Nigeria and Cyprus - put little demand on candidates for administrators and school principals. In some other states - such as England, the United States and Australia - a whole set of fundamental demands have been set before those aspiring to become school principals.

This detailed observation of Jacky Lumby, Allan Walker, Miles Bryant, Tony Bush and Lars. G. Bjork (2002) shows that there are many ways in determining the positions of leadership in the school. But not all promise to improve student's results and prepare the school to face challenges, in order to achieve success. But, what the scholars of the field of school management and administration bring, is their own assurance raised over the scientific arguments and the facts gathered - about the importance of the preparation and continuous formation of leaders in any educational system applied in each country.

In the table below, we provide a synthesis of Huber's (2004) studies of systems and structures involved in the preparation of leaders in some continents. The researcher categorized the systems of preparation of school principals - in the terms of centralization and decentralization - as well as those structures that ensure their preparation and formation.
Despite its peculiarities in the organization and distribution structures of this service - in the places presented by the study above - researchers suggest that there are still places where the preparation of leaders is known very little and there is still little or no effort to organize this important activity.

One of the countries with a tradition in developing school principals and administrators is the United States. The tradition of this development shows that universities are the basic structures that prepare the formation of education leaders. Mainly, these are the courses of full-time graduation programs - (2009, Grogan, et al., P.396) - for students who have a degree in education science or not, who are interested in being a school principal. Also, these courses are also offered for students who have a master's degree in completing a part of this course. Usually, these programs distinguish two contents: instructional direction (theories) and practical direction.

Private or informal institutions - in collaboration with universities - are structures that develop module courses - which have schedules set during the week - but on the other hand, offer flexibility of selection from those interested.

Another form that universities - or institutions - distribute this service are also online courses, summer schools and intensive courses over the weekend, which are applied three or four times during a semester.

**Models for Leader Formation**

**University courses**

The United States provides us with the most extensive literature on the design and delivery of educational leadership preparation (Grogan, M, et al 2009, p.396).

The purpose of this section is to provide an overview of what researchers tell about various delivery structures. Under their observation, the most comprehensive concept of the distribution system is the group, a unit organized by a number of 10-25 students (cohort model).

### Table 3. Huber's Model for Preparing School Principals (2009, Lumby et.al; p.176)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>Responsibility shared between the state and the cities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>There is no need for rules and standards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>England</td>
<td>Movement towards a coherent national provision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Netherlands</td>
<td>Diversity and choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>Recruitment and duration of training under the responsibility of the state</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>Training courses are the responsibility of state institutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>Qualification based on canons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>Mandate of trainings based on state guidelines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SudTirol</td>
<td>Qualification in private institutions selected by the government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>Full time preparation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>Short-term oriented courses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Development of the learning community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>Variety and competition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Qualification of school leaders in accordance with standards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A</td>
<td>Extensive qualification programs, long history in the preparation of school leaders</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Barnett and Muse (1993, p.400-415) define "cohort" as "a group of students who start and complete a study program together and engage in a common range of courses, activities and learning experiences". This model of leadership training has started to emerge since the early 1950s, but the incidence of these courses has increased considerably since 1987, when the National Council for the Education of Administration Professionals evaluated this model, arguing on several advantages of it. In these structures, teaching and course development is organized based on adult learning features: self-direction and internal motivation are evaluated throughout the course. Also, every knowledge and practice is modeled on the expectations and experiences of the group's own students. In conclusion, individuals support one another and learn from the experiences and situations that arise during discussions and decision-making processes.

**Distance education**

Another model that universities have experimented - as a result of using computer technology and increasing the number of internet users - is distance education. This model implies the distance between instructors and students, as well as the distribution of materials using computer technology.

This model is often suitable for leaders who are on-the-job, as well as for candidates who are actually employed at the moment. Also, this model is applied in a form that develops the skills of using technology and communication through it. This applies to future leaders, considering them as part of their ongoing work.

The use of technology, indirectly develops the style of the leader, making it less traditional and guiding it towards transformational and rational qualities.

Researchers think that not everything considered alternative, is the best. Some of them consider the use of this model in coordination with traditional forms, allowing them to exchange face-to-face information and personal recognition of other students with field experts who develop programs. This would help those communication skills that cannot be developed through technology alone.

**Collaboration between schools, universities and the community**

Programmers - who have considered the benefits of cooperation - have managed to reduce the distance between theory and practice, which is often one of the weaknesses that is criticized in the programs developed by universities. These are programs that can be fully formulated, or can be applied in the form of short or medium term course.

This model of partnership engages each of the institutions in its expertise. As universities carry out the theoretical part of the program with qualified staff, there are experienced leaders - who may still be in office - who provide their service as mentors for students preparing for future leadership. Also, day-to-day problem situations in the school environment, help practice and involve the candidates in finding solution paths.

Researchers feel that this model of cooperation allows partners and universities, to distribute proportionately the definition of what they learn, the way they learn it, and when it should be implemented.

**Preparing Education Leaders – Outside Higher Education**

These programs are developed outside the influence and tradition of universities, and for some scholars, these are alternative programs that seek to break traditions and take more risk in applying new ideas and approaches.

Usually, the instructors of these organizations bring different perspectives because they are hired as courses specialists, engaged by different sectors and different institutions.

These institutions may be non - governmental, but in most countries - where they develop their activity with alternative models - they are obliged to accredit these programs with national standards.

In the United States this model has its features. In this case, it is their cooperation with universities, in order to translate the trainings and modules realized with the value of academic credits. Therefore, they allow career advancement, with regard to doctoral studies of students, candidates and managers who attend the programs near them.

During the interviewing of the subject in this study, it resulted that: the question about "what would you rate as a preferred form of career guidance" - they answered:
Table 4. Preferred training format

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Training Format</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>On-the-job training</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training from licensed institutions</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>39.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduation press the faculty of Education</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>78.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conferences and sessions</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above, it turns out that 39% of subjects think that graduation at the faculties of education is the best form of leadership development and development, 21% think that they are doing conferences and sessions related to this field, 21% think that trainings from licensed institutions can fulfill their expectations to provide a safe career course and 18% think that experience and training throughout the work process is the most convenient way to form a school principal.

Currently, the introduction of programs for the training of leaders in the mandate by the MASR - as a commitment for the years 2011-2017 - is a serious effort of this institution towards the establishment of school administrators and education in general, remaining fragmented in the framework of training. Leaders in Albania can be appointed and trained, certified. Or, they can pursue the so-called "leadership schools" during their profession. These schools are conceived, based on the needs and opportunities of training agencies or subordinate institutions of the appointed ministry line.

In our assessment, the space created for the training agencies and institutions, and not just for the faculties of education in our universities - in relation to the implementation of the approved program - is a starting point for reflecting on European and wider experiences, regarding this development.

Accreditation of institutions and programs - in which, the content included is very important regarding theoretical and practical issues in the context of the reforming policies of the Albanian school (such as managerial skills, planning, financial resources management, etc.), regarding the autonomy of school - I think they are very important elements. These elements serve as a first step at the beginning of this very important process for the academic success of the school.

The involvement of the faculties of education in trainings and the formation of leaders, would be considered as a very important moment in this training enterprise. The focus is giving knowledge on theories of leadership and some knowledge on legislation on pre-university education.

Their certification after the end of this program will be helpful as well as a good tradition for the formation of leaders in the Korca region.

Recommendations

The need for leadership formation, is a sign of need for school directors and school challenges themselves. The implemented ways for leadership formation may be different, according to the recommendations the researchers submit. But - in the concept of management as a profession - this study highlights the design and beginning of second and third cycle study programs at faculties of education, or those of social sciences. Building a study program with clear professional training goals and objectives, will lead to graduating many leaders and aspiring leaders of this important and challenging profession.

References


The Cultural Identity Construction of Temples for Tourism

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Abstract
This study presents Buddhist temples’ cultural identity construction to serve a tourism purpose in Thailand. Qualitative data were collected by in-depth interviews with 20 key informants who represented the temples and the tourism organizations. Research findings: The Buddhist temples, which are considered to be the main religious organization, had changed their role to fit the new social trend. In the past, temples were the heart of community lifestyles and the center of religious activity practice. In this present time, however, Buddhist temples become religious tourist places. Carrying such new role, it appears that temples have been trying to establish five cultural identities with the aim to best serve the tourism. Those five cultural identities are increasing cultural capital value, capturing the tourists’ faith through the presentation of respected monk or abbot, combining Buddhist beliefs to the local faiths, setting up the temple’ tourism landmark, and building a unique tradition of the temple and the community.

Keywords: Cultural Identity Construction, Buddhist temples, Religious tourism, Cultural Capital Value

Introduction
Tourism industry has grown constantly over the last decade. Under the environmental, economical and social changes as well as the natural disaster, tourism industry could adjust itself to the situation and could eventually develop itself and become the biggest and fast growing business sector in the world (Tran, Thanh Ha, 2014). In addition, it has brought large number of employment. This indicates that tourism industry plays a key role in economic and social systems of both developed and developing countries. This is due to the fact that tourism industry is the source of incomes, new job creation, and people life improvement opportunity.

Religious tourism is a form of an industry originated form differences in traditions and religious faiths. It is a trip to explore religious places, and study historical-religious story of such places. Religious tourism also facilitates the spreading of beliefs and religious teaching principles. At present, religious tourism is not only for a devout pilgrim but also for traditional and cultural study. It is also for religious activity participation in a community of destination.

As Thailand has prominent tourist heritage, both in concrete and abstract forms, it becomes the popular destination for tourists across the world. From this popularity, it is suggested that transforming the national religion—Buddhism—into traveling identity could be the potential strategy encouraging cultural tourism, particularly the ones related to religion, for the country. An example of important travel destination is a temple which is considered one main organization of Buddhism (Department of Religious Affairs, 2014).

A Buddhist temple is a spiritual center of Thai people. It is closely connected to ways of life of people from the first day to the last day of their life. However, under the changing world, the importance of temple has diminished. This leads to its realization of adjusting itself to the new social trend. From the holy place of ritual ceremonies and traditional activities, a temple is now a travel destination. Many temples in Thailand are trying to create significant spots to attract more travelers. These significant spots creation could range from constructing architectural and sculptural sites to establishing center of religious practice.

This study aims to present the cultural identity construction of Thai temples for tourism purpose. In this respect, the paper elaborates how Buddhist temples in Thailand adjust themselves in the changing world by transforming the cultural religious heritages which are the non financial value into ones with financial value to serve tourism.
Religious Tourism in Thailand

Religious tourism emerged from devout pilgrims who have faith on religions or gods (Timothy, 2011). The common practice of a devout pilgrim is travel to a holy place. The routes of religious tourism has constantly developed and adjusted to meet the travel goal of travelers. Now, religious tourism is included in cultural tourism. People who do this type of travel might not be the followers of a religion. Rather, they might be ones who want to learn and see different traits of different religions via their trips. Religious tourism can respond to the spiritual and learning needs of those people. For them, religious tourism offers peaceful mind from attending religious festivals which usually take place in their travel destination. Many travelers could also enjoy the sightseeing to holy places as well as explore the cultural experiences (Shackley, 2002).

Many religious tourist destinations like temples, monasteries, and churches could immensely attract large numbers of tourists due to their spiritual and entertaining values. Educational and cultural opportunities are also offered in this type of tourism (Woodward, 2004). At this point in time, the value and significance of religious places make them popular in the tourism market attracting more and more tourists (Francis et al., 2008).

There are factors encouraging people to join a religious trip. The first factor is experience of feeling or spiritual experience they received when visiting a holy place or when attending religious-related activities offered during the trip. These activities are such as participating in a ritual ceremony, praying, asking and receiving blessing, and making wishes. The second factor urging people to travel is culture. Recently, religious traveling is similar to a holiday trip or a cultural trip due to its cultural significance and value. Not only the aforementioned factors, some people travel to religious-related places to pay respect to their ancestor, to study historical story of a particular holy place or a beautiful architect. From this, it could be clearly seen that different people are differently motivated to join the religious tour.

In Thailand where national religion is Buddhism, different people join the religious tour with different travel pattern, behavior and purposes. They could be put into five categories proposed by Wong et al. (2013). The first categorize includes people who enjoy the beauty of holy places, while people in the second group are ones who have certain adherence to Buddhism. They travel with faith to pay respect to a sacred item. The third category covers tourists who, when being compared with tourist in the second group, have higher level of faith and respect to Buddhism. For them, traveling to pay respect to Buddha image will bring them a spiritual fulfillment. For people who are categorized as the fourth group, they are not only tourists of a religious tour but also the strong believers of Buddhism, comparing with people in three previous groups. For them, the important aims of traveling to a holy place are to pay respect to a sacred item, to study the principles of Buddhist philosophy, and to appreciate the teachings of Buddhist monks.

In general, religious tour in Thailand is usually centered in the temple which is the heart of the Theravada Buddhist doctrine. A temple is important symbol of Buddhism. It is a place that holds the ritual activities. Usually, a temple includes areas of building or permanent architecture used for worship or conducting of ritual ceremonies. Monk’s residence is also a part of a temple.

In ancient time, when Buddhism firstly emerged, religious practice or activity was not usually held inside a permanent building. Rather they took place in designated open natural area or in existing building suitable for the practice or activity. At present, when the religion has been widely known, there have been increased numbers of followers and priests. Religious places become essential. This led to the increasing numbers of permanent buildings of fine architect and artistry style of decoration presenting the tradition and ideology of the religion. Furthermore, power of a person who financially supports the construction of a religious building seems to play a big role. The building that was financially supported the construction by powerful person such as ruler of the country or the king, would be enormous in size; its fine decorating style was usually completed by skillful craftsman.

It could be seen that a temple is the place that gathers the mind of Thai people from past to present. It is the source of various arts and academic as well as a hub of invaluable fine arts. This is invaluable cultural heritage and is the identity of Thai society. Arts and culture in a temple reflect Thailand’s civilization and prosperity. Therefore, temple is a good source for the tracing of history, archaeology, architecture, the relation of culture and community, as well as the establishment of a community.

All cultural assets in Buddhist temples are the hearth of Buddhists. They have no financial value, but they are spiritually invaluable. However, at the present time, social change forces people ways of life into a trap of economic system. From such phenomenon, many social organizations realize the necessity to adjust themselves to suit the changing world. A
temple, as a religious organization, also changes its role. This change has been completed via the concept of transforming cultural assets to salable products proposed by Karl Polanyi (1944, 2001) as elaborated in the following section.

Fictitious Commodities

As previously mentioned, religious tourism is a phenomenon that religious organization tries to put itself into the economic pond by changing the spiritual invaluable places and objects to be the financially valuable ones. In that, spiritual-cultural assets are transformed into salable products. This phenomenon can be clearly seen through the lens of fictitious commodities proposed by Karl Polanyi (1944). Polanyi was a famous Hungarian economist, politician and historian who postulated that workforce, land and money are not originally for financial benefits (1944, 2001). They are not true commodities for selling. According to Polanyi, true merchandise must be fabricated for selling purpose. For workforce, land and money, they are not produced for sale on the market. Workforce is only a word used to call human activity that occurs simultaneously with life cycle: it is not produced for marketing purpose. Such activity could not be taken away from human life: it could not be separately stored to be sold. Land is the name human use to call a natural space. Money is a symbol that indicates the buying power of a person. Strictly speaking, money is not fabricated. It is a mechanism in banking and governmental financing systems.

In summary, workforce, land and money are not for sale on the market. They are then positioned as fictitious commodities so that they could be sold. Sharing similar traits with workforce, land and money, the religious-cultural heritages, which are found in Thailand, are invaluable assets that originally not for sell in tourism market. However, in the current capitalist world, the industry becomes more complex. More complexity of industrial manufacture means more numbers of industrial components, and religious-cultural assets are important components. Therefore, it is necessary to turn these non financial value places and items to be the financial value ones so that they could be added into the industrial system. This could be managed by the process of transforming them to the salable products using the concept of fictitious commodities. In this study, the concept of fictitious commodities is used as the analytical framework examining identity construction of Thai Buddhist temples for tourism purpose.

Identity Construction and Culture

Identity refers to human realization. It is how we understand who we are and who others are. It is the state of knowing about ourselves and how others’ realizing about us (Berger and Luckmam, 1967). In Thai language, the word ‘identity’ refers to specific quality of a thing that makes it recognizable (The Royal Society of Thailand, 2003). In English, the word ‘identity’ has its root from Latin word ‘identitas’ which means similar (Jenkins, 1996). It could be noticed that the meanings of ‘identity’ from the two languages are quite different. Thai language presents identity as specific quality of a thing which is dissimilar to other thing. In English, however, identity means the similarity of things within the same community which is different form things in other community. Therefore, identity could mean the similarity and specific uniqueness that are different.

Identity is the act exhibiting human symbol and internal dimension. These are such as emotion, feeling and thought. Identity could be classified into two types: the first is personal identity and the second is social identity (Pheunghoosakul, 2013). From this, identity can be put into individual and social levels. In individual level, identity includes gender, ethnic group, social status, career and religion. In social level, identity is built upon similarity found in one community which is different from the other (Princess Maha Chakri Sirindhorn Anthropology Centre, 2004).

Identity usually relates to society and culture. In this respect, culture is the main determiner of identity, while society is factor influencing change or adjustment of that identity. Culture which includes belief, value, and world view plays a key role in mediating nature and human to build a person traits. Hence, culture is important factor of identity construction. It takes major part in molding identity of a person in both individual and social levels (Padungchewit, 2007) as it is the overarching frame that control the production, consumption and supervision of an identity (Curtine & Gaither, 2007). Hence when one identity is constructed, culture is usually involved so that the construction can yield identity that has specific quality different from other who is from different culture: and most importantly such quality must be recognizable.

In Thailand, the identity construction of Buddhist temples cannot be completed without the involvement of culture. This study examines how Buddhism temples in Thailand construct their cultural identity.
Methodology
This qualitative study investigates how Buddhism temples in Thailand build their cultural identity to serve the tourism market. Data were obtained via an in-depth interview. The key informants were the representative of major temples and tourism organizations in Thailand. The obtained data were analyzed using thematic analysis. Polanyi’s concept of fictitious commodities was the analytical framework of this study.

Findings and Discussion
The analyzed data revealed that Buddhist temples—the main religious organization—have been significantly influenced by the growing world of capitalist economy. From the holy places that money was hardly spent, the temples currently have spent money to keep activities running. Such expenditure were electricity bills, or meals prepared for people attending the regular activities like meditating, listening to a sermon. Accordingly, most of Buddhist temples put themselves into tourism industry selling what they had to the tourists with the hope to earn more money.

Data also revealed that Buddhist temples have tried to turn the spiritual-religious places and objects into the salable products. In doing this, they constructed their cultural identifies with the main aim to utilize those constructed cultural identities as the merchandises ready to be sold in tourism market. The obtained data reported five ways that those temples in Thailand chose to build their own identity. Those five ways included increasing cultural capital value, capturing the tourists’ faith through the presentation of respected monk or abbot, combining Buddhist beliefs to the local faiths, setting up the temple’ tourism landmark, and building a unique tradition of the temple and the community.

Data also reported that these five ways were used by temples across Thailand. However, it could be seen form data that each temple chose to follow one of the five ways depending on their potential. Followings are the elaboration of the five ways of cultural identity constructions and how each way has been implemented in the temples.

Cultural Identity Construction of Buddhist Temples in Thailand
Way1: Increasing Cultural Capital Value
Cultural capital value is the asset that embodies stores and provides cultural value in addition to its existing economic value (Throsby, 2001). Such asset can give rise to both economic and cultural benefits. According to Throsby (2001), there are two main forms of cultural capital. The first form is intangible cultural capital which covers idea, intellect, belief and value (Throsby, 2003). Another form is tangible cultural capital. Buildings, locations, and sites are examples of this cultural capital (Throsby, 2001). In a Thai context, tangible cultural capital can be archaeological site, antiquities as well as buildings in a temple. It appears that Buddhist temples in Thailand have both intangible cultural capital and tangible cultural capital. The intangible cultural capital frequently found in the temples is the faith that tourist have on the temple they visit, while the tangible cultural capital includes all holy items found in the temples. In this regard, data showed three attractions that could offer both intangible and tangible cultural capital to the visitors. Followings describe each attraction:

1.1 Buddha statue
Buddha statue is one of a sacred object in Buddhism. It has long been worshipful for all followers of the religion. It is considered important cultural capital because Buddha statue is the representation of Lord Buddha—the founder of Buddhism. Buddhists strongly believe that worshipping and paying respect to a statue of Buddha, particularly the ancient one, will bring them happiness and prosperity. In addition, they will be safe from all dangers. Accordingly, worshipping and paying respect to a statue of Buddha is a common practice among Buddhists. There are large numbers of temples in Thailand. In Bangkok there are more than ten important temples housing significant ancient Buddha statues (Policy and Planning Division, 2012). Different Buddha statues have different origins, creation myths and styles of presentation. In addition, revered Buddha statues can also be found residing in major temples of each province. Such large numbers of Buddha statues, Buddhists can conveniently visit principal temples in their area to worship and pay respect to the holy Buddha statues. Comparing to local temples, Buddhists prefer to visit the temples that house the ancient Buddha statues. This phenomenon suggests that temples with cultural capital tend to attract more visitors. Such cultural capital covers both the tangible one (the statue of Buddha) and the intangible one (the faith for the ancient Buddha statue).
1.2 Pagoda

One mission of Buddhists in Thailand is to build pagoda to house sacred relics of Buddha. This is due to the belief that Buddha relics are major sacred objects that bring peaceful to Thailand. This type of pagoda is called ‘Phra Taat Chedi.’ The creation myths of some of the phra taat chedi are told through local literature in the area which in turn leads to more respect from people in community and across the world. Examples of phra taat chedi which become widely respected by people are Phra Taat Phanom (residing in Nakon Phanom province), Phra Taat Choeng Chu (residing in Sakon Nakhon province), Phra Taat Kham Kaen (residing in Khon Kaen province), Phra Taat Na Doon (residing in Maha Sarakham province), The Golden Mount (residing in Bangkok), Phra Pathom Chedi (residing in Nakhon Pathom province), Phra Maha Chedi Chai Mongkul (residing in Roi Et province) (Policy and Planning Division, 2012). They are places to keep the sacred relics or cremated ashes of Buddha. As the sacred relics or cremated ashes of Buddha are representations of the venerated Buddha, worshiping and paying respect to them will bring happiness and prosperity. From this, a temple housing ‘phra taat chedi’ becomes a popular destination for many tourists. All the phra taat chedi are regularly visited by visitors who hold strong faith on the holy relics or cremated ashes of Lord Buddha.

1.3 Aesthetic architecture

Beautiful architecture in Buddhist temples is one cultural capital. Most temples in Thailand tend to build beautiful monastery and sanctuary with aim to make them the cultural heritages of the country. Essentially, Buddhist sanctuary which is a place for conducting ritual ceremony is the significant spot of individual temples. In this regard, different sanctuaries are built with different architectural styles representing local architecture of each area. In addition, some temples build a monastery to place a prominent Buddha statue together with the principle Buddha image of the temple. Furthermore, some temples even build a Tripitaka Hall to house the Tripitaka (Buddhist Scriptures). These aesthetic architectures are important cultural capitals that bring faith to local. And now they are transformed to the destination of religious tourism.

Way 2: Capturing the Tourists’ Faith through the Presentation of Respected Monk or Abbot

The popularity of a respected monk or abbot is also an important identity that attracts more travelers to visit the temple. Most Thai people give importance to Buddhist monks because of the Buddhist teachings they have ingrained. According to one of Buddhist teachings, monks are who lead good deed and good practice. They are superior to ordinary people. Therefore, making merit with monks and paying respect to them will bring fortune. Paying respect to Buddhist monk becomes one major identity that attracts people to visit a temple. This practice is in line with the concept of paying respect to the major Buddha statue. Only one difference is that the target is a human monk. In many cases, Buddhists sometimes visit a temple to pay respect to their revered monk even after he passed away. In doing this, they worship his portrait or picture. Some temples choose not to cremate body of the great monk. Instead, the body is kept in a glass coffin so that it could be seen by his followers. The body in a glass coffin becomes the signature of the temple which in turn draws a lot of attention from visitors. An example could be from a case of Wat Wang Wiwekaram where the body of Luang Phor Utama has been placed in a coffin. Although the venerable father Utama has passed away, he is still highly admired by the Thai and Mon people living in Songkhla Buri District—a big Mon community in Kanchanaburi province, Thailand. He is also known as ‘God of Songkhla Buri.’

Similar to the case of Wang Wiwekaram Temple, there are numbers of temples using the fame of revered monks who passed away as the signature attracting tourists. One temple is Wat Rakang Kositaram, Bangkok, a home of the venerable farther Dto Phromrangsri. The venerable farther Dto Phromrangsri is known as the monk who conducted great deed: he is also considered the one with great magic chanting. Another example is Wat Ban Rai, Nakhon Ratchasima province which is the home temple of the venerable father Khun. The venerable father Khun is one of the most famous revered monks who usually helped his followers by way of magic chanting. Wat Pa Ban Tat, Udom Thani province is the home temple of the venerable uncle Maha Bua whose great conduct has been widely known by all Thai people. Many hospitals, airports and schools received financial support from the venerable uncle Maha Bua. Another important temple is Wat nong Pha Pong, Ubon Ratchathani province where the venerable father Cha, the founder of the temple lived. He is known for respective sermon.

Of these major monks, some are an example of great deed and some are known as using magic chanting to help people. Thai people are closely connected to Buddhism, particularly when it comes to their revered monks who lead their spirits. Thus, it is not surprising that even when the monks passed away, their devotees are still give them high respect and
still want to make a visit to the temples that hold their bodies. This phenomenon becomes one cultural identity of the temples which in turn brings more tourists.

**Way 3: Combining Buddhist Beliefs to the Local Faiths**

Combining Buddhist beliefs to the local faiths can be one possible way that a temple can use to create its cultural identity. For example, in the northeastern part of Thailand, the respect of naga derives from two different practices of different group of people. The first practice is of ethnic groups living by a river bank whose holy common practice is worshiping serpent. The second practice is of a Buddhist-Hindu belief. The combination yields an invented tradition (Siriwong, 2013) which is named by local ‘bung fai paya nak’ (naga fireball festival). This tradition is based on the belief that nagas fired the glowing ball from under the water to worship Lord Buddha while he was descending from the Tavatimsa Realm, on the day which the rain-retreat ended.

Apart from the naga fireball festival, people’s respect of naga is also seen through the building of naga-like stairs which are seen in many temples. The naga-like stairs present two connotations about Buddha teaching. The first connotation is taking the naga-like stairs will lead followers of Buddhism to Lord Buddha: the second connotation is the naga-like stairs is a path to virtue. This can be a part of the temple’s identity construction.

Another example of how a Buddhism belief is combined to a local faith is when Buddhists in Thailand name temples using words of fortune and happiness. These temples with propitious names could be found in many provinces like Chienmai. There are such as Wat Loikroh (means throw away bad luck), Wat Dap Phal (means get rid of all danger), Wat Duang Dee (means fortunate), Wat Sri Ker (means fortunate), Wat Chai Prakiat (means the king’s glory), Wat Meunngenkon (means propitious), Wat Meunngenlan (means wealhty), Wat Prasat (means glory castle), and Wat Chiang Man (means eternity). These temples with fortunate names advertise themselves to the public on the basic concept that travelers who visit them will have fortunate life. This could be seen that they successfully mix the religious-related context (temple) to the local belief of good luck in building a strong identity to serve tourism.

**Way 4: Setting up the Temple’s Tourism Landmark**

Temples that have no cultural capital like archaeological site, antiquities or cultural resources, have to set up their own landmarks. These landmarks can be a place or building that becomes identity of the temple. Tentatively, most landmarks are such as Buddha statue, pagoda or Buddhist sanctuary. They are usually in big size and are beautiful. For example, in Roi Ed province, the biggest standing Buddha statue under the name ‘Phra Rattana Mongkol Mahamunee’ has become a symbol of the province and has received high respect form tourists. Another example is a case of Wat Saman Rattanaram Temple, Chachoengsao province where the giant Ganesha statues are the signature of the temple. Ganesha is an elephant-headed Hindu god known as the deity of fortune and success. This brings large numbers of people who search for happy and fortunate life to visit this temple. One interesting example is a temple that has a Sky Walk (named Wat Pha Tak Suea) in Nong Kai province. The long sky walk, which was built overlooking a cliff, has glass floors and walls can attract a lot of visitors. In visiting Wat Pha Tak Suea, visitors can attend the religious activities and enjoy overlooking the Mekong river. Surprisingly, the setting up the temple’s tourism landmark is increasingly popular in Thailand as it is believed to bring mass of tourists to visit temples that do not have existing cultural capital.

**Way 5: Building a Unique Tradition of the Temple and the Community**

One important way that a temple can build its cultural identity is creating a unique tradition of the temple and the community. This unique can be an invented tradition (Siriwong, 2013). This can be done by adjusting or reinventing the existing tradition. Inventing a new tradition (based on Buddhist teaching or local legend) is also included. These traditions can earn economic benefits from tourist activities. Examples of invented tradition are Phra Uppakut Buddha image procession, the Vessantara Jataka, the festival of the Illuminated boat procession, candle festival, floral offerings festival. Although these traditions are not in itself valuable in terms of religious importance, they are invaluable cultural assets for the country. The building of unique tradition for temple and community creates economic cultural value.

**Conclusion**

The changing world has immensely affected all parts of human society. The religious organization has also been influenced by this growing world of capitalist economy. A Buddhist temple which is a major religious organization is undergoing self-adjustment to meet the new social trend. From a center of Buddhists’ soul and a major location of the holy practice, a
Buddhist temple now is transforming itself to the significant tourist attraction. This study presents five ways of how Buddhist temples in Thailand construct cultural identity to enhance the cultural capital.

First is to add financial value of the cultural capital. In doing this, temples charm tourists by commercializing their existing Buddha statue, pagoda or aesthetic architecture. On basis that worshiping sacred object or place brings fortune and merit, temples that have cultural-religious heritages can attract huge numbers of tourists, particularly the followers of Buddhism. For them, they not only can enjoy the journey to the temples but they can also show respect to the holy Buddha statue, pagoda as well as absorb beauty of architecture inside the temple of destination. However, it is worth mentioning that, this way of constructing cultural identity cannot be applied by all temples. It could specifically happen to temples that have long history and that have cultural-religious heritage.

The second way to create cultural identity is through the faith that Buddhists have on their revered monks. As one important of Buddhist teaching principle is to give respect to monks, visiting and asking for blessing from the monks is commonly seen in Buddhists community. People particularly give highest respect to the monks who exhibit great deed or ability to regulate magic chanting to help people. Their faiths never fade away even after their holy monk has passed away. They continue visiting the temple he used to reside. One thing they usually bring back home is the sacred symbol or sacred item representing their revered monk. Thus, the home temple of the great monk can endlessly charm a large numbers of tourists.

Next, some temples choose to create their cultural identity by combining religious belief to community faith. Such combination brings about unique tradition which can enormously grab tourists’ attention.

The fourth way that Buddhist temples can build their cultural identity is to establish a unique landmark. This landmark is created directly for the tourism purpose. It becomes the most popular way among the five cultural identity constructions as it can be a good choice for temples that do not have existing cultural-religious heritages or great monks. However, when choosing this way of cultural identity construction, the temple has to be certain that its landmark is religious-related. Further, it has to be distinctive, enormous and beautiful enough to catch people’s attention.

One last way to create a cultural identity is to invent tradition that temple and community can specifically share. Those invented tradition is usually related to religion, so it becomes the cultural product that is a selling signature in the tourism world.

In summary, it could be stated that the cultural identity construction of Buddhist temples in Thailand can be seen as transforming the non-financial value things to a financial value ones. This is in accordance with Karl Polanyi’s concept of the construction of fictitious commodities. Like Polanyi’s idea about labor, land and money (1944, 2001), holy statue, holy place, great monk, religious belief and local tradition are not true commodities. They were originally not for selling. However, they can be transformed to be fictitious commodities which in turn can be sold in the tourism market. Although tourism is not related to religion and culture in all aspects, the capitalist economy establishes the strong relationship between them. In Thailand, Buddhist temples are now aiming to transform themselves to be popular tourist destination due to the necessity to earn more incomes. This phenomenon lessens their previous role of being a spiritual center for religious practice and a heart of the community.

From abovementioned, the cultural identity construction of Buddhist temples in Thailand is for the tourism purpose. This is derived from the economic system of the current world which affects not only people way of life but on all corner of human society. Temple, as an important religious organization cannot survive in the world without making change. Therefore, temple has to put every effort to change itself to be one of tourism spots. This change can be viewed through the lens of Polanyi’s fictitious commodities.

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Exploring Foreign Language Communication Apprehension among the English Language University Students in the English Language Classroom Setting

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Abstract

Over the past few decades the interest in communication apprehension has increased among researchers and teachers in the field of second/foreign language acquisition (SLA/FLA). The present paper is set between the macro perspective of the social-psychological period – by giving a general view of communication apprehension (CA) – and the situation-specific period – by taking into consideration the immediate educational context. The paper focuses on the phenomenon of communication apprehension among the Croatian university level students in a foreign language classroom setting. In particular, it investigates if there is a difference in the total level of communication apprehension between undergraduate and graduate students of English Language and Literature. Furthermore, it explores whether there is a relationship between different aspects of communication apprehension and the total level of communication apprehension and which background factor is the best predictor of communication apprehension among the students. The first part of the paper brings a theoretical background of the main concepts in this research, whereas the second part of the paper reports on the research itself. Two sets of instruments, questionnaires completed by the students and in-depth interviews conducted among the teachers, were used for the purpose of this study. The results show that the year of study is not a significant predictor of the communication apprehension level which students experience. Among all variables included in the analysis, the only significant predictors of communication apprehension are evaluations.

Keywords: in-class communication apprehension; English as a foreign language; university level; evaluations

Introduction

Communication apprehension (CA) has often been perceived as one of the most important psychological factors that enters versatile interactions with other affective, cognitive and contextual factors in the process of second/foreign language acquisition (SLA/FLA). As such, it has been an attractive research topic for a number of decades but has lately gained wider attention among researchers due to its impact on foreign language learning (FLL).

The world of global English we live in has affected people from all walks of life, from teaching, business and health professionals, to those who simply want to improve their listening and communication skills. As a consequence, learning English as a foreign language (EFL) has become an inevitable part of education. The question how global trends affect EFL learners’ (un)willingness to speak in the EFL classroom is at the centre of the present study. In particular, we take a situative perspective by exploring the difference between the potential aspects of communication apprehension and its manifestations among the two generations of university students: undergraduates and graduates in the Croatian socio-educational context.

After a brief review of the CA terminology, selected related issues and relevant research findings, we report on the study carried out with the aim to better understand aspects and effects of communication apprehension on university level EFL

1 Cf. Crnjak (2017) – the present paper is part of the second author’s unpublished Master’s Thesis
students. In the final part of the paper the most important conclusions of this study are drawn, and implications and recommendations for future research are offered.

**Apprehension vs. anxiety - Defining the terms**

When looking into the terminology, it can be noticed that there is no clear distinction between the term *communication apprehension* and the term *speaking anxiety*. In the existing literature the two terms appear in the same contexts, frequently denoting the same phenomenon. At the very beginning of this study the aforementioned terms were looked up in five prominent English online dictionaries and their definitions are presented in Table 1 and 2 respectively.

**Table 1. Dictionary definitions of the term “apprehension”**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dictionary</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Macmillan Dictionary</td>
<td>a feeling of worry or fear that something bad might happen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oxford Dictionary</td>
<td>anxiety or fear that something bad or unpleasant will happen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambridge Dictionary</td>
<td>worry about the future, or a fear that something unpleasant is going to happen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Merriam-Webster Dictionary</td>
<td>suspicion or fear especially of future evil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Free Dictionary</td>
<td>fearful or uneasy anticipation of the future</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2. Dictionary definitions of the term “anxiety”**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dictionary</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Macmillan Dictionary</td>
<td>a worried feeling you have because you think something bad might happen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oxford Dictionary</td>
<td>a feeling of worry, nervousness, or unease about something with an uncertain outcome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambridge Dictionary</td>
<td>an uncomfortable feeling of nervousness or worry about something that is happening or might happen in the future</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Merriam-Webster Dictionary</td>
<td>apprehensive uneasiness or nervousness usually over an impending or anticipated ill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Free Dictionary</td>
<td>a state of uneasiness and apprehension, as about future uncertainties</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although dictionary definitions (see Table 1 and 2) rarely use the terms *apprehension* and *anxiety* interchangeably, relevant research findings point to an occasional overlap of the two terms.

The concept of *communication apprehension* appeared in the United States where it was introduced by J. C. McCroskey in 1970. Early research related to the fear in a second, or a foreign language was conducted under the label of *foreign language anxiety*. Therefore, there are cases in which both terms denote the same phenomenon and are used interchangeably. In his later research findings on communication apprehension, McCroskey (1977) gave a brief overview of the previous studies on the topic offering a variety of terms different researchers would use to cover the notion of fear and anxiety in oral communication. Some of these terms are *stage fright, reticence, shyness, audience sensitivity*, and *communication apprehension*. Both McCroskey (1976) and Spielberger (1983, as cited in Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986) could not avoid the term *anxiety* when defining *communication apprehension*. In his 1977 study, McCroskey uses the terms *speech communication anxiety* and *communication apprehension* interchangeably. According to his definition, *speech communication anxiety or communication apprehension* is an individual's ability to communicate with others. As an important variable, it has received considerable attention in communication, education, and psychology. McCroskey defines *speech communication anxiety* as an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with another person or persons. It could be concluded that the two terms partially overlap, which could consequently lead to the misconception that they are synonymous.
According to Allen and Bourhis (1995), communication apprehension refers to a family of related terms including: (a) reticence, (b) shyness, (c) unwillingness to communicate, and (d) stage fright. They claim that there are arguments for and against the appropriateness and applicability of various terms, although the terms have many elements in common.

However, McCroskey (1976) finds it extremely important to differentiate between the terms communication apprehension and stage fright. He identifies communication apprehension as a much broader term and a much more severe problem that was faced by a smaller percentage of the population and overlooked because its manifestations were seldom observed except in public speaking settings. Research shows that although communication apprehension is often experienced both in public and private settings, it does not prove to be a widespread phenomenon. On the contrary, stage fright is claimed to be a rather common phenomenon experienced to some degree by almost everyone who engages in some kind of public activity, i.e. performance in front of an audience, such as singing, dancing, public speaking, and even oral reading. McCroskey (1977) also provides a reason for using the term communication apprehension for the purpose of his studies. He states that communication apprehension as a term more broadly represents the total of the fears and anxieties studied previously.

The value of McCroskey's (1976) work lies in its capacity to offer a clearer distinction between the terms related to the concept of communication apprehension and therefore serves as the starting point for our theoretical review.

Related Research

Impelled by the observation that communication apprehension might be one of the most important factors influencing foreign language learning (FLL), over the past few decades the interest in empirical research in CA and the related concepts has increased worldwide. The studies have been rooted in different theories and methodologies, (most notably those advanced by McCroskey and Horowitz and their respective associates) that have given precedence to a number of variables assumed to play an important role in understanding the phenomenon of FLL communication apprehension.

The bulk of early research (Scovel, 1978; Horwitz and Cope, 1986; Krashen, 1987; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1989) suggested that the relation of anxiety to second/foreign language achievement was ambivalent and specific to language learning context, providing thereby evidence in favour of either negative, positive or no relationships.

McCroskey was the first to offer a clearer terminological distinction. In his research paper, McCroskey (1976) employed the correlation analysis in order to determine the relationship between CA and personality traits and intelligence. Furthermore, McCroskey examined some of the possible causes of CA such as intelligence, teacher expectations and students' attitudes. The findings showed that there is a relationship between students’ attitudes and CA, which will be additionally confirmed by the present study.

The above mentioned research studies may have more or less unconsciously inspired most researchers to address the problem of CA with reference to EFL learners at the elementary level. However, the problem of CA equally affects more proficient language learners, in particular EFL learners at the university level. Frequently mentioned CA inducing factors at the tertiary level are as follows: language classroom requirements (integrative nature of the classroom and learner's need to communicate), high academic goals, learner's self-consciousness (associated with the image of learner's self).

The observation that the existing theories failed to incorporate all the variables of the communicative process inspired researchers worldwide to further explore and reconceptualise the construct of CA.

Thus, Mihaljević Djigunović's (2004) research was conducted in order to investigate if there is a relationship between language anxiety and a number of individual differences among Croatian students. Her study reveals that there is a correlation between language use anxiety and CA. In other words, individuals with high language use anxiety will also have high CA. In her 2006 study, Mihaljević Djigunović examined the role of affective factors in the development of productive skills. The results of the study point to language anxiety as one of the affective factors and suggest that language anxiety contributes to poor foreign language performance.

Kostić-Bobanović (2007) investigated intercultural CA among freshmen students at the Department of Economics and Tourism at the University of Juraj Dobrila in Pula, Croatia. Her longitudinal study supports the notion that a high level of CA negatively affects both the academic and the social success of an individual.
Toth (2006) explored the role of foreign language anxiety experienced during oral production of English in a qualitative study carried out among Hungarian advanced-level learners. The study shows how anxiety affects Hungarian first year English majors’ speech production and performance in a conversation with a native speaker of English.

Lahtinen (2013) carried out a research among the Finnish-Swedish population in Finland and measured the levels of CA of two groups of Finnish upper secondary school students in order to find out if there is a difference in the levels of CA between them. The results showed that the Finnish-Swedes suffered less from CA than the Finns.

This section offered a brief overview of the previous studies conducted in Croatia and worldwide. Their findings contributed greatly to the investigation of CA, its relationship with individual differences, development of productive skills, as well as academic achievement and success. The theoretical part of the present study rests heavily on McCroskey’s work, whereas the study steps into the footprints of the aforementioned research conducted in Finland (Lahtinen, 2013). As the following sections will show, regardless of similarities in research methodology, the results would differ.

Types of Communication Apprehension

Within the phenomenon of communication apprehension, two types of communication apprehension can be distinguished. The first type is usually referred to as ‘trait’ apprehension, and the second type as ‘state’ apprehension. This distinction was offered by McCroskey (1977), who based it on the previous work of Spielberger (1966) and Lamb (1973).

According to McCroskey (1977), trait apprehension is characterized by fear or anxiety regardless of the type of oral communication situation a person engages in, from talking to a single person or within a group of people to giving a public speech. He points out that it is not a characteristic of normal or well-adjusted individuals since people with high levels of trait communication apprehension experience very high levels of fear when engaging in any oral communication situation, both those which could be considered threatening and those which rationally could not. McCroskey (1977) reports on previous studies conducted among a college student population which suggest that about twenty percent of the students experience a high trait communication apprehension.

As opposed to trait apprehension, state apprehension is specific to an oral communication situation (McCroskey, 1977). The situation may vary from giving a public speech to being interviewed for a new job. A well-known manifestation of state apprehension is the so-called “stage fright”, the fear or anxiety a person experiences when communicating orally in situations where others are in a position to observe and evaluate their communication attempt. In situations such as acting or singing before an audience and giving a public speech many people experience stage fright, which is considered to be a normal response of people in a public setting. McCroskey (1977) even goes further and argues that it would not be completely unreasonable to suspect the emotional stability of an individual who never experiences state communication apprehension in a threatening oral communication situation.

Causes of Communication Apprehension

McCroskey (1977) states that the causes of communication apprehension are not and may never be fully known. Some studies (Phillips and Butt, 1966, as cited in McCroskey, 1977) and surveys (Wheeless, 1971, as cited in McCroskey, 1977) suggest that CA develops in early childhood. In line with the aforementioned findings, McCroskey and Richmond (1982) recognize heredity and environment as the primary causes of not only personality development, but also CA.

Based on previous research, Prusank (1987) proposes four approaches, i.e. four plausible explanations for the development of CA. Those are genetic predispositions, reinforcement, modelling, and learned helplessness. The genetic predisposition approach suggests that children are born with a predisposition to develop CA. McCroskey and Richmond (1982, as cited in Prusank, 1987) reviewed social biological research carried out with identical and fraternal twins and thus provided results in support of the genetic predisposition approach. While the genetic predisposition approach speaks in favour of inherited characteristics, other approaches (reinforcement, modelling, and learned helplessness) focus on the environmental aspects to which an individual is exposed.

All of the previous studies explored the possible causes of CA with children born and raised in different families. However, there are cases where children are born and raised in the same family, but only one of them develops CA. According to McCroskey (1977), some research findings did not succeed in providing an empirically supported theoretical explanation of why some children have higher/lower levels of communication apprehension than the other children in the same family, which leads to the assumption that the causes of CA are not completely known.
Effects of Communication Apprehension in the Classroom

Although there are many different fields in which it appears, language classes are considered to be most affected by the phenomenon called language anxiety. As Horwitz (2004) points out, probably no other field of study implicates self-concept and self-expression to the degree that language study does. Besides, communication apprehension encompasses all aspects of communicating, that is, all language skills used in a language class.

When it comes to the classroom environment and the effects of communication apprehension on such an environment, McCroskey and Andersen (1976, as cited in Boohar and Seiler, 1982) have found that students with a high CA level prefer mass lecture classes to small classes, in order to avoid communication. Later research (McCroskey and Sheahan, 1977, as cited in Boohar and Seiler, 1982) has shown that those students interact less with peers they are not close to and are more often dissatisfied with the college environment.

McCroskey (1976) claims that highly apprehensive students avoid taking speech courses and public speaking courses. When they enrol in such courses after all, they are very likely to drop them before the first performance, regardless of whether the course is required or not. In cases in which they do not drop the course, students experience very severe problems ranging from being absent on the day of an assigned speech, refusing to speak due to not being ready, fainting and escaping from the classroom (McCroskey, 1978).

Some studies (Young, 1986, Scott, 1986, Phillips 1992, as cited in Toth, 2006) have additionally confirmed the previous research findings (Scott and Wheeless, 1976; McCroskey and Daly, 1976, as cited in Miller and Edmunds, 1992) suggesting that there is a negative relationship between the anxiety level and academic achievement. The results indicate that students with a high anxiety level do not perform on tests as well as their peers with a low anxiety level. Consequently, because of the teachers' low expectations of high communication apprehensive students, those students were less likely to succeed in a formal education setting.

Communication Apprehension in the English Language Classroom Setting

Despite a small number of previous studies identifying the need for more research on communication apprehension at the university level (Mihaljević Djigunović 2004, 2006; Kostić-Bobanović, 2007), this field still requires greater research impetus in the Croatian social-educational context. The present study sets out to fill that void. Moreover, it has been suggested that CA may become a serious problem for pre-service foreign language teachers in their attempt to incorporate as much communicative competence as they can into foreign language teaching at all levels.

Methodology

The aim of the quantitative part of this study is to determine and compare communication apprehension among the undergraduate and graduate university level students of English Language and Literature at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, J. J. Strossmayer University of Osijek, Croatia.

The aim of the qualitative part of the study was to explore the concept of CA from the teachers' point of view. The interview conducted among the university teachers provides some insights on how teachers perceive communication apprehension in the foreign language classroom setting and how they successfully overcome potential classroom management difficulties in practice.

The present study seeks to answer the following questions:

RQ1: Is there a difference in the level of CA between undergraduate and graduate students of English language?

RQ2: Which background factor is the best predictor of CA among the students?

RQ3: Is there a relationship between different aspects of CA and the total level of CA?

RQ4: Is there a relationship between the level of CA and students' behaviour in a foreign language classroom setting?

RQ5: How do university foreign language teachers perceive CA and how do they cope with it in their classes?
Sample
A total of 97 subjects participated in the quantitative part of the research. All of the subjects were students of English Language and Literature at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, J.J. Strossmayer University of Osijek, Croatia. The research was conducted among four groups of students—first and second year undergraduate students and first and second year graduate students. The number of undergraduate and graduate students was unequal. There was a total number of 54 undergraduate and 43 graduate students.

As far as the qualitative part of the research is concerned, it included five participants, all of whom were teachers at the Department of English Language and Literature at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, J.J. Strossmayer University of Osijek, Croatia. The teachers were chosen carefully with regard to courses they teach (one teaching linguistics courses, two teaching literature and applied linguistics courses).

Because the participants were solely from Osijek, Croatia, this cannot be considered a representative sample of Croatian teachers and students.

Instruments and Procedure
Questionnaire
The first instrument used for the purpose of the present study was a questionnaire on foreign language communication apprehension. The first part of the questionnaire consisted of basic background questions (gender, age, year of learning English, year of studying English and grade in English after finishing high school).

The second part was the latest version of the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA-24), which consists of twenty-four statements. The instrument was designed by James C. McCroskey, according to whom ‘it is highly reliable (alpha regularly >.90)’. Rubin et al. (1994) agreed that the questionnaire is one of the most frequently used and the most valid self-report measure for trait-like communication apprehension. Each of the contexts is represented by six items. The changes were made with regard to participants’ age and English language proficiency. Considering the adaptations which were made, internal consistency was measured. Cronbach’s alpha for internal reliability of the questionnaire in this study was .954, which indicates highly focused scales and homogeneity.

The third part of the questionnaire was adopted from a study on communication apprehension Communication Apprehension in the EFL Classroom: a study of Finnish and Finnish-Swedish upper secondary school students and teachers conducted in Finland (2013). The original questionnaire had two versions, one of which was in Finnish and the other one in Swedish, thus it was translated in English for the purposes of this study. According to Lahtinen (2013), the purpose of this part of the questionnaire was to map out the intensity of different aspects in the EFL classroom environment that can contribute to the emergence of CA. It consisted of 31 statements. Apart from Principal component analysis extraction method, Oblimin rotation with Kaiser normalization was used and provided the best-defined factor structure. All items in this factor analysis had primary loadings over .4.

After conducting factor analysis, which crystalized three relevant factors and therefore defined three subscales within the scale, internal consistency of the three subscales was measured. Two subscales showed high internal consistency, and one subscale showed slightly lower internal consistency (see Table 3). The first aspect of communication apprehension is labelled evaluations because the belonging questionnaire items described situations where self-evaluations and peer evaluations were present. The second aspect is labelled teacher due to its strong direct or indirect connection with the teacher, his or her characteristics or class management. Finally, the third aspect is named atmosphere. It is considered to be an umbrella term for questionnaire items covering different foreign language classroom situations which contribute to the atmosphere created in the foreign language classroom environment.

Lower reliability coefficient was interpreted as a result of fewer items in the category, as well as a result of a broader area which is covered by the statements. The third theme area was retained but the results gathered shall be interpreted as not completely reliable.

The five-point Likert scale was used for both the second and the third part of the questionnaire. The participants were asked to indicate the degree to which a statement applied to them using (1) = completely disagree, (2) = disagree, (3) = neither
agree nor disagree, (4) = agree, and (5) = completely agree. In the first part of the questionnaire 12 items had to be reversed prior to statistical analysis.

Table 3. Aspects of communication apprehension (subscales, questionnaire items, and internal consistency coefficients)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspect of communication apprehension</th>
<th>Questionnaire items</th>
<th>Cronbach's alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Evaluations</td>
<td>Q26, Q31, Q32, Q33, Q38, Q41, Q42, Q45, Q47, Q49, Q50, Q52</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Q27, Q29, Q30, Q34, Q36, Q39, Q43, Q44, Q51, Q55</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atmosphere</td>
<td>Q25, Q28, Q37, Q40, Q48, Q54</td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The fourth and the last part of the questionnaire, adopted from the above mentioned Finnish study, reports on participants' feelings about communication in English in the English language classroom setting. Two open-ended questions from the original questionnaire were omitted as redundant as they had been previously covered in the quantitative part of the research. It consisted of two yes or no questions, a scale ranging from 4 to 10 where participants were asked to assess their English language skills, two questions about attitudes towards school and English language with a five-point Likert scale (1 = very negative and 5 = very positive), one question about the strength of participants' feeling of excitement or shyness in English classes as well with a five-point Likert scale (1 = very strong and 5 = very weak), and the last four open-ended questions.

Interview

The second instrument was an interview which was designed for the purpose of the present study. The interview consisted of 24 questions. Each question was followed by one or more sub-questions. Questions were divided into three categories. The first category was related to the phenomenon of CA, the second category examined errors and error correction, and the third category dealt with interviewees' own experiences with CA.

Both questionnaires and interviews took place at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, J. J. Strossmayer University of Osijek. All the participants were familiarized with the aim of the research. The data collected in the form of questionnaires were analysed in IBM SPSS Software Version 23. The interviews conducted with the teachers themselves were recorded and transcribed afterwards.

Results and Discussion

Quantitative results – questionnaire

As previously stated, the collected data were analysed in SPSS. First of all, basic descriptive analysis of the items connected to the participants' feelings about communicating in English language in the English language classroom setting in different situations (questionnaire items 1 – 24) showed that mean values do not vary a lot. They are slightly lower for questionnaire items which express CA and slightly higher for the ones expressing lack of CA. Descriptive analysis of questionnaire items connected to the reasons why participants feel nervous and timid to speak English during English classes (questionnaire items 25 – 55) showed that the highest mean values concern evaluations, teacher, and expectations.

To answer the first research question and to test the hypothesis stating that there is a significant difference in the total level of CA between undergraduate and graduate students of English language, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. Significance level was set at p<0.05. The statistical analysis was performed using SPSS (Version 23). The students were divided in four groups with regard to their year of study: 1st year undergraduates, 2nd year undergraduates, 1st year graduates, 2nd year graduates. The results in Table 4a have shown that there is a statistically significant difference at the p<0.05 between groups [F=2.933; df=3/85; p=0.038].

Table 4a. Difference in the total level of communication apprehension between undergraduate and graduate students (ANOVA)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>4.911</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.637</td>
<td>2.933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>45.767</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>.558</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50.678</td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After establishing a statistically significant difference in the total level of CA between groups, Scheffe's post hoc test was conducted to verify where exactly this difference lies. However, the results of the post hoc test presented in Table 4b do not show where the difference between the groups is.

Table 4b. Scheffe's post hoc test results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(I) Year of Studying</th>
<th>(J) Year of studying</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st year undergraduate</td>
<td>2nd year undergraduate</td>
<td>-.12103</td>
<td>.54070</td>
<td>.997</td>
<td>-1.6644</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1st year graduate</td>
<td>-.04117</td>
<td>.19117</td>
<td>.997</td>
<td>- .5868</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2nd year graduate</td>
<td>.66647</td>
<td>.21047</td>
<td>.072</td>
<td>- .0343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd year undergraduate</td>
<td>1st year undergraduate</td>
<td>.12103</td>
<td>.54070</td>
<td>.997</td>
<td>-1.4224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1st year graduate</td>
<td>.07986</td>
<td>.54984</td>
<td>.999</td>
<td>-1.4896</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2nd year graduate</td>
<td>.68750</td>
<td>.55685</td>
<td>.678</td>
<td>- .9020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st year graduate</td>
<td>1st year undergraduate</td>
<td>.04117</td>
<td>.19117</td>
<td>.997</td>
<td>- .5045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2nd year undergraduate</td>
<td>-.07986</td>
<td>.54984</td>
<td>.999</td>
<td>-1.6493</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2nd year graduate</td>
<td>.60764</td>
<td>.23294</td>
<td>.087</td>
<td>- .0573</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd year graduate</td>
<td>1st year undergraduate</td>
<td>-.56647</td>
<td>.21047</td>
<td>.072</td>
<td>-1.1672</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2nd year undergraduate</td>
<td>-.68750</td>
<td>.55685</td>
<td>.678</td>
<td>-2.2770</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1st year graduate</td>
<td>-.60764</td>
<td>.23294</td>
<td>.087</td>
<td>-1.2726</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As for the third research question, a Pearson-product-moment correlation was used to explore if there is a relationship between the total level of CA and different aspects of CA (evaluations, teacher, and atmosphere). The test shows that the total level of CA is positively correlated with two aspects of CA (evaluations and teacher), both at the 0.01 level.

The correlation analysis in Table 5 reveals that the total level of CA exhibits a weak but statistically significant positive correlation (r=.325, p<.001) with regards to students' perceptions of their teachers. This indicates that the more negative the attitude the students will have towards their EFL teachers, the higher the total level of communication apprehension in class.

There was also a strong significant positive correlation (r=.779, p<.001) between the total level of CA and students' evaluations. This correlation indicates that the students who experience higher levels of CA fear being less competent than their peers and tend to evaluate themselves negatively.

The atmosphere in class exhibits no statistically significant correlation with the total level of CA. Evidently, the participants' perception of the in-class atmosphere (number of students, ability to speak) does not impact their total level of CA.
Table 5. Pearson Correlation between the total level of communication apprehension and different aspects of communication apprehension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluations</th>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Atmosphere</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PRCA-24</td>
<td>.779**</td>
<td>.325**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.079</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

In order to find out which background factors predict the total level of CA, regression analysis was conducted. The total level of communication apprehension measured by PRCA-24 was the dependent variable and various background factors such as gender, age, year of study, and grade in English after finishing high school were independent variables in the analysis. The results show that there is a weak significant negative correlation between grades in English after finishing high school and the total level of CA (see Table 6a). This indicates that students with higher grade in English after finishing high school exhibit lower total level of CA in class.

Table 6a. Results of regression analysis (dependent variable: PRCA-24) with background factors as predictors of total level of communication apprehension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PRCA-24</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.104</td>
<td>.064</td>
<td>.606</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.043</td>
<td>-.114</td>
<td>-.654</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Year of study</td>
<td>-.068</td>
<td>-.110</td>
<td>-.633</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grade in English</td>
<td>-.463</td>
<td>-.319</td>
<td>-3.006**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p<.01; R=.403; R²=.162

However, after including other aspects of CA as independent variables (evaluations, teacher and atmosphere), the results showed that there is only a strong significant positive correlation between evaluations and the total level of CA. The results can be seen in Table 6b.

Table 6b. Results of regression analysis (dependent variable: PRCA-24) with background factors and aspects of communication apprehension as predictors of total level of communication apprehension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PRCA-24</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-.042</td>
<td>-.026</td>
<td>-.372</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.190</td>
<td>-.050</td>
<td>-.439</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Year of study</td>
<td>-.129</td>
<td>-.208</td>
<td>-.1831</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grade in English</td>
<td>-.011</td>
<td>-.008</td>
<td>-.101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Evaluations</td>
<td>.605</td>
<td>.780</td>
<td>10.200**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>.028</td>
<td>.023</td>
<td>.296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Atmosphere</td>
<td>.023</td>
<td>.020</td>
<td>.282</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p<.01; R=.816; R²=.666
In the first step, the results of regression analysis (R=.403; R²=.162; F=3.726; p<.01) show that background factors explain only about 16% of the total level of CA measured by PRCA-24. Only grade in English after finishing high school proved to be a significant predictor of CA (β= -.319; p<.01).

On the other hand, when three different aspects of CA were included in the second step of the regression analysis, the results (R=.816; R²=.666; F=37.245; p<.01) show that all factors together explain about 67% of the total level of CA measured by PRCA-24. With both background factors and aspects of communication apprehension included in the analysis, only evaluations (β= .78; p<.01) proved to be a significant predictor of the total level of CA.

Additional Pearson Correlation test (see Table 7) was conducted to investigate if there is a relationship between the total level of CA and students’ choice of seat in the classroom. The test results show a positive correlation at the 0.01 level. It indicates that the students who have a high level of CA choose a remote seat in a foreign language classroom in order to avoid oral communication in class.

### Table 7. Pearson Correlation between the total level of communication apprehension and students’ choice of seat

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students’ choice of seat</th>
<th>PRCA-24</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.398**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)**

Finally, when students were asked about the causes of the excitement and shyness in English classes, the majority of them (forty-one of ninety-eight students, i.e. 42%) wrote that the main cause for this is the fear of being evaluated by their teacher, as well as being evaluated or even laughed at by their peers. They stated that they are mostly afraid of being negatively evaluated or being embarrassed in cases of making a mistake. That confirms the results emerged from the third part of the questionnaire. Apart from the aforementioned, students also listed some other causes such as teacher and class atmosphere, lack of knowledge or low language skills, lack of preparation and student's personality.

When it comes to students’ suggestions, students (forty out of ninety-eight, i.e. 41%) consider good preparation to be the key for alleviating communication apprehension in classes. Minority thinks that communication apprehension can be alleviated by positive encouragement by the teacher, smaller, less formal, and more relaxed classes.

### Qualitative results – interview

This section focuses on the findings emerged from the interviews conducted with five teachers from the Department of English Language and Literature at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, J.J. Strossmayer University of Osijek, Croatia. They set out to examine how English teachers perceive communication apprehension in the foreign language setting and to investigate how they cope with it.

The interview results show that the interviewees are not quite familiar with the term communication apprehension. The responses range from the misuse of the term to the complete lack of awareness of its actual meaning. The interviewees consider CA to be a very negative phenomenon which has a great influence in the foreign language classroom setting. They particularly notice CA causing problems during students’ oral presentations, regardless of the preparation. However, all of the interviewees consider good preparation to be the key to alleviate CA. The participants thought of CA mostly as a personality trait. When it comes to the causes of CA and different aspects of the phenomenon, they notice that the main source of fear lies in peer evaluations, which speaks in favour of the quantitative results of the study. Surprisingly, interviewees’ expectations of the relationship between year of study and the level of CA overlap with the principal hypothesis of the study. In other words, the participants expected that first year undergraduate students experience higher levels of CA than their graduate colleagues. The participants also revealed some techniques they employ while dealing with CA in classes, such as creating a very positive and easy-going atmosphere, encouraging students to speak, giving students time to prepare, etc. The interviewees also choose error correction strategies with extra caution in order not to cause their students’ level of CA to increase. Some interviewees admitted having personal experiences with CA, as well as noticing the presence of CA even among some of their colleagues.
Discussion

Regarding the first research question, the results of the regression analyses showed that there is no difference in the level of communication apprehension between undergraduate and graduate students of English. Furthermore, year of study as a background factor does not influence the level of communication apprehension at all and therefore it cannot be interpreted as a predictor of apprehensiveness students experience in the foreign language classroom setting. With regard to those findings, our first hypothesis is refuted. Before research was conducted, it was assumed that the oral communication apprehension decreases with experience and that first year undergraduate students experience a higher level of anxiety and apprehensiveness while speaking in class than their graduate colleagues. However, the research did not confirm those assumptions. The reason for these findings could lie in the ratio of undergraduate and graduate students, which was unequal. Although the discrepancy was not that large, it could be assumed that the results would be different if the ratio was equal. On the other hand, the results could be explained in another way. The only instrument for measuring the level of CA for the purpose of this study was PRCA-24, which measures only trait CA. If we observe communication apprehension only as a personality trait, then the background factor such as year of study cannot be considered as a predictor of CA and expected to influence the level of anxiety or fear which high communication apprehensive students experience in a foreign language classroom setting.

When other background factors were taken into consideration, the analysis showed that students’ grade in English language after finishing high school (High School Leaving Exam) is a significant predictor of the level of CA students experience in a foreign language classroom setting. It partially confirms our second hypothesis and speaks in favour of previous findings about the relationship between the level of CA and academic achievement. If we observe students’ grade in English language after finishing high school as a kind of indicator of pre-university achievement, it can be assumed that lower grade in English language predicts higher level of CA.

However, when aspects of communication apprehension were included in the analysis, students’ evaluations turned out to be the only significant predictor of the level of communication apprehension that students experience, which again partially confirmed our third hypothesis. It means that the students who experience higher levels of communication apprehension fear being less competent than their peers (tend to evaluate themselves negatively) as well as being negatively evaluated by their teacher or their peers. The existing research findings support the claim. Horwitz (1986) argues that fear of negative evaluation, also called “apprehension about others”, is a special type of anxiety related to foreign language learning, very similar to test anxiety. However, according to Horwitz, it is much broader in scope because it is not limited to test-taking situations. Furthermore, it can occur in any evaluative situation very common in foreign language classes. Students who experience high level of fear of negative evaluation tend to avoid evaluative situations and often expect that others would evaluate them negatively. The nature of foreign language classes, in which evaluation is inevitable, represents a problem for the students who are faced not only with the continuous assessment by the teachers but also by their fellow students. These findings are further confirmed by the results of the qualitative part of the research. Interviewees consider the presence of other students and peer evaluations to be one of the greatest causes of CA in their classes. Moreover, students list “others” and the fear of being laughed at as the main cause of CA.

The hypothesis that the level of communication apprehension affects students’ behaviour in a foreign language classroom setting, such as choosing a seat, is confirmed by Pearson Correlation test. It can be concluded that students who score high on PRCA-24, i.e. who have a high level of CA choose a remote seat in a foreign language classroom in order to avoid oral communication in class. As opposed to them, students who score low on PRCA-24, i.e. who experience a low level of CA do not tend to choose seats from which they would not be seen or asked to respond in English. The results speak in favour of McCroskey’s (1976) research which indicates that, compared to people lower in CA, high communications apprehensive students choose seats in a small group where they are less likely to be forced to interact. Furthermore, research indicates that high communication apprehensive students are four times as likely to sit outside the interaction area in the classroom as they are to sit in it.

Conclusion

This research which included the total of 97 students and 5 university teachers was carried out primarily in order to investigate if there is a difference in the level of CA between undergraduate and graduate students of English Language and Literature, at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, J. J. Strossmayer University of Osijek, Croatia.
The main purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between the level of CA experienced by undergraduate and graduate students and their year of study. The results of the research show that year of study, as one of the background factors, is not a significant predictor of CA. Moreover, no difference in the levels of CA between undergraduate and graduate students was found, so the principal hypothesis of the study was refuted. However, other background factors such as grade in English after finishing high school proved to influence the level of CA thus confirming the previous research findings that suggest the correlation between CA and academic achievement. The relationship between the level of CA and three different aspects of CA emerged from factor analysis was also investigated. The results showed that the correlation at a significant level exists when it comes to evaluations and teacher. These findings also speak in favour of the previous research findings, especially when it comes to the correlations between the level of CA and evaluations.

There are more than a few limitations of this study. Although we are aware that the limited number and the ratio of the participants as well as the restricted research area do not capture the full complexity of learners' communication apprehension, we believe that a study like the present one offers a valuable snapshot of the EFL learners’ CA in the situational context. The present findings may serve as a springboard for future research which should seek to incorporate both learners’ and teachers’ perspectives and mixed-method approach in providing some more reliable in-depth analyses into such a complex and omnipresent phenomenon.

References


Classroom Observation for the Professional Development of Myanmar University Lecturers in a Singapore Cross-Cultural Context: Perception of Abilities and Learning Based on ‘Nine Events of Instruction’

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Abstract
Continuing professional development is important for improving and reforming teaching. Classroom observation of others’ teaching has been used for the professional development of eight lecturers from three Myanmar universities who visited the Department of Biological Sciences, National University of Singapore over a period of three weeks. To bridge the socio-cultural and educational background differences, Gagné’s ‘Nine events of instruction’ was used as a pedagogical framework to guide and evaluate the classroom observation and learning as it is well-established for instructional design and resonate well with educators. This study aimed to evaluate the participants’ abilities and their learning through classroom observation based on their perceptions of the ‘nine events of instruction’. The study found that most of the participants have positive views of their abilities in relation to the ‘nine events’, especially in practicing the early events of instruction. The classroom observation has benefitted them with respect to the ‘nine events’, particularly ‘Informing the Students of the Objective/Outcome’, ‘Stimulating Recall of the Prior Knowledge’ and ‘Presenting Information/Content/ Stimulus’. Notably, ‘Assessing Performance’ was the most perceived ‘event of instruction’ that the participants wanted to improve on and that the participants perceived will benefit Myanmar lecturers the most. Qualitative feedbacks by the participants revealed lessons learned, their potential applicability and desires to reform and share. The study further demonstrated that the ‘nine events of instruction’ is a useful pedagogical framework for guiding and evaluating perception of abilities and learning in classroom instruction and observation for continuing professional development in a cross-cultural context.

Keywords: Continuing Professional Development, Classroom Observation, Gagné’s Nine Events of Instruction, Cross-Cultural Context.

Introduction
Continuing professional development is critical to reforming teaching and learning in education (Borko, 2004). Educators who experienced effective professional development will increase in knowledge and skills, and in turn may change their attitudes and pedagogical approaches in teaching that will enhance students’ learning (Desimone, 2009). Kennedy (2005) proposed up to nine models of continuing professional development for educators, and by increasing the capacity of professional autonomy of teachers to innovate, these models transit from playing transmission to transformative roles. Observing others’ teaching can develop from a transmission model to a transformative model if ideas transmitted to the observer can further inspire and empower the observer to experiment and perform action research in the classroom. The observed classroom teaching offers an immersive and reflective environment for the observer to learn and develop ideas that could innovate his/her own teaching approach (Putnam & Borko, 2000; Wragg, 2002). It encourages self-reflection and experimentation with instructional design and delivery, and may even reduce the sense of isolation that might be felt by faculty with regard to teaching (Ammons & Lane, 2012). Therefore, classroom observation of peers’ teaching has been used as a tool for continuing professional development and shown to improve teaching and learning in higher education (Ali, 2012; Sullivan, Buckle, Nicky & Atkinson, 2012; Hammersley-Fletcher & Orsmond 2004).

Classroom observation
Classroom observation has served various interests from pedagogical research, curriculum development, course evaluation, and peer-review for appraisal of teaching to professional development of educators (Wragg, 2002). Irrespective of its purpose, classroom observation promotes self-development of the observers into reflective practitioners of teaching and learning (Cosh, 1998). Observation of the classroom practices and interactions with students can provide insights into teaching effectiveness and students learning. It has been noted that the observers/reviewers had learnt and benefited much from the experience of classroom observation (Wragg, 2002; Lomas & Nichollis, 2005). As a result, classroom observation has been used for developing professional skills of trainees, novice and even experienced teachers (Putnam & Borko, 2000).

Observing others’ teaching can offer a stronger cognitive stimulation in terms of immersion, resonance, authenticity and motivation (Seidel, Stürmer, Blomberg, Kobarg, & Schwindt, 2011). Classroom observation allows one to immerse in an authentic environment to exercise professional vision that helps to identify teaching practices and interpret classroom activities that resonate with the observer (Berliner 1986, Everton & Green, 1986). It allows the observer to make multiple connections of what have been observed with one’s own classroom practices through the activation of prior knowledge and experiences. This in turn increases intrinsic motivation and interest to learn, change and apply relevant classroom instructional events that are perceived to deliver effective outcomes in the observer’s teaching context. As a result of the newly derived insights and ideas from the classroom observation, the observer will be motivated to start experimenting the ideas and performing action research to innovate teaching practices in his/her own classroom.

Continuing Professional Development

The Department of Biological Sciences (DBS) in the National University of Singapore (NUS), through its outreach program ‘ASEAN Universities Network in Biology’, is working together with the Department of Zoology from three universities in Myanmar to provide continuing professional development for their faculties. The continuing professional development involved multiple classroom observations carried out by the visiting Myanmar lecturers on selected life science courses/modules of their choices over a period of 3 weeks in DBS, NUS. As such continuing professional development can be costly and time-consuming, it is important to review its effectiveness and where possible value enhanced the program. However, given the differences between Myanmar and Singapore socio-cultural and educational contexts, there was a need to find common pedagogical themes that are relevant or universally experienced in order to guide the classroom observation and evaluate the learning. To do so, Gagné’s ‘Nine events of instruction’ was used as a pedagogical framework to guide and evaluate the classroom observation and learning because it resonates well with educators as it is well established for instructional design and has high relevance for classroom teaching (Reiser, 2001, Kantar 2013).

Nine Events of Instruction

Gagné viewed learning as progressive, generalizable and dependent on instructional effectiveness (Gredler, 2005; Kantar, 2013). He proposed that there are ‘nine events of instruction’ that are linked to specific cognitive processes and outcomes that are essential for information processing and learning, as summarized in Table 1 (Gagné, 1985). From the perspective of classroom practice, these ‘events’ guide educators to start their lessons, engage students, link prior knowledge to new information, organize information to stimulate learning, guide learning, trigger performance to demonstrate learning, provide feedback, assess performance, and eventually facilitate internalization and transference of knowledge. These ‘events’, when carried out progressively to activate cognitive processes and to achieve learning outcomes, have been found to resonate well with the general aims of teaching which range from processing information to deep learning, and from development of psychomotor and affective skills to acquisition and application of knowledge and skills in new contexts (Gagné, Briggs, & Wagner 1992; Walker 2009; Kantar 2013). As examples of its relevance in more recent years, the ‘nine events of instruction’ has been employed as instructional design for teaching medical sciences (Wong, 2018; Davies, Pon & Garavalia, 2018; Miner, Mallow, Theeke, & Barnes, 2015), Arabic language (Mei, Ramli & Alhirtani, 2015), as well as design of learning management systems (Gokdemir, Akdemir, & Vural, 2015) and online course (Onodipe, Ayadi, & Marquez, 2016) in higher education context. These examples further highlight the broad applicability of the ‘nine events of instruction’ in many of the teaching and learning contexts. The use of the ‘nine events of instruction’ as a pedagogical framework for guiding and evaluating learning for classroom observation in a cross-cultural context in this study would be a novel approach that will add to its list of applications.

Table 1. Nine events of instruction and the corresponding cognitive processes/outcomes with action examples.
Nine Events of Instruction | Cognitive processes/outcomes (action example)
---|---
Gaining Attention of Students | Activate reception which will lead to readiness to learn (use abrupt stimulus change)
Informing the Students of the Objective/Outcomes | Create expectancy which will lead to anticipation of the lesson and its purpose (tell learners what they are able to do after learning)
Stimulating Recall of the Prior Knowledge | Retrieve knowledge and move them into working or short-term memory (ask for recall of previous lesson taught)
Presenting Information/Content/Stimulus | Create selective perception that will stimulate learning (display content with distinctive features)
Providing Learning Guidance | Cause semantic encoding that will move knowledge into long-term memory (suggest a meaningful organization)
Eliciting Performance | Induce response to demonstrate learning (ask learner to respond or perform)
Providing Feedback | Reinforce learning by affirming the correctness of performance (give informative feedback on performance)
Assessing Performance | Retrieve knowledge and further reinforce learning (require additional performance and feedback)
Enhance Retention & Transfer | Long-term storing and generalize knowledge (provide varied practice and spaced reviews).

Research Aims

In using the ‘nine events of instruction’ as a pedagogical framework for the classroom observation, this study first aimed to evaluate the perception of the Myanmar lecturers on their classroom instruction abilities in relation to the ‘nine events of instruction’ and to inquire which of the nine events they would like to improve on. The purpose was to aid reflection on their abilities which in turn helped to align their motivation and focus in learning the ‘nine events’ prior to the classroom observation. Next, the study also aimed to evaluate the degree of learning or benefits of the classroom observation in relation to the ‘nine events’ based on the self-perception and qualitative feedbacks of the participants. This will provide some insights into whether the classroom observation was useful for continuing professional development, at least from the participants’ perspectives, and to consider possible improvements. Finally, there is also an interest to test the usefulness of ‘nine events of instruction’ as a novel approach for guiding and evaluating learning from classroom observation in a cross-cultural context.

Method

Participants and the Continuing Professional Development Program

Eight female faculties from three Myanmar Universities participated in the continuing professional development program hosted by DBS, NUS. Four of the participants were from Mandalay University, two other participants were from University of West Yangon and the remaining two participants were from University of Yangon. Seven of the participants were between 41 to 50 years old while one participant was between 25 to 40 years old. Five of them were teaching both undergraduate and graduate students, while two other participants were teaching only graduate students and one participant was teaching only undergraduate students.

The continuing professional development program required the participants to carry out multiple classroom observations of lectures and laboratory sessions of their choices over a period of three weeks in late January to mid February of 2018. Upon their arrivals, participants selected the modules of their interests for classroom observation and the consent for them to observe the classes was obtained from the respective module coordinator prior to the classroom observation. Given that a lecture duration is about 1.5 hours and a laboratory session is between 4 to 6 hours, a participant typically observed either two to three lectures per day or one lecture and one laboratory session per day. Over the period of three weeks, each participant would have observed over 20 lectures and several laboratory sessions. The lectures and laboratory sessions were conducted in English language. All the participants were able to speak, read and write in basic communication English language.

Design and procedure for data collection and processing
Prior to the commencement of the class observation, a 1.5-hour briefing session was conducted to explain the 'nine events of instruction' to the participants so that they understood the 'nine events' in the context of classroom practice and observation. The briefing session included a PowerPoint® presentation explaining the 'nine events', a video-recorded micro-teaching demonstration of the 'nine events' and take-home printed materials describing the examples of the 'nine events'. This was followed by a question-and-answer session and thereafter participants were requested to complete a survey. In the survey, they were asked to rate their classroom instruction abilities in relation to the 'nine events of instruction' and to indicate which of the nine events they would like to improve on. For the rating, participants were required to check on boxes representing a Likert scale, where ‘1’ represented ‘Very poor or Not at all’ and ‘7’ represented ‘Very well’, for each of the ‘nine events’. The next question required participants to indicate the numbered event that correspond to each of the ‘nine events’ that a participant wanted to improve on, and they were allowed to indicate more than one event.

Towards the end of the program, a 1.5-hour discussion meeting with the participants were conducted to obtain their verbal and written feedback. Participants were asked to indicate how much they have learned or benefitted from the classroom observation in relation to the ‘nine events’. A general example of having derived understanding and ideas that a participant may want to try in her class is considered as ‘having learned or benefitted’ from the classroom observation, although this does not limit the inclusion of other learning experiences. Participants were required to check on boxes representing a Likert scale, where ‘1’ represented ‘Very little or Not at all’ and ‘7’ represented ‘Very much’, for each of the ‘nine events’. In response to the next question, participants were asked to indicate the ‘nine events’ that they thought would benefit Myanmar lecturers the most. Finally, participants were requested to provide written feedbacks with regard to what they have learned and how they can apply them to improve their classroom teaching.

The Likert scale rating provided quantitative scores that were transferred into a Microsoft® excel file where descriptive statistics such as sum total count, mean and standard deviation were computed and tabulated as summary data. Excerpts from the qualitative feedback were presented with minor editing for clarity purpose.

Results

Perception of ability in practicing the ‘nine events of instruction’ before classroom observations

To ensure that the participants have the same basic understanding of the ‘nine events of instruction’ and to evaluate the perceptions of their abilities in practicing the ‘nine events’ before the beginning of their class observation, a 1.5-hour briefing session to explain the ‘nine events’ were provided to the participants followed by a brief question-and-answer session and a survey (refer to Method for details). It was found that none of the participants had heard of the ‘nine events of instruction’ prior to the briefing session. Nevertheless, the participants rated that they practice all of the ‘nine events of instruction’ in their classrooms with different degrees of ability, and mostly between ‘average’ to ‘very well’ (mean rating range from 4.13 to 6.25; Table 2). None of the participants selected ‘very poor/not at all’ (Likert scale=1) with respect to their abilities in practicing the ‘nine events of instruction’. The findings further suggest that the ‘nine events of instruction’ resonated well with the participants despite of the social-cultural differences and that none of them have heard of it prior to the briefing session.

Of the nine events, ‘Stimulating Recall of the Prior Knowledge’ recorded the highest mean rating (6.25) where six (75%) of the participants rated themselves as ‘very well’ (Likert scale = 7) while one participant rated ‘above average’ (Likert scale = 5) and another rated ‘average’ (Likert scale = 4) in practicing it in their teaching (Table 2). This suggests that ‘Stimulating Recall of the Prior Knowledge’ was a common practice in their classrooms which the participants were confident of. Moreover, the practice of ‘Informing the Students of the Objective/Outcome’ (Mean rating = 5.88) and ‘Presenting Information/Content/Stimulus’ (Mean rating = 5.88) were also perceived positively.

Of the nine events that were rated at the ‘lower’ end, ‘Assessing Performance’ received the lowest mean rating (4.13) and has the largest standard deviation (± 2.1) which suggest that there exist a greater degree of differences in the participants’ abilities in practicing it (Table 2). Upon closer examination of the data, three of the participants rated themselves as ‘poor’ (Likert scale = 2) and one as ‘below average’ (Likert scale = 3), which brings to a total of 50% of the participants having perceived their abilities negatively in terms of ‘Assessing Performance’ of students. This was followed by ‘Providing Feedback’ (Mean rating = 4.75), ‘Enhancing Retention and Transfer’ (Mean rating = 5.00) and ‘Eliciting Performance’ (Mean rating = 5.14).
When the participants were asked which of the ‘nine events of instruction’ that they would want to improve on, ‘Assessing Performance’ and ‘Providing Feedback’ received the highest count (4 each), followed by ‘Enhancing Retention and Transfer’ and ‘Eliciting Performance’ which both received 3 counts each. In contrast, ‘Stimulating Recall of the Prior Knowledge’, ‘Informing the Students of the Objective/Outcome’ and ‘Gaining Attention of Students’ received zero count. These responses were not surprising as they were consistent with the ratings of their ability in practicing these ‘events’ based on their perceptions. The consistency between their ratings and responses demonstrated that the participants understood these ‘nine events of instruction’ well before the commencement of the classroom observation.

Table 2. Perception of ability in practicing ‘nine events of instruction’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nine Events of Instruction</th>
<th>Rate how well you are able to practice the following ‘nine events’ in your teaching. Mean Rating (± S.D.)*</th>
<th>Which of the ‘nine events’ do you want to improve? Frequency count (Percentage)#</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gaining Attention of Students</td>
<td>5.75 (0.89)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informing the Students of the Objective/Outcome</td>
<td>5.88 (1.13)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stimulating Recall of the Prior Knowledge</td>
<td>6.25 (1.49)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presenting Information/Content/Stimulus</td>
<td>5.88 (0.99)</td>
<td>1 (12.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing Learning Guidance</td>
<td>5.57 (0.98)</td>
<td>3 (37.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eliciting Performance</td>
<td>5.14 (1.21)</td>
<td>2 (25%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing Feedback</td>
<td>4.75 (1.28)</td>
<td>4 (50%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessing Performance</td>
<td>4.13 (2.10)</td>
<td>4 (50%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhance Retention &amp; Transfer</td>
<td>5.00 (1.51)</td>
<td>3 (37.5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Rating is based on Likert scale: 1 = ‘Very poor or Not at all’ and 7 = ‘Very well’. S.D. = Standard Deviation.

# Percentage = [Number of participants indicated the ‘event’ that they want to improve on / Total number of Participants (n = 8)] x 100 Participants were allowed to choose more than one ‘event’.

Taken together, the findings suggest that most of the participants were confident in practicing ‘event 1’ to ‘event 5’ of instruction, but were relatively less confident when it comes to the last four events of instruction, especially ‘Assessing Performance’ and ‘Providing Feedback’. This further suggests that the participants were confident in engaging students at the opening of their lessons, connecting with previous lessons and delivering the current content, but were less able in activating students to demonstrate learning outcomes, in providing informative and timely feedback to students, in assessing learning outcomes, and in creating learning opportunities for internalization and application of knowledge in new context. These later instructional events and their outcomes are much more challenging to execute and achieve but are very important in impacting learning (Gagné, Briggs, & Wager 1992). Perhaps of greater importance is that the participants, in recognizing their own needs or weaknesses, had expressed their desires to improve on these later events of instruction.

Perception of learning the ‘nine events of instruction’ after classroom observations

To find out how much the participants perceived that they have learned or benefitted from their classroom observations with regard to the ‘nine events of instruction’, a 1.5-hour discussion meeting and a written feedback survey were conducted near the end of the program (refer to Method for details). There were 71 out of the 72 expected quantitative rating responses (from nine survey items and eight participants), hence indicating a strong participation in the survey and feedback exercise. Two-third of the ratings were generally positive as most participants indicated that they have learned or benefitted
‘quite much’ to ‘very much’ (Likert scale = 5 to 7) from the classroom observation while a third of the ratings indicated that they have learned ‘moderately’ (Likert scale = 4), but none of them indicated ‘little’ (Likert scale = 2) or ‘very little or not at all’ (Likert scale = 1).

Of the nine events shown in Table 3, ‘Informing the Students of the Objective/Outcome’ received the highest mean rating (5.88) with six participants indicated that they have learned ‘much’ (Likert scale=6) and one indicated ‘very much’ (Likert scale = 7). This was followed by ‘Stimulating Recall of the Prior Knowledge’ (Mean rating = 5.50) and ‘Presenting Information/Content/Stimulus’ (Mean rating = 5.50). On the other hand, ‘Providing Learning Guidance’ (Mean rating = 4.63) and ‘Eliciting Performance’ (Mean rating = 4.75) have the lowest mean ratings, where each have four (50%) of the participants indicated that they have learned or benefitted ‘moderately’ (Likert scale = 4) from the classroom observation. Of importance are ‘Assessing Performance’ and ‘Providing Feedback’ because half of the participants had earlier expressed that they wanted to improve on these ‘two events’ prior to the commencement of classroom observation. At the end of the program, these two ‘events’ have mean ratings about 5 suggesting that a larger number of participants have learned ‘quite much’. A closer examination of the data for the two ‘events’ revealed that five (62.5%) of the participants have indicated that they have learned ‘quite much’ to ‘very much’.

Notably, ‘Enhancing Retention and Transfer’ has the largest standard deviation (+ 1.46) which three (37.5%) participants indicated that they have learned ‘much’ or ‘very much’ while four (50%) other participants indicated that they have learned ‘moderately’ and one without response. Such diverging responses are likely due to the different modules that the participants observed and timing of their observations. Those who indicated ‘much’ or ‘very much’ may have selected modules that demonstrated learning activities and tasks that contributed more to ‘Enhancing Retention and Transfer’ while those that indicated ‘moderately’ may have selected modules that have demonstrated less of the ‘event’ during the observation period. Moreover, not all events are practiced or are easily demonstrable or observable within classroom.

When the participants were asked which of the ‘nine events of instruction’, if taught, would benefit Myanmar lecturers the most, ‘Assessing Performance’ again received the most count (6), followed by ‘Enhancing Retention and Transfer’ (5 counts) while ‘Eliciting Performance’ and ‘Providing Feedback’ received 4 counts each (Table 3). Notably, ‘Gaining Attention of Students’ did not receive any count. Overall, this may reflect a greater awareness among the participants on the importance of the later events of instruction in classroom practices as they do share similar trend to the earlier question on ‘Which of the ‘nine events’ do you want to improve?’ that was asked before the classroom observation commenced. As such, perhaps some of these later but important instructional events can be taught directly to the participants in a workshop bolted onto the program. In addition, modules that feature these later instructional events more prominently can be recommended earlier to the participants for classroom observation.

Table 3. Perception of learning the ‘nine events of instruction’ after classroom observations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nine Events of Instruction</th>
<th>Rate how much you have learned or benefitted from the classroom observations regarding the practice of the ‘nine events’ for your teaching (e.g. providing understanding and ideas that you may want to try in your class). Mean Rating (+ S.D.) *</th>
<th>If the ‘nine events’ were taught, which do you think would benefit Myanmar lecturers the most? Frequency count (Percentage)*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gaining Attention of Students</td>
<td>5.25 (0.71)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informing the Students of the Objective/Outcome</td>
<td>5.88 (0.83)</td>
<td>2 (25%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stimulating Recall of the Prior Knowledge</td>
<td>5.50 (1.07)</td>
<td>1 (12.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presenting Information/Content/Stimulus</td>
<td>5.50 (1.20)</td>
<td>2 (25%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing Learning Guidance</td>
<td>4.63 (0.74)</td>
<td>2 (25%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eliciting Performance</td>
<td>4.75 (0.89)</td>
<td>4 (50%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing Feedback</td>
<td>5.00 (1.31)</td>
<td>4 (50%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The written feedback from participants offered some qualitative insights into their learning from the classroom observation (Table 4). In general, the participants were positive in their response in acknowledging that they have learned from the classroom observation with respect to the ‘nine events’. Of greater importance is that many of the participants expressed the possibility and their desire of applying what they have learned back into their classrooms. The program has also elicited the desire to change or reform one approach to teaching (response number 1) or the need to do so (response number 6). Such change in values and beliefs of the affective and conative domains are important indicators of successful continuing professional development program (Desimone, 2009; Putnam & Borko, 2000). It is also heartening that one response (number 8) has expressed the desire to share with her students and colleagues back in her university. Overall, the positive feedback corroborated with the overall positive ratings of the participants’ perception of learning from the classroom observations. This in turn agrees with previous studies that have shown that class observation was a useful tool for continuing professional development in higher education (Ali, 2012; Sullivan, Buckle, Nicky & Atkinson, 2012; Hammersley-Fletcher & Orsmond 2004).

Table 4. Excerpts of written feedback regarding learning related to nine events of instruction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Excerpts of written feedback from the eight participants *</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I [have] gain[ed] so many benefits such as new techniques, strategies, ideas and resources. I can now design learning activities that will meet my instructional outcomes. I think the most important lesson that I [have] learned was the importance of feedback from nine events of instruction…this teaching attachment has made me [to] reflect on and reconsider my own planning processes [for teaching]. I have learned [that] using electronic equipment can help classroom teaching [to be] more effective and convenient to gain students’ attention and provide immediate assessments. I think I can apply them back in my classroom teaching…I will also inform learning objectives, outcomes and summary [of] every lecture. I do use [events] 6, 7, 8, [and] 9 teaching my students…I can apply [the] teaching method and practical assessment that I learned. Nine events of instruction also help in my classroom teaching, especially [events] 7, 8 [and] 9…This has help[ed] me to improve my teaching method. I think I can apply them back in our classroom teaching because [they will] improve our learning and help make sense of new information. I like the idea [of] providing immediate feedback of student’s performance, to assess and facilitate learning. I think we need to change our teaching style [and] system [in order] to apply [the] nine events of teaching effectively in our country. I have learned a lot of teaching methods in this classroom observation. I can apply them back in my classroom especially ‘Stimulating recall of the prior knowledge’ and ‘Eliciting performance’. I learned new teaching methods from nine events of instruction. I would like to share our experience [with] our students as well as colleagues at our university.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Minor editing are made where needed [in parentheses] for clarity purpose.

Discussion

The classroom observation employed for continuing professional development in this study can be likened to a short-term ‘community of practice model’ proposed by Kennedy (2005). The participants who are visiting lecturers from three Myanmar universities were themselves a community of educators learning from another (NUS) community of educators in the same practice (i.e. teaching biology in higher education). Although there exist socio-cultural differences between the two communities, the ‘nine events of instruction’ appeared to be a useful pedagogical framework that bridged the differences and thereby facilitated learning. The added value of learning in communities is the exposure to many individual practices and the sharing of knowledge that could help generate new ideas that encourage further experimentation and application in local contexts.

There are five critical components that an effective professional development program for educators should possess, i.e. content focus, active learning, coherence, duration and collective participation (Desimone, 2009; Peneul, Fishman, Yamaguchi & Gallagher, 2007). Content focus represents the activities that focus on the teaching and learning of a subject matter (Desimone, 2009), and in our program, the content focus is the classroom observation of the teaching and learning.
of biology that were of interest to the participants. ‘Nine events of instruction’ provided pedagogical guidance on what to observe for effective instructional design and it facilitated active learning during classroom observation so that participants do not passively listen to a lecture only, but actively ‘look for’ and ‘note down’ the classroom practices and reflect on their pedagogical principles based on the ‘nine events’. In this aspect, the ‘nine events of instruction’ which was shown to resonate well with the participants had also helped to provide coherence between participants’ pedagogic knowledge and beliefs with what they were observing and learning during classroom observation. This coherent alignment of the participants’ pedagogic knowledge and beliefs with what they were learning is critical for transference and application of knowledge which otherwise may not be thought of as important or applicable in their classrooms (Peneul, Fishman, Yamaguchi & Gallagher, 2007). As for duration, the three week program provided sufficient time for exposure to various content knowledge and classroom practices along with reflections as longer duration is needed to engage pegagogical change and arouse investigative curiosity in science classroom teaching (Supovitz & Turner, 2000). The collective participation from the eight participants provided important interaction and discourse which is important to foster learning within their own community throughout the program (Bannilower & Shimkus, 2004). To further enhance active learning and collective participation, demonstration of micro-teaching session and feedback discussion can be introduced in future program.

While classroom observation provides a good model for continuing professional development of educators, it can be expensive and time consuming, as also noted by another study (Sullivan, Buckle, Nicky & Atkinson, 2012), which explains the small sample size of the present study. Although the cost was shared by the involved parties (DBS and the participants), the number of participants that DBS can afford to host is limited by the cost. Moreover, a 3-week continuing professional development program involves substantial amount of time away from any ongoing professional commitments of participants in their home universities, hence, requires home institutions to adjust and/or relieve participants’ commitments. As such, it is unlikely that the number of participants in this continuing professional development program will increase, and indeed it is not the intention of the program to grow the number of participants, but rather to steadily provide opportunities for different batches of participants to continue their professional development in this program annually over a longer term.

Another limitation of this study is that it is based on self-perception of participants’ ability and learning which is subjective. It lacks the instruments to measure the ability and the learning of the participants in a more objective manner. A better design would be to include some forms of evaluation exercises, e.g. either a short assessment on classroom practices or micro-teaching demonstration from each participants which will be evaluated based on the ‘nine events of instruction’ at the beginning and end of the program. A better evaluation of its impact could be done through a longer term follow up of the participants’ teaching and their students’ learning by their home universities. There are frameworks for evaluating continuing professional development in teaching where increased in knowledge and skills of participants can be assessed, while change in their attitudes and beliefs can be demonstrated and verified by change in instruction and improvement of their students’ learning (Desimone, 2009; Borko 2004). As an example, Miner, Mallow, Theeke, & Barnes (2015) in believing the effectiveness of the the ‘nine events’, they had incorporated it into a nursing curriculum hence changing the way they taught the course, and thereafter they reported the improvement in the grades of students in their final assessment. However, the evaluation of longer term impact would require increased commitments from the parties that are involved and may raise the question of cost-effectiveness. Even so, such evaluation study can be action research conducted by the participants themselves, and in turn, this would help them to develop scholarship of teaching and learning in their professional development. This is exemplary of how a transmission model such as classroom observation can develop into a transformative model of action research for continuing professional development as proposed by Kennedy (2005).

Given that such continuing professional development is expensive and time-consuming, it should therefore be reviewed over time and where possible to enhance its effectiveness. This study proposes the following recommendations for the future improvement of the program:

Provide participants with the module/course description that includes information on the rationale, learning outcomes, teaching mode, assessment, etc. This will help participants to make better informed choices in selecting the modules to observe.

Recommend certain modules that feature the later ‘events of instruction’ more prominently and those that are taught by teaching award winners in order to expose participants to the later ‘events of instruction’ and the diverse, high quality classroom teaching.
Organize a teaching workshop at the beginning and/or at the end of the program to provide some basic training in classroom observation (as use in conjunction with the ‘nine events of instruction’) and other aspects of teaching and learning, including technology-empowered pedagogy and follow up action research. This can also include an assessment of participants’ knowledge and abilities through micro-teaching demonstration.

Conclusion

The study demonstrates that Gagné’s nine events of instruction is a useful pedagogical framework for guiding and evaluating perception of ability and learning in classroom instruction and observation for continuing professional development. It is particularly useful in a cross cultural context as the ‘nine events’ are common practices aimed at learning outcomes that are desirable and relatable to educators in classroom teaching. The study found that the visiting Myanmar lecturers have positive views of their abilities, especially in practicing the early ‘events of instruction’. Based on the perception of the Myanmar lecturers, the classroom observation has benefited them with respect to the ‘nine events of instruction’. They have expressed their desire to change some of their classroom practices by applying and sharing the lessons learnt when they return to their home universities. While the study indicates some measures of effectiveness of the present program, there are rooms for improvements to further enhance the continuing professional development program.

Reference


How much Artistic Freedom is permitted when it comes to Language? - Analysis of a Crime Novel

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Abstract
In this article a closer look will be taken at the issue of inaccurately using a foreign language, i.e. German in this particular case, in a crime novel or thriller. Of course, in fiction the author has complete artistic freedom to invent and present things as he/she intends and it doesn’t necessarily have to be realistic or legitimate. But what happens when it comes to an existing language being quoted in fiction?

For this purpose David Thomas’ thriller “Blood Relative – How well do you know the one you love?” is analysed regarding parts in which German quotes are used. As the plot is located partly in England and partly in former East Germany (GDR) and the protagonist’s wife is of German origin, direct speech, titles and names are used in German. Subsequently, they are translated into English by the author in order to be understood by the English reader. However, there are many grammar, spelling and semantic mistakes in these German expressions and common small talk quotes. This begs the question, is it justified to disregard linguistic correctness with regards to artistic freedom given the fact that we are dealing with a fictional thriller, or is it nevertheless necessary to be precise concerning foreign language usage? How far may one “test” their artistic freedom in this particular case? In order to answer these questions a detailed analysis of the thriller is performed, concerning artistic freedom and modern literature/light fiction as well as the German language used in quotes and direct speech.

Keywords: artistic freedom, thriller, language quotes, linguistic correctness, fact and fiction

1. Introduction - Artistic freedom and Freedom of Expression or Speech

Artistic freedom is defined as “Vorrecht des Künstlers (insbesondere des Schriftstellers), vom üblichen Sprachgebrauch oder auch von der historischen, psychologischen oder dinglichen Wirklichkeit abzuweichen, wenn Geschlossenheit und künstlerische Wirkung seines Werkes dies erfordern.” (wissen.de). The quote says that an artist (especially an author) may deviate from usual language usage, or historical, psychological or material reality, if coherence and artistic effect of his work requires it. Generally, artistic freedom belongs to Freedom of Speech, which is a right, inter alia, guaranteed by the First Amendment to the U.S. Constitution, to express beliefs and ideas without unwarranted government restriction (cf. Legal dictionary).

However, this doesn’t solely apply to the USA but, in fact, to all other democratic countries. Among others, Article 19 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights states: “Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; this right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart from information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers”.

Freedom of expression or speech is even considered the most important freedom of all. Without it, one could not spread new ideas or express themselves fully. Still, there are limitations to freedom of expression, as stated in the European Convention on Human Right, Article 10:

“1. Everyone has the right to freedom of expression. This right shall include freedom to hold opinions and to receive and impart information and ideas without interference by public authority and regardless of frontiers. This Article shall not prevent States from requiring the licensing of broadcasting, television or cinema enterprises.
2. The exercise of these freedoms, since it carries with it duties and responsibilities, may be subject to such formalities, conditions, restrictions or penalties as are prescribed by law and are necessary in a democratic society, in the interests of national security, territorial integrity or public safety, for the prevention of disorder or crime, for the protection of health or morals, for the protection of the reputation or rights of others, for preventing the disclosure of information received in confidence, or for maintaining the authority and impartiality of the judiciary."

Yet, it is very difficult to limit freedom of speech in a democratic country as it, when rashly executed, may undermine the entire democratic idea and structure. As a matter of fact, authors especially have the most artistic freedom. As they write fiction, they are allowed a certain freedom per se to invent things, characters, places and even languages, e.g. Klingon language in the Star Wars films. Still, is there a limit to artistic freedom? Where are boundaries to be set? Could we not argue that if it is fiction, it is not real and anything goes?

Authors surely DO have the freedom to invent their own characters, plots, languages etc., but what happens when it comes to a bona fide, existing language being incorrectly used in a fictional novel? Is this allowed or should the author be concerned about using the language appropriately?

In order to probe this subject further, the novel “Blood Relative” by David Thomas is been examined closer. Considering that this is not a famous book or bestseller and belongs to the category of light fiction, a brief explanation of why this thriller has been chosen for analysis should be given at this point: Let me put it this way: Never give a linguist a book to read just for fun, as they always find something to examine and analyse. You might also simply call it an occupational hazard. As a matter of fact, this book, bought at a local bookshop, was intended to serve as a diversion while waiting for a flight at the Frankfurt airport. However, upon reading the thriller and discussing it with my colleague from literary studies, who, just like me, also works in the field of translational studies, we came up with a joint idea for a new research article and which we bring forth to you.

2. Artistic freedom in modern literature and light fiction

“Certainly, light fiction exists and encompasses mysteries or second-class romance novels, books that are read on the beach, whose only aim is to entertain. These books are not concerned with style or creativity - instead they are successful because they are repetitive and follow a template that readers enjoy.” (The Guardian)

For the purpose of making books more enjoyable to read, the author is allowed to use his/her imagination and to create fictional plots, settings and events, all the while disregarding facts and/or reality. The specific difference between (classical) literature and light fiction is its function in society, i.e. in its sociological dimension and the development of literature, light fiction is closely connected to the development of bourgeois society. (cf. Geiger et al. 1977: 23)

To start off, nowadays modern literature as opposed to (classical) literature fails to present us with a hero. Instead of an individual who stands up to everything and everyone, the *"hero"* in modern novels is an average person complete with their share of weaknesses and shortcomings. Modern literature narration is not chronologically organised and the plot isn’t causally linked as it is/was in the traditional novel. In modern novels, incoherence and randomness prevail. Events are narrated from the characters’ point of view and their own perception of it. There is also no longer an omniscient narrator. Narration has become more complex. For instance, there are flashbacks, recollections and associations involved and past events are often incorporated into the plot. (cf. Kurz 1979: 17)

Thomas’ thriller, of course, belongs to modern literature or, more precisely, to the genre of crime fiction which developed from detective novels emerging in England in the 19th century and becoming very popular owing to characters such as Doyle’s Sherlock Holmes or Christie’s Hercule Poirot in the 20th century. (cf. Szendi 2006: 92f.)

Crime fiction, similar to other fiction and (classical) literature, definitely encompasses literary formulas in order to distinguish it from other genres, for instance romantic novels. Although crime novels have fixed plots, characters and settings that are recognizable to readers, the author is able to enjoy artistic freedom to the fullest as he narrates from the characters’ perspective, characters who he himself has created with all their individual traits, experiences and memories. Furthermore, in modern literature it is also important to adapt narration to the recipient, especially when it comes to light fiction. Consequently, the author has to consider who he is writing for, what they expect and what they would be inclined to read. In the end, light fiction primarily serves the purpose to entertain the audience and not to present hard facts or scientifically...
proven evidence of what the author is writing about. I am confident that David Thomas had all this in mind when writing *Blood Relative*.

3. Short introduction of David Thomas aka Tom Cain

David Thomas is a journalist and writer, who already has an ongoing thriller franchise under the alias Tom Cain, published in the United Kingdom. "Blood Relative" is the first book under his real name David Thomas. (cf. Thomas 2011: 1). He was born on January 17, 1959 in Moscow, Russia and was educated at Cambridge. He lived in Moscow, London (being his hometown), Washington D.C. and Havana. Among others, he worked for the Daily Mail and The Mail on Sunday. He is an award-winning journalist with twenty-five years of experience working at Fleet Street newspapers, as well as for major magazines in Britain and the United States. (cf. goodreads)

When asked in an interview why he decided to write thrillers, Tom Cain answered: “As for thrillers, the truth is I love them, read them constantly and am far more interested in and admire professionally the best thriller-writers than 99.9 per cent of the authors who create supposedly highbrow, literary fiction. Anyone can waffle on pretentiously. But all the things that the literary elite (elite in their own minds only, I might add) profess to disdain -- plot, action, structure and so forth -- are actually the elements that are toughest to get right. So the writer in me admired the craft that goes into a thriller and wanted to see if I could do it. Turned out to be by far the hardest thing I’d ever done in my working life -- but worth it in the end.” (Moore 2008)

This interview was about his novel *The Accident Man* which fictionalized Lady Diana’s death in the Alma tunnel in Paris. Thus, this thriller, as well as the thriller *Blood Relative*, was created around an actual date in history. Hence, it seems to be Cain’s specialty to take a real event and to build a story around it. He claims that for a journalist it is not difficult to create a book around a single, real date in history, as “it was incredibly reassuring to have a kernel of fact with which to work. It made me feel a lot more secure as I was starting out. I was heading into really unfamiliar territory. But at least there was something within my professional experience that I could hang onto as I took my baby-steps. And the other massive benefit -- which I’m really only understanding now I’m working on a sequel -- is that the universal awareness of the significance of that Paris car-crash had an amazing short-cut effect for the reader. I didn’t have to explain, or play up, or invent the jeopardy that Carver finds himself in, immediately after the crash. Everybody gets it…” (Moore 2008)

Interestingly, he really uses his journalist background to closely investigate all locations and settings in order to portray them realistically in his thrillers, even though they are fictional:

“London is my hometown, so I didn’t need to research that. But you’re right, it was handy having Paris and Geneva relatively close at hand, and many of the locations I use in both cities are directly based on reality. For example, there’s a big fight-sequence in Les Egouts -- the sewer-museum of Paris. Well, you can go to that museum and walk through the whole route of the fight, because that’s what I did, taking hundreds of pictures to make sure that every single detail was accurate. Again, it really reassured the reporter in me to have all those factual supports. On the other hand, the Internet is so mind-bogglingly comprehensive these days that you can find pretty much anything you want without leaving your desk. For example, the Paris apartment and mansion that are the scenes of two big sequences were lifted directly from Internet real-estate ads. The hotel in Geneva where a seduction scene takes place is a real place, described thanks to the incredibly detailed panoramic picture-tours on its website.” (Moore: 2008).


To begin with, this is what the back cover of David Thomas’ thriller says:

“How well do we know our loved ones? In the wake of a brutal murder, architect Peter Crookham is forced to confront this question, launching him on a dangerous quest to uncover the truth. When Peter arrives home late for a dinner engagement with his beautiful wife, Mariana, and his journalist brother, Andy, he encounters a bloodbath: Andy has been brutally stabbed to death, and a nearly catatonic Mariana is bathed in his blood. Convinced Mariana is incapable of murder, Peter vows to clear her name. But when he discovers that Andy had been secretly investigating Mariana’s past, Peter can no longer trust his instincts. Desperate for answers, he travels to Mariana’s childhood home in East Berlin--and finds himself caught in a
The protagonist in this thriller is Peter Crookham, an architect, who married a girl from East Germany called Mariana. It is interesting that the protagonist in this book introduces himself by giving his own personal description:

"My name’s Peter Crookham. I’m an architect and I’m forty-two years old. If I have a distinguishing feature, it’s my height. I’m tall, six-three in my stockinged feet. I played rugby at school and did a bit of rowing at university; nothing serious, just my college eight. These days I’m like every other middle-aged guy in the world, trying to get his act together to go to the gym or to stagger off to a run, wondering why his trousers keep getting tighter. Those love-handles, where did they come from? I have pale-blue eyes and mousey-brown hair, just starting to thin. [...] As for my face, well, when women wanted to say nice things about me they never used to describe me as hunky or handsome. They told me I had a kind smile, I was never anyone’s dirty weekend. I was the nice, reliable, unthreatening type of guy that a woman didn’t feel embarrassed to be seen with at a party. [...] Basically, I’m Mr Average." (Thomas 2011: 8, 9)

The reader gets a pretty good vision of Peter Crookham’s appearance and personality. It is evident that he is madly in love with Mariana and all the way up to the bloody deed, he is not suspicious about her in any way. In fact, he is very happy that a girl of her stature even wanted to marry him:

"My wife Mariana was the most beautiful woman I’d ever laid eyes on and yet she was so bright, so complex, so constantly capable of surprising me that her beauty was almost the least interesting thing about her. Six years we’d been together and I still couldn’t believe my luck." (Thomas 2011: 7)

Although he finds her covered in blood standing in their kitchen next to his murdered brother, he still cannot reconcile the fact that she was the one who killed him. He decides to investigate the murder himself and sets off to East Berlin to finally uncover facts about Mariana’s past, as she herself never revealed anything. There he meets a private detective called Haller who leads him around East and West Berlin, shows him the terrible places where the Stasi tortured and killed people until Haller himself gets killed, seeing that he revealed too much to Crookham.

During his stay in Germany, Crookham manoeuvres himself out of several dangerous situations, finds Mariana’s parents who abandoned her and discovers that Mariana lived in a children’s home in which two boys were murdered by the cruel home director Tretow and buried in the garden. This Tretow, also known as Mr Stinky, smelled of a distinctive after shave which was the only one available in Eastern Germany at that time. In the end, the reason for Mariana killing Peter Crookham’s brother Andy becomes clear and in light of her mental condition she should bear no blame:

"But the secret shame had been played deep inside her, covered by layer upon layer of self-protection until, one evening in Yorkshire, a man had come to her house, smelling like Tretow, like Mr Stinky, and then the whole cycle of death and blood had been played out once again. Now I realized why Mariana had said she was guilty, why it was all her fault, why she was a böses Mädchen. She hadn’t been referring to Andy’s death at all. She had no consciousness of that. It was the little girl in her talking and the two boys' deaths for which she blamed herself." (Thomas 2011: 384)

5. Fact or fiction in David Thomas' thriller “Blood Relative”

The plot of the thriller “Blood Relatives” is set in York, Frankfurt and Berlin (East and West). The author is well acquainted with all locations and describes them in much detail. In the authors notice at the end of the novel he states:

“Not surprisingly, this book could not have been written without the unfailing kindness, generosity and assistance of Germans: three in particular. The London-based consultant psychotherapist Bernd Leygraf, was invaluable in explaining the mechanisms by which buried childhood pain can explode into adult violence, and the passing of the burden of sin of suffering from one generation to another. In Berlin, Matthias Willenbrink, director of the AXOM group of detective agencies, was a superb guide to the city and its recent history, a fount of great stories about detective work and an insightful observer of the way in which ex-Stasi operatives have transitioned into private detectives. Further thanks go to Jochen Meismann of the Condor detective agency, in particular for his description of German bureaucracy as it applies to birth certificates” (Thomas 2011: 394)

Hence, Thomas makes a true effort to research everything in detail: locations, history and facts. His descriptions of the horrible place Hohenschönhausen, where people were imprisoned during Stasi rule and events that happened there are
based on archived real testimonies of former prisoners. In addition, he read Anna Funder’s book *Stasiland* to become familiar with the mind-set of the East German state at that particular time. (cf. Thomas 2011: 395)

One can preliminarily conclude that Thomas does a lot of research and bases his fictional thrillers on real events and locations which he tries to present as candidly as possible in his books. He makes use of his background in journalism which, by the way, is included in the thriller in the form of the protagonist’s brother, a journalist, who is on the right track to revealing Mariana’s background and secret. Moreover, as the author states in the author’s note:

“It turned out that the Moscow apartment block in which we lived between 1959-61 during my father’s posting to the British Embassy had been bugged by the KGB. The various international diplomats who lived there were forbidden from going into the attic on the grounds, they presumed, that the agents listening to them were working there. Perhaps all fiction turns out to be autobiography in the end.” (Thomas 2011: 396)

As stated earlier, he recruited the assistance of a number of consultants in dealing with social structures, historic events, detective work and mental conditions. By verifying locations, medical conditions and historical facts, being taught at school (as I was born and raised in West Germany and made several trips to East Germany and Berlin) everything Thomas has written in his book is accurate, but it begs the question: Why did he fail to verify the German language he uses in his thriller?

### 6. German language used in *Blood Relative*

As the protagonist’s wife Mariana is a native German, the author incorporates German expressions into the thriller in the form of quotations, names and titles, e.g. what Mariana expresses to her husband in German. Crookham, the protagonist, says he understands what she says and is able to say a few words in German himself, but still Mariana chooses English over German:

“Apart from the odd dirty joke, we’d always spoken English. Mariana used to say she preferred it to German, which she only half-jokingly called ‘Hitler’s language’. But out of embarrassment at my own incompetence and just wanting to do something for her I’d spent a few months playing a Speak German course in the car. I’d picked up enough to get the gist of what she was saying.” (Thomas 2011: 15)

While using certain German expressions, the author produces two distinct categories of mistakes: Grammatical and semantic fails as well as spelling mistakes. The latter are less severe, as this could happen to anyone and the word remains understandable, but the former are quite serious and in some cases completely incomprehensible, at least for a German speaking person. Another concern is the name of the protagonist’s wife. The author named her Mariana. To start off, this is not a name Germans would normally bestow on a daughter, Marianne is more common in Germany, or if ending with an “a”, the name should be spelled Marianna, with double ‘n’. As is mentioned later on in the thriller, Mariana is of Eastern Europe origin. If so, Mariana would usually be spelled Marijana or Marjana. It is evident that the author chose an unordinary name for his female character, most likely to enhance the fact that neither she nor her character are common.

#### 6.1. Grammar and semantic fails

Seemingly the most annoying expression that we came across in this thriller is the following:

“She just said, ‘Hereingekommen’, the German for ‘Come in’, turned and walked back into the house” (Thomas 2011: 13)

Is it really necessary to make this banal mistake when it comes to such an easy word? Nowadays, when nearly everything and anything is available on the internet and the assistance of Germans is capitalized on (as stated in the author’s notice), why does one not scrutinize this?

*Hereingekommen* is the past participle of the word *hereinkommen* (engl. *to come in*). Therefore, it cannot be used as the imperative. The correct form would simply be *Herein*. One doesn’t even have to use *kommen*. There are a few more possibilities, like: *komm herein*, *kommt herein*, *kommen Sie herein*, or *hereinspaziert*. The first three forms depend on whether it is one person whom we refer to with *du* or one person whom we refer to with the polite form *Sie*, or if there are more people waiting to enter the room. The latter is more of a colloquial expression.

The next bizarre expression follows a few pages later:

“Ich muss die Nudeln retten bevor sie überkochen*, she said. (Thomas 2011: 15)
Why on earth does she have to rescue the pasta? The German sentence means: I have to rescue the pasta before it boils over. Not only is the wrong word used, but there is also a punctuation mistake: as the second part of the sentence is a subordinate time clause there has to be a comma after retten. Therefore, the correct form would be something to the effect of: Ich muss die Nudeln abgießen, bevor sie überkochen.

It does not take long to notice the next fail:

"Viel von Nudeln für jeder", she said in a cheery, almost sing-song voice: plenty of pasta for everyone. And then, more to herself, "Die Männer haben Hunger. Sie müssen genug haben, zum zu essen": the men will be hungry; they must have enough to eat." (Thomas 2011: 17)

Luckily, the English translation directly follows the German sentences allowing for comprehensibility. Let us start off with the first sentence Viel von Nudeln für jeder. Even Google translate does a better job, as it states viel Pasta für alle.

First of all, the English phrase plenty of cannot be translated word for word to German as viel von, because a preposition after viel is not required. It is just viel + accusative. But there is one more mistake in this tiny sentence: für jeder. Jeder is in the wrong case. Stated correctly it should be jeden, again the accusative. The correct German version would be: (Es gibt) viele Nudeln für jeden.

The sentence Die Männer haben Hunger is grammatically correct, but as it is followed by the original English sentence, it becomes clear that it is presented in the wrong tense. In English, it is shown in the future tense the men WILL be hungry, but in German it is implied in the present tense Die Männer HABEN Hunger. Described correctly it should be: Die Männer WERDEN Hunger haben.

The next sentence Sie müssen genug haben, zum zu essen is a complete mess considering that it should be: Sie müssen genug zum Essen haben or Sie müssen genug zu essen haben. It would have been better had the author translated the English sentence word for word instead of attempting to construct a German final clause with um zu, which then was disfigured to zum zu by an additional spelling mistake (hopefully).

The next page reveals another interesting sentence in German:

"Wo setzte ich der carbonara Soße?" She was wondering what she had done with the carbonara sauce. (Thomas 2011: 18)

As a matter of fact, the German-speaking reader might also wonder what Mariana had done with the carbonara sauce, as setzen means to seat. Literally translated to English it means where have I seated the carbonara sauce?

Still this is not the only mistake: Once more there is an issue with the accusative, as setzen requires the accusative and therefore it should be die Carbonara-Soße, as Soße is a female noun. Another observation is the spelling of carbonara Soße. It is either Carbonara-Soße or Carbonara-Sauce, i.e. capital C and a hyphen.

In the following, the attempt is made to use English swear words in German:

"I heard him mutter a curse: "Fick mich!" which was followed immediately by a deafening sharp crack that reverberated round the stairwell." (Thomas 2011: 311)

In a German-speakers view, this expression is more likely to be used in a porn movie rather than being applied as a curse phrase because it literally means fuck me. Supposedly, the author wanted to convey something to the effect of fuck or fuck you in this situation, which would be translated as fick dich. Although this is not an original German swear word, the Germans seem to be fond of the English expression fuck you, so they simply adopted it and now apply it in German translation.

6.2. Spelling mistakes

At the very beginning, Mariana utters a German word while talking to her husband:

“I will stay home and cook, like a good little hausfrau." (Thomas 2011: 8)

Hausfrau means housewife in English, i.e. it is correctly used in this context, but there is a problem with the German spelling, as all nouns have to be spelled with a capital letter. Hence, Hausfrau should be spelled with a capital H, if used accurately.
Later on in the thriller other German nouns are placed in English sentences, lacking capital letters:

“It was surely to much of a coincidence that such a doppelgänger could possibly be employed at the carpet factory where, thanks to Stasi influence he has worked as a sales executive (…)” (Thomas 2011: 130)

“He pondered this as he wandered from the apartment block, one of the prefabricated plattenbau projects that had sprung up all over Berlin.” (Thomas 2011: 131)
Both Doppelgänger and Plattenbau are written with capital letters in German.

“He was coming back from the meeting on the A9, the autobahn.” (Thomas 2011: 302)
Here again, the German noun Autobahn is used with English spelling, i.e. no capital letter. Yet, as the author incorporates these words into the English text, it is justified to adjust these nouns to English spelling rules, as it would stick out when written with capital letters.

Additionally, the author’s inconsistency comes to light when he writes the following:

“That he will be at the Kneipe with all his cronies, like he always is, getting drunk and talking about the good old days.” (Thomas 2011: 260)
Here the German word Kneipe, meaning pub or bar, is portrayed with an initial capital letter. One might suppose that the author assumed this was the actual name of the pub and thus wrote it as such, but later in the text he explains:

“OK… and a Kneipe?” – “It’s the Berlin term for a bar…” (Thomas 2011: 261)
Therefore, he apparently didn’t consider it the actual name and writes it with a capital letter for reasons only he himself is familiar with.

The next spelling mistake is to be found here:

“Markus Wolf was director of the Hauptverwaltung Aufklärung, or HVA, the foreign intelligence directorate of the Ministry of State Security.” (Thomas 2011: 97)

Hauptverwaltung is spelled correctly but Aufklärung is not. The German umlauts ä, ö and ü can be spelled as ae, oe or ue, when using block letters, but where an ä in Aufklärung is present there is no need for an additional e. Accordingly, the correct spelling would be Aufklärung.

When considering the German school system, the author makes an interesting mistake:

“It stated that Mariana Slavik had attended a gymnasium (the German equivalent to a British grammar school) in the Bavarian city of Augsburg. She took her Arbitur exams, entitling her to attend university, in 1998. There was a photocopy of her Arbitur certificate attached to prove the fact.” (Thomas 2011: 167)
As mentioned before, he uses the German expression for grammar school Gymnasium but fails to use a capital letter. However, he then writes about the certificate which students obtain upon completing the Gymnasium, which is termed Abitur rather than Arbitur. As he repeats this twice it is evident that this isn’t merely a spelling mistake but instead his own incorrect memorisation of the term or inaccurate copy/paste from another source. Again, in these digital times one could have at least googled it.

The name of Hohenschönhausen (a prison for Stasi enemies) is used frequently in the book, but in some parts of the novel is spelled inaccurately, e.g.:

“As I walked back through the gates of Hohenschönhausen…” (Thomas 2011: 300)

When swearing again in German a spelling mistake also occurs:

“Scheissel!” (Thomas 2011: 309)
German spelling rules affirm that the letter s is spelled ẞ when following a long vowel or a diphthong, a gliding vowel rather (a combination of two adjacent vowel sounds within the same syllable), e.g. ei, au, äu, ie, eu etc., thus, it has to be spelled Scheiße, meaning shit in English.

Only when written in block letters it can be spelled ss. There is also one more exception: because the Swiss do not have the letter ẞ, they use ss instead.

6.3. German titles, proper names and specific terms

An interesting occurrence is the author’s usage of German titles for persons the protagonist comes across in Germany. For instance, he does not write Mr Tretow, but instead Herr Tretow. This can be found throughout the whole book as is shown in these examples:

“On these occasions Frau Tretow cried, promised to better in the future (…)” (Thomas 2011: 129f.)

“Fräulein Schinckel did not simper coyly, or fain outrage (…)” (Thomas 2011: 132)

“So when you parade your criminality in front of Herr Direktor Wolf, this is the action of a man who is fully in control of his mind (…)” (Thomas 2011: 177)

The spelling in these examples is correct as Herr, Frau, Fräulein is written with capital letters which opposes the German expressions mentioned in the previous chapter that the author incorporated into the English text and did not write with capital letters. The reason might be that these are also titles (Mr, Mrs, and Miss) which are written with capital letters in the English language.

Elsewhere in the text the same title is used in its English form:

“You must speak to our director, Mr Haller”, said the girl (…) (Thomas 2011: 225)

The author is not consistent in utilizing the German titles seeing as in some parts he uses the English ones such as in this portion of text regarding Mrs König, where it is the English Mrs:

“Anyway”, said Janice, “this Mrs König had seen the story and wanted to find out what had happened to Mariana.” (Thomas 2011: 218)

But then again:

“Now, Frau König, may I ask you something?” (Thomas 2011: 220)

He definitely doesn’t use the German titles consistently throughout the entire book and the reasoning for usage or non-usage is not evident. It is, in fact, completely random. In our mind, there is no significant reasoning for or against and serves no intended or specific purpose but rather represents a random choice. Nevertheless, our initial thought was that it might depend on the speaker, whether a German person or an English person was referring to these characters, but this is not the case. The title Direktor and director, for instance, are both uttered by Germans in direct speech.

Through the course of the text we find another title, which is used in its German form:

“I work with Agent Gerber”, he said. (Thomas 2011: 307)

He now uses a German word which means exactly the same in English and could have just as well been written as agent. Instead, the author decides to spell the word with a capital letter, thus identifying it as a German noun. Again he is inconsistent, as he wrote all the other German nouns in lowercase. Presumably, he does it precisely because it is the same word in English and in German and at this point he would like to emphasize the fact that it is a German agent who was called Agent Gerber by the others.

The author also uses German titles for institutions and places, e.g. for a bank, an elementary school, or a real estate agency:

“The DZ Bank building, by Frank Gehry!” (Thomas 2011: 230)
“We spent an hour or so in a nearby café while Haller’s staff tracked down the address of an old state-run children’s home near the Grundschule Rudower.” (Thomas 2011: 256)

“At the bottom of the poster was a company name: Tretow Immobilien GmbH.” (Thomas 2011: 259)

Interestingly, he does not clarify in this passage what Immobilien GmbH means or what DZ Bank stands for, although he has given explanations for every German word before, e.g. when quoting what Mariana says and when introducing the term Grundschule Rudower:

“…dedicated to a Berlin primary school called Grundschule Rudower”. (Thomas 2011: 142)

Throughout the book there are also specific terms used concerning East and West Germany, which are simply untranslatable:

“There is something we call Ostalgie, which means nostalgia for the East.” (Thomas 2011: 249)

“It just seemed crazy, the idea of the Wessis, of all people, selling us shredding equipment.” (Thomas 2011: 280)

Germans refer to people from East Germany as Ossis and people from West Germany as Wessis. Those terms have to be used as such because it is not possible to translate them in any other language. The same goes for the term Ostalgie. As explained in the book, people tend to forget bad things from the past and simply remember what was good in the former GDR and thus reminisce with nostalgia, the so-called Ostalgie. Apropos GDR, throughout the book the author does not use the English abbreviation GDR for German Democratic Republic, but the German abbreviation DDR for Deutsche Demokratische Republik:

“In the DDR was very little crime.” (Thomas 2011: 225)

“That is why no one gives a shit about what happened here during the years of the DDR.” (Thomas 2011: 362)

7. Discussion

The author consistently makes spelling and grammar mistakes when using the German language. It is to be criticized that even the easiest expressions one could have checked by googling or using a dictionary are wrong. Throughout the thriller Thomas does not quote complex sentences or scientific details but everyday expressions like come in etc., so the mistakes could have been easily avoided. Even the spelling of German nouns isn’t consistent, since the author at times writes them with capital letters and sometimes lowercase with no apparent reason. Another questionable custom is the usage of the German Frau, Herr and Fräulein in some cases, while in others he uses the English Mr, Mrs and Miss. In addition, there are parts where a German word is spelled incorrectly, while it is spelled correctly in other parts of the thriller. As authors have the privilege of randomly doing certain things or, more importantly, doing them on purpose, with the goal of boosting drama and making their narration more interesting for the reader, all of the above may fall in the category of artistic freedom. However, the above mentioned mistakes clearly do not fall into the category of artistic freedom.

It is confusing that Thomas himself describes in the author’s notice how detailed the research he has done has been due to his background in journalism, all for the purpose of presenting a realistic setting in his fictional novel, so in this context he should have also researched the German language properly to give a true and realistic picture of it as well. One cannot discriminate language in favour of locations and settings. The wrong usage of the language is definitely an issue if certain readers memorize the German words and consider using them when visiting Germany or meeting German people.

All things considered, the German language serves primarily in order to make the plot more vivid, although it could have been left out without doing damage to the storyline. In using German expressions, the reader can probably better identify with the protagonist and is more deeply immersed in the action. Even if the reader has never heard a word of German and has never been to the country, it is possible to empathize and familiarize with the protagonist when reading those incomprehensible German words and hearing about places in East Germany with exotic names such as Hohenschönhausen. As the author translates and gives explanations for all of the German words and expressions, the reader has no trouble following the plot. On the other hand, if the author hadn’t used German expressions he would have spared himself the translations and additional explanations as well as all the serious mistakes.

8. Conclusion
To sum up, David Thomas ascribes great importance to background checks and historical facts, while there is surely a great lack of research concerning the German language used in this book. Although he writes fiction and takes liberties to modify the storyline, the scenes and locations are pictured truthfully and realistically. For no obvious reason, the author definitely neglects and violates the language aspect in favour of the setting and atmosphere. If there was a purpose or reason for misspelling and misusing the German language this could have, in fact, been categorized as artistic freedom, but analysis has not shown any pattern or conscious use of language tools in order to make an impact on the reader. Quite the contrary, they do not seem to be executed on purpose but rather out of neglect and ignorance, so from a linguistic point of view it is impossible to accept the mentioned and analysed linguistic fails as artistic freedom. It is all about incompetent translations from English into German language. This impression is confirmed by the fact that the German sentences and expressions are followed by an explanation in English which makes it very easy to compare and to precisely evaluate what went awry. The spelling mistakes in particular lead to the conclusion that the author apparently does not know a word of German. What is indisputably lacking is an expert in the German language or at least an assistant to review or proof-read the text and detect the mistakes.

In our opinion, artistic freedom for authors is not limited to fictional plots, settings, characters etc. Indeed, when it comes to inventing new languages in science fiction stories, or adapting and modifying languages in order to provoke or to present things from the author’s perspective, artistic freedom definitely applies. For instance, there are authors who decide to write a whole book without commas or periods or spaces, like the German author Thomas Lehr in his novel September. But in this case the language use, or rather abuse, is consistent and pursuing a purpose. The author’s intention is to create a piece of art in which he expresses himself and his ideology, his philosophy, his worldview and nobody objects to that. However, when it comes to an existing language being used in fiction it definitely IS necessary to pay more attention to correct language usage, if it serves the purpose to introduce the reader to the world of Germans (in this particular case) or to make the life and history of this country more understandable and vivid to readers from other countries. To disparage a language out of lack of knowledge, neglect and ignorance is definitely impermissible, regardless of the genre. Therefore, the lousy German language used in David Thomas’ Blood Relative is to be categorized as a huge fail and not as artistic freedom.

Bibliography


Rethinking Journalism Education in Spain: the Gap Between University Studies and the Labour Market

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Universidad Carlos III de Madrid

Abstract

The main purpose of this paper is to analyse whether professional skills demanded of journalism graduates by companies match university curricula. In the current digital context, adapting journalism studies to labour market changes must be considered. A review of the literature shows much research about this topic in recent years, but, given the rapid changes that occur within a field that is increasingly global and technologically oriented, regular research is necessary. Content analysis has been carried out by evaluating journalism employment offers found on InfoJobs and LinkedIn—the two most used human resources web sites in Spain—and their correspondence to journalism curricula according to ANECA (the Spanish National Agency for Quality Assessment and Accreditation). From an initial sample of 310 job offers, 156 were ultimately selected, discarding those that were repeated or not expressly addressed to journalism graduates. All the information provided in the employment offers was organised into two categories based on the skills required and the descriptive data in the professional profiles demanded. The main findings show not only that it is becoming ever more common for enterprises to look for candidates with abilities which reflect experience closely related to Web 2.0, but also that these same companies apparently tend to ignore traditional journalism skills. It is also true that they do not seem to know precisely what skills a graduate in journalism should have. Knowledge of marketing is included in 47% of the positions offered to journalists, when this is not a subject included in journalism curricula.

Keywords: Rethinking Journalism Education in Spain: the Gap Between University Studies and the Labour Market

Introduction

1. Journalism Studies in Spain

Journalism in Spain began as a trade, with the Spanish daily El Debate and the Official School of Journalism opening academies for it in 1926 and 1939, respectively. Later, in 1971, it was offered as a university degree at the Universidad Complutense de Madrid and the Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona.

What began as a trade rooted in tools and technique (Graña, 1927; Beneyto, 1958; Benito, 1967) became more theoretical at universities in the 1970s. In the 1990s, new matters were addressed, such as the structuring of the general teaching of journalism (Real, 1997; Galdón, 1999) and the balance between social science and humanities subjects and subjects specialising in communication, with an appropriate proportion of theory and practice (Gordón, 1991; Humanes, 1997).

The adaptation of the degrees to the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), explained in the guidelines of the Libro Blanco. Títulos de Grado en Comunicación (ANECA, 2005), presented a change in the formulation of university studies for communication and journalism degrees in Spain. The model for learning went from being grounded in objectives to a model based on the acquisition of skills for professional application (Marta-Lazo, 2010; Sierra and Cabezuelo, 2010; Real, 2012; Marta-Lazo, Agustín Lacruz and Ubieto Artur, 2012; Marta-Lazo and Vadillo Bengoa, 2013; Rodrigo-Alsina and Lazcano, 2014; Sánchez-García, 2016).

The four professional positions the Libro Blanco (2005: 191-192) contains are:

-Copywriter of journalistic information for any type of medium

-Editor-in-chief for press or institutional communication
The *Libro Blanco* (ANECA, 2005, pp. 210-213) lists 15 professional skills (know-how) pertaining to the four positions. The skills were rated on a point scale ranging from 1 to 4, and are ranked below according to the average scores they received.

**Graph 1. Professional Skills of Journalism Graduates. *Libro Blanco***

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill</th>
<th>Average Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Basic ability to communicate in other, neighbouring languages</td>
<td>2.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability and skill to design formal and aesthetic details</td>
<td>2.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding of the data and mathematical operations performed and currently used in the media</td>
<td>2.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to conceive, plan and carry out news or communication projects</td>
<td>2.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to experiment and innovate through the knowledge and use of applied techniques and methods</td>
<td>2.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability and skill to perform basic journalistic tasks</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability and skill to use news and communication technologies and techniques</td>
<td>3.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability and skill to use computer systems and resources</td>
<td>3.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability and skill to present reasoned ideas</td>
<td>3.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability and skill to communicate in the specific language of all traditional and new media</td>
<td>3.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic ability to understand news production in standard English</td>
<td>3.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability and skill to search for, select and prioritise any type of source or document</td>
<td>3.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability and skill to collect, organise, analyse and process information and communication</td>
<td>3.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to read and analyse specialised texts and documents</td>
<td>3.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability and skill to express oneself with fluency and communicative effectiveness</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source: ANECA 2005**

The highest-rated according to the *Libro Blanco* are “Ability and skill to express oneself with fluency and communicative effectiveness,” “Ability to read and analyse specialised texts and documents,” and “Ability and skill to collect, organise, analyse and process information and communication,” while the lowest-rated is “Basic ability to communicate in other, neighbouring languages.”

New facets and needs reflected in the profiles of interactive, multimedia journalists join the more traditional skills related to journalistic fundamentals, procedures in the creation of genres and formats, and the professional ethics the job requires.
The goal of this research is to rethink journalism studies in Spain. The study analyses whether the professional profiles and skills in journalism demanded by companies still correspond to those compiled in the *Libro Blanco* by ANECA (2005), or whether they have changed in the last decade because of the impact of the digital era and the rise of new labour requirements. Lastly, it determines whether we are creating journalists with criteria based on outdated profiles and skills.

2. The Labour Market and New Journalistic Profiles

Technological novelties and the ability to obtain information through mobile devices, software applications and social media networks have changed the skills necessary for working in news media. In the last decade, there has been a significant restructuring of the production of information, and this has had a direct impact on the professional profiles of journalists.

The following are some of the recently-established positions and fields: data delivery editor, social media editor (community manager), hypertext writer, web content manager, influencer, blogger, multimedia content editor, user-generated content editor, information architect, news moderator, usability expert, interactivity manager, web video editor, mobile journalism, journalism consulting, communication consulting and internet journalism research (Flores, 2013. p. 40).

The new media professions mentioned above involve skills and functions that overlap between them (Hayasaki, Roca-Cuberes and Singla, 2016). Companies themselves seem unable to distinguish the differences between some professions and others. The result is that, in recent years, many journalists have undertaken functions that have little or nothing to do with the education they received at university.

Pérez-Serrano, Rodríguez-Barba and Rodríguez-Pallares (2015), in their study “Mercado de la Comunicación y estudiantes de Periodismo. Estructura de la demanda de perfiles profesionales” (“The Communication Market and Journalism Students: Structure of the Demand for Professional Profiles”), also emphasise the lack of adaptation between company job offers and the new journalistic context. After analysing offers from the Centre for Job Orientation and Information (COIE) at the Universidad Complutense de Madrid in relation to students’ internship contracts, they conclude that “the new occupations that entail digital communication activities, simply because they can be held by journalists, cannot properly be considered positions within the profession if they do not fulfil the social mission of information. As such, they are occupations or job opportunities for which a person with studies in journalism would be qualified, but which in no case should be admitted under the umbrella of the profession.”

For their part, Gómez, Roses and García (2017) note the importance of recycling content within study plans that are in line with the reality of the labour market and which include knowledge that a priori is unrelated to a typical journalism background but is linked to current job offers for journalists. This knowledge includes computer skills, use of social networks and online marketing.

Recent reports from the sector indicate that, in years to come, companies will seek an increasing number of candidates with digital profiles (Inesdi, 2016; ADECCO, 2017; Magna Global). In 2015, the *Libro Blanco para el Diseño de las Titulaciones Universitarias en el marco de la economía digital* ("White Book for the Design of University Degrees within the Context of the Digital Economy") was created within the framework of the “Digital Agenda for Spain” and the “Education for Excellence” initiative through dialogue between industry, universities and administrations. It “supports the notion that university graduates should acquire skills that industry needs (...), [and] a revision of the trends of the digital economy sector, the profiles demanded by industry and the skills associated with these profiles” (Calvo-Sotelo, 2015).

The advent of social networks on the Internet has led companies to seek candidates with experience that will help them “manage their image” in these new platforms (Vinader, Abuin and Garcia, 2011, p. 78). These are professionals with a series of technological abilities and skills previously not considered. They are what, after analysing offers from Infojobs and conducting 10 interviews with leading innovation consultants and managers who have experience in Spain, the United States and Latin America, Palomo and Palau-Sampio (2016) referred to “adaptive journalists”.

However, it seems professionals with these new skill sets are destined to encounter job insecurity. According to the 2017 Journalism Report by the Madrid Press Association (APM), “freelance journalists are more present in digital media sites (...) and 45% of freelance journalists earn less than 1000 euros per month” (APM, 2017).

3. Objectives and Hypotheses
Main Objective:

• Determine what profiles and professional skills in journalism are currently the most demanded by companies

Secondary Objectives:

• Determine whether professional skills in journalism, described in 2005 by the Libro Blanco Títulos de Grado en Comunicación (Bachelor’s Degrees in Communication), correspond to the current demand of the labour market

• Analyse whether there is a connection between academic education and labour demand in the field of journalism

• Determine whether new professional journalism profiles related to the rise of new technologies and Web 2.0 are the most demanded

• Learn the types of employment contracts that are offered to media professionals

Hypotheses

H0: There is a gap between university journalism studies in Spain and the labour market, so it is necessary to rethink these journalism studies so that the professional skills acquired coincide with those demanded by companies.

H1: There is confusion among companies which make offers indiscriminately to graduates in disciplines which do not share the same study plans, especially offers related to the so-called new journalistic profiles.

4. Methodology

Quantitative analysis has been chosen: content analysis of the job offers to journalism graduates. Specifically, these were offers published in September 2017 on the two most-used job portals for job searches in Spain, Infojobs and LinkedIn (Infoempleo-Adecco, 2016).

As Laurence Bardin notes, content analysis seeks to “obtain indicators (quantitative or otherwise) by systematic and objective procedures for describing the content of the messages, allowing the inference of knowledge relative to the social context of these messages” (1996: 32).

The justification for the period analysed is based on data from the Observatory for Occupations of the Spanish Public Employment Service, according to which the profession of journalist, in September 2017, shows a positive variation in hiring relative to the same month of the previous year (9.50%) and 40% more hirings than in the previous month (SEPE, 2017).

After the first exploratory phase of searching for offers with Keywords like “community manager,” “digital journalism,” “journalism,” “multimedia journalist,” “copywriter” and “institutional relations,” those which contained a bachelor’s degree in journalism or, in the case of internships/grants, current studies in journalism as a minimum requisite were selected.

From an initial sample of 310 job offers, 156 were ultimately chosen, discarding those that were repeated or were not explicitly directed to journalism graduates. All the information provided in the job offers was organised into two categories based on the skills required and the descriptive information in the professional profiles demanded:

- **Descriptions**, with the goal of discovering the kind of contract stipulated in the job offers to media professionals. Included was information such as:
  • Company name
  • Sector
  • Position
  • Province
  • Type of contract
  • Pay

- **Skills**, to analyse whether there is a connection between academic education and the professional skills and profiles required in the field of journalism. In this case, the information provided in the offers was organised as follows:

**Profiles sought:**
Professional skills:

- Job duties
- Knowledge of computer systems
- Knowledge of editing programs
- Knowledge of social networks
- Other knowledge
- Languages

It was necessary to analyse the adaptation of professional skills demanded by the labour market to those acquired in the university education of journalism graduates. To do this, we selected 10 of the 15 *Libro Blanco* (ANECA, 2005) skills that were largely reflected in the information provided in the job offers (job duties, knowledge of computer systems, knowledge of editing programs, knowledge of social networks, other knowledge and languages). These skills were grouped as follows:

**Table 1. Professional Skills**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPANY REQUISITES</th>
<th>LIBRO BLANCO PROFESSIONAL SKILLS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JOB DUTIES</td>
<td>- Ability and skill to express oneself with fluency and communicative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>effectiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Ability to conceive, plan and carry out news or communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>projects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Ability and skill to carry out basic journalistic tasks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Ability to experiment and innovate through the knowledge and use of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>applied techniques and methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KNOWLEDGE OF COMPUTER SYSTEMS</td>
<td>Ability and skill to use computer systems and resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KNOWLEDGE OF EDITING</td>
<td>- Ability and skill to design formal and aesthetic details</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KNOWLEDGE OF SOCIAL NETWORKS</td>
<td>- Ability and skill to communicate in the specific language of all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>media</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Ability and skill to use news and communication technologies and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>techniques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LANGUAGES</td>
<td>- Basic ability to understand news production in English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Basic ability to communicate in other, neighbouring languages</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. Analysis of Results

5.1. Types of Job Offers for Journalists

The largest number of job offers are concentrated in Spain's two biggest cities, Madrid and Barcelona. Three out of four (77%) offers made through LinkedIn and Infojobs correspond to Madrid (33%) and Barcelona (44%). Sevilla and Valencia follow far behind at 3% each.

As for the types of contracts offered, 31% do not specify what kind of contract is involved. Twenty-nine percent (29%) are training contracts that involve grants or internships. Twenty percent (20%) are fixed-length works and services contracts, 17% are indefinite contracts and 3% go to self-employed professionals. This indicates the instability of the hiring, which is
also reflected in the fact that almost three out of every four (68%) offers from the portals analysed do not include any information about the salary.

**Graph 2. Type of Contract for Journalists**

Source: prepared by the authors

The sectors of the companies which offer jobs or training to journalists or journalism students are quite diverse. The marketing and advertising sector offered the most jobs during the period analysed (26%), followed by Internet companies (13%), many of which work in e-commerce. In the “Others” group (44%) are companies which work in areas like the textile industry, pharmaceuticals, the chemical industry, the automobile industry and construction.

**Graph 3. Labour Sector of Companies that Seek Journalists**

Source: prepared by the authors

Offers from the media sector represent only two percent (2%) of the total.

**5.2 Professional Skills and Profiles Demanded**

**5.2.1. Professional Profiles**

This study is focused on offers to journalists. The minimum studies required in the job offers have been grouped into four categories. The offers that seek only journalism graduates or journalism students have been separated from offers that, in
addition to journalism, include other degrees that include advertising, marketing, public relations, audiovisual communication, business administration, economics, and language and literature.

Only 31% of the offers are directed specifically to journalism graduates or students (26% and 5%, respectively), while a large majority, 69%, are directed to graduates (57%) or students (12%) in journalism or other degrees.

**Graph 4. Academic Education Required for Position**

![Graph showing academic education required for position]

**Source: prepared by the authors**

In addition to minimum academic requirements, the companies highlight other transversal values like international experiences, having lived abroad, and in interest in the Internet and new technologies. They also look for “innovative, creative people,” people “who know how to work in groups,” people who are “proactive and can work under pressure” and, in one case, people “who can tolerate frustration”.

On the basis of the Keywords that the companies publish and the area they note the candidates will work in, we find that almost half of the offers contain professional functions that would be performed in the area of marketing and advertising (47%), followed by journalism and editing (28%) and corporate communication (25%).

**Graph 5. Field of Employment**

![Graph showing field of employment]

**Source: prepared by the authors**

This is a significant picture that indicates that the most demanded profiles are not among what we understand to be “journalism,” but instead have more to do with marketing jobs.

In the job descriptions of the companies analysed, we see new profiles in the sector. Digital Content Manager (10%), Community Manager (9%), Communication Specialist (7%) and Marketing Specialist (5%) are some of the most used descriptors in English. Furthermore, we find positions called “journalist” (13%), “copywriter” (9%) or “account executive” (5%), which are in line with a more traditional nomenclature. Included in the category “Others,” which accounts for 14% of
the offers, are more of these new profiles, such as “brand journalist,” “content strategist,” “SEO consultant” and “digital content manager.”

Graph 6. Old and New Positions Offered by Companies

Source: prepared by the authors

The traditional positions (journalist and copywriter) account for 27% of the offers, while the new positions (community manager, digital content manager, marketing specialist, social media manager, communication specialist and “others”) account for almost half (47%), and 26% are for internships.

5.2.2. Professional Skills Required by Companies

The professional skills (know-how) compiled by ANECA and explicitly mentioned in the job duties of the 156 job offers analysed are the following:

- Ability to conceive, plan and carry out news or communication projects (58.33%)
- Ability and skill to perform basic journalistic tasks (54.49%)
- Ability and skill to express oneself with fluency and communicative effectiveness (30.77%)
- Ability to experiment and innovate through the knowledge and use of applied techniques and methods (21.79%)

Graph 7. Professional Skills and Job Duties
Sixty-nine percent (69%) of the offers analysed do not require knowledge of editing, while 31% of the companies specifically include different photography or video editing programs.

There appears to be a strong consensus on knowledge of social networks, as 72% of the companies require candidates to know Web 2.0 at the level of tools, platforms or SEO. The 28% of the offers that do not include knowledge of social networks correspond to more traditional positions like corporate communicators or account executives, or the offers directed to students.

**Graph 8. Specific Skills Required of Journalists**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of social networks</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of editing</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic computer skills</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of the companies analysed, almost 80%, value knowledge of another language apart from Spanish. Fifty-eight percent (58%) of the offers demand a single language, which is usually English. Twenty-one percent (21%) require knowledge of two languages.

Skills in using social networks and design and editing programs are the most valued by the companies, followed by knowledge of English. In addition, 21.79% of the companies requested creativity and innovation among the skills of the applicants.

The *Libro Blanco* includes five other professional skills more associated with traditional aspects of journalism. These skills, listed below, are not reflected in the job offers of the companies on LinkedIn and Infojobs.

- Ability to read and analyse specialised texts and documents
- Ability and skill to collect, organise, analyse and process information and communication
- Ability and skill to search for, select and prioritise any type of source or document
- Ability and skill to present reasoned ideas
- Understanding of the data and mathematical operations performed and currently used in the media

Five of the 15 professional skills in the *Libro Blanco*, then— one third— are not reflected in the current demands of the labour market.

**6. Conclusions**

On the basis of the results obtained, we can affirm that the initial hypothesis of this research has been validated. There is a gap between journalism studies in Spain and the labour market demand. The professional skills that are required of
journalists in the labour market today differ from the professional skills in journalism studies described by the Spanish National Agency for Quality Assessment and Accreditation (ANECA) in 2005.

Some conclusions coincide with those in other research (Palomo and Palau-Sampio, 2016). However, one sees that, in our research from 2017, knowledge and use of social networks was already the most valued requisite, having appeared in 72% of the offers. As such, it seems that digital journalists are the most sought-after by companies.

Nonetheless, the new professional setting of journalism does not seem to be clearly manifested in the offers of companies, as Pérez-Serrano, Rodríguez-Barba and Rodríguez-Pallares already noted (2015). It is not clearly reflected in this study, either. Knowledge of marketing is included in many (47%) of the positions offered on LinkedIn and Infojobs to journalists, when this is not a subject considered in the study plans of journalism. This leads us to validate our second hypothesis, which stated that companies do not clearly know what skills a journalism graduate should have.

It is also important to note that journalism with regard to its traditional aspects, journalism in the purely informative sense, is not reflected in the requirements of the company offers.

After the thorough analysis of the data, we can conclude that there is a large gap between the academic education that students in Spanish journalism departments currently receive and what companies apparently require today to fill media-related positions. In light of this conclusion, there must be greater concordance between the business world and universities.

It is also important that the content and subjects of study plans be revised so that future journalists have a place in the labour market, which is becoming more interdisciplinary in nature. This revision should not forget the importance of the traditional skills of journalism, which companies seem largely to overlook.

Research carried out in the Research Group for Communication and Digital Information, recognised by the government of Aragón and financed by the European Regional Development Fund within the project “Determinants of the Evolution of Journalistic Fundamentals and Skills in Practice, According to the Type and Ownership of News Company,” CONDEVELPER (UZ-2017-HUM-04).

References


Internationalisation with Chinese Characteristics – Tracing the Development Path of a Thoroughly Modern Chinese University

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Abstract
In order to achieve competitive advantage in both national and international markets, universities around the world are increasingly adopting strategies for internationalisation. Internationalisation of a university refers to the process of integrating an international, intercultural and global dimension into the purpose, functions and delivery of education and research of the university. It is defined as an ongoing, future-oriented, interdisciplinary, leadership-driven vision that involves many stakeholders working to change the internal dynamics of an institution to respond and adapt appropriately to an ever-changing external environment. The purpose of this paper is to illustrate the challenges of a new university to acquire a strong local academic identity and profile to answer the needs of a knowledge-based society driven by globalisation and to highlight the main challenges for the sector in the future. This research found some perceptions of the meaning of internationalisation of higher education in the Chinese context – learning for self-improvement, nationalism – which differentiate Chinese models of internationalisation from those in the West. Moreover, the dominant motivation for internationalisation in the Chinese university is academic development, which is different from the Western universities’ more economic rationales. These differences can be attributed to the history of the modernisation of higher education in China, the impact of nationalist revolution on higher education and dual-managerial systems in higher education institutions (HEIs) which involve the Communist Party Committee and the university president.

Keywords: Higher education, internationalisation, China

Introduction
Universities across the world are seeking to internationalise, and Chinese universities are all involved to a greater or lesser extent, not least because internationalisation is an important criterion on the Times Higher Education Supplement (THES) and Shanghai Jiaotong scales. Countries across the world, including China, have been actively participating in the global ranking exercises, aimed at enhancing the competitiveness and reputation of their higher education (HE) systems globally. The quest for world-class status has become a prominent agenda reshaping university governance.

The study reported here focuses on the Chinese context, and the case of one university in particular. The rapid growth of China’s economy, combined with a shortage of domestic supply, has resulted in a tremendous demand for internationalised higher education (Altbach, 2009; Chiang, 2012; Helms, 2008; Morgan & Wu, 2011; World Bank, 2011).

The goal of becoming a global or international university is one of the main drivers of use of English. Ritzen (2004:36) stated that it is not possible to be a true international university without attracting students from a wide range of cultures and nations. One way for universities in non-English-speaking countries to compete with their counterparts in English-speaking countries is to include English-medium instruction in their academic offer, leading to what Graddol (2006) sees as one of the main drivers of globalisation of English. Doiz et al. (2011) stated that it is indeed the case for many Asian and European universities. Yang (2002) indicated that the use of English is also seen as one of the most substantial factors influencing the internationalisation of many Chinese universities. Kurtan (2004) extended this idea by suggesting that, in the globalized higher education space, internationalisation is necessary even to attract domestic students.

Background context
Traditionally, China’s higher education sector had been relatively disengaged from the international arena. This was to change with reform and becoming more open (Hayhoe, 1989; Zhou, 2006), which created a desire to access international
capacity to deliver higher education and international expertise in research and teaching. The economic and political significance of China and the rapid expansion of and investment in higher education attracted the interest of foreign universities from around the world which sought to respond to emerging international opportunities through the recruitment of Chinese students, the delivery of programmes in China and the development of research partnerships and networks. The Outline of China’s National Plan for Medium and Long-term Education Reform and Development 2010-2020 urges Chinese higher education institutions to “open their best faculties to the world, and to participate in or set up collaborative international academic organisations” (China, 2010: 21). This exhortation has been very well received by the main exporters of higher education, including the USA, UK and Australia, who have appreciated the opportunities offered to expand beyond their national boundaries. High-profile politicians have encouraged and supported their national higher education sectors to internationalise, and China has been seen as a particularly desirable destination. However, Sino-foreign cooperation in terms of branch campuses of foreign institutions in China has been met with a decidedly mixed reaction. The response to this has been for Chinese institutions to intensify their internationalisation efforts. Internationalisation in higher education is multifaceted; its meanings and interpretations shift according to the various rationales, incentives, and political and economic circumstances within which it takes place (Callan, 2000). Forces both within and outside the university usually influence the direction and extent of internationalisation (Cuthbert, 2002). The internationalisation of any university depends on institutionalising a strategic planning process that is representative in that it recognises and utilises the power of the culture within which it occurs (Chan & Dimmock, 2008).

Due to a policy of economic rationalism, together with the practice of social reform and the open-door policy, which supported the development of education in general and education reform in particular, higher education (HE) was regarded as an important corner stone in developing China into a global economic power. Chinese HE started to seriously internationalise based on the Ninth Five-Year Plan (1996-2000) and was incentivised by the Chinese entry into World Trade Organization (WTO). Since then a strong movement of cooperation between Chinese universities and Western universities began. Recently, China has established educational relationships with countries in Europe, Central and South America, Oceania, Africa, and the rest of Asia. Agreements on mutual recognition of academic degrees have been signed between China and many other countries, with a targeted focus on highly-ranked institutions. In the meanwhile, international educational cooperation agreements and memoranda of understanding on educational cooperation have been signed with, for example, the USA, Australia, Canada, the UK, and New Zealand (Ministry of Education (MoE), 2007).

The institution in question is a young Chinese university in Guangdong Province, southern China. Established in 2012, the case-study university is a public institution with a student cohort almost 4,000 undergraduate and graduate students. The university is expanding quickly, thanks in no small part to goals being clearly defined by the institution, with one of those goals being internationalisation.

**Literature review**

The past two decades have witnessed an unprecedented expansion in the scale of international activity within the global tertiary education sector. The factors driving internationalisation are well-established; on the demand side, a global labour market, the needs of a knowledge economy, and the desire to learn from the world’s best have all encouraged students and governments to seek greater opportunities for international study and international partnerships. On the supply side, declining mobility costs, developments in ICT, trade liberalisation and increased private sector investment have lead to an increase in the availability of opportunities for international engagement (Knight, 2004). The dramatic expansion in numbers of students studying internationally and in the number of international institutional partnerships is evidence of the growth in scale. The diversity of forms of international activity, ranging from traditional student recruitment and mobility, to transnational curriculum and delivery partnerships, collaborative research networks and international campuses is testament to the expansion in scope.

The international dimension of higher education is being increasingly promoted on the national and institutional levels in many countries. The national level has a significant influence on the international dimension of higher education through policy, funding, programs and regulatory frameworks. Yet it is actually at the institutional level that the real process of internationalisation is taking place, as Knight (2004: 6-7) notes, with the institutional level reflecting national policy.

Ellingboe (1998) observed five components which are integral to the process applied in internationalising a HE institution:
College leadership;

Faculty members’ international involvement in activities with colleagues, research sites, and institutions worldwide;

The availability, affordability, accessibility, and transferability of study abroad programs for students;

The presence and integration of international students, scholars and visiting faculty into campus life; and

International co-curricular units (residence halls, conference planning centres, student unions, career centres, cultural immersion and language centres, student activities and student organisations).

Internationalisation of higher education in China

The development of internationalisation of higher education started at the end of the 1970s in China, with the 1978 “Reform and Open Policy”, leading to the Chinese government and universities increasing their efforts to try to connect with other universities and higher education globally. The Chinese government not only sponsored students and scholars to study abroad, but also encouraged self-funded students and scholars to go abroad for higher education in the 1990s (although students were initially sent from China to study abroad in the 1970s, according to Pan et al., 2005). China’s entry into the WTO in 2001 boosted the speed of internationalisation in higher education (Ong & Chan, 2012).

A report from the Center for China and Globalization (CCG, 2018) identified China as being the world’s number one place of origin for international students, accounting for over 30% of the total in the US, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, and for almost 50% in South Korea. In some European countries such as UK, Sweden, and Switzerland, China is also a major source of international students, although the share is less than 10%.

However, the report also highlighted the growth in the number of returning overseas Chinese students has exceeded that of the Chinese studying abroad, with 432,500 Chinese students abroad returning to China in 2016.

Additionally, the report points out an increase in the number of international students in China, partly attributed to China’s policies to provide opportunities to international students after they graduate. These students are mainly from what China terms ‘Belt and Road’ countries, such as Thailand, India, Pakistan, Indonesia, and Laos, and this 20% increase has significantly reduced China’s deficit in international education. It is also testament to the success of the State Council and Central Government’s 2010 Plan of Studying in China. In this Plan, the aim is that by the end of 2020, China will be the world’s number one nation to receive the largest number of international students (CSC, 2012).

Sino-foreign ventures

As a consequence of the more open political context, the number of Sino-Foreign Joint Ventures in China, grew from 20 in 2013 to 28 in 2015, making it the second largest importer of branch campuses after the United Arab Emirates, which had 32 (Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2015). The majority of these are niche institutions with relatively small numbers of students. However, four are on a larger scale (Duke Kunshan University, established in 2014; New York Shanghai, established in 2013; Xi’an Jiaotong Liverpool University, established in 2006; The University of Nottingham Ningbo China, established in 2004) which seek to offer a range of disciplines at the undergraduate and postgraduate levels and to reflect the quality and experience of the institution’s home campuses (Stanfield & Qi, 2012).

These institutions have had mixed success. For example, Cai and Hall (2016) found that, although staff found many benefits from working on an international branch campus, they were insufficiently prepared for the structural and cultural differences inherent in working as an academic in China. The authors argue that university level discourse, communicated through policy and marketing texts, which promotes the vision of a diverse international university community, means not enough attention is being paid to the structural, political and cultural differences inherent in working as an academic in China.

However, in recent years, the trend seems to have shifted back in favour of Chinese universities pursuing the path of internationalisation, as can be seen in the race to be ranked on one of the world university ranking lists.

Rankings

The orientation towards university rankings from the 1990s can be considered as the result of the perceived need for quality assurance, especially since the implementation of the Outline of Educational Reform and Development in China in 1994. The title Project 211, which the Chinese Government launched in 1995, refers to the aim of building up 100 top level higher
education institutions and key disciplines in the twenty-first century. Project 985, also familiar to anyone working in the Chinese higher education context, derives from the month in which it was announced, May 1998, when Jiang Zemin, the then President of People’s Republic of China declared that China was in need of some first-rate universities on an international level (Adams & Song, 2009).

One of the key evaluation criteria used to compile worldwide university ranking lists is the degree of internationalisation of individual institutions, which is based on the percentage of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) courses and the proportion of international faculty and students at the institution. Since boosting performance under the ‘internationalisation’ criterion could be achieved more easily than, for example, improving the quality of research publications, the introduction of EMI has become an attractive proposition for many Chinese higher education institutions.

**Globalisation and internationalisation**

Altbach defines globalisation ‘as the economic, political, and societal forces pushing 21st century higher education toward greater international involvement’ and ‘internationalisation includes the policies and practices undertaken by academic systems and institutions—and even individuals—to cope with the global academic environment (Altbach, 2007:290). Both Altbach and Knight (2007) consider internationalisation of higher education as one of the ways a country responds to the impact of globalisation. They view globalisation as being broader than internationalisation since the latter means relations between two nations while the former refers to blurring of borders. Globalisation is related mainly to the economy, as it represents some context which forces internationalisation processes. In turn, internationalisation is related to strategies and policies primarily on national and institutional levels.

Globalisation has been described as the combined phenomena whereby people are more globally connected than ever before through international travel and international communication, where information and financial capital are transmitted almost instantaneously around the globe, and where goods and services produced in one part of the world are universally available (Porter, 2008). Academia is not immune to the phenomena underlying globalisation, as is evidenced by the proliferation of business schools (Hay, 2008; Doh, 2010), and by the associations representing both education institutions and their corporate clients.

According to Bevelander (2010), institutions have tended to internationalise their educational programs by following three, sometimes sequential, trajectories. First, they increase their currently served client (student) segment’s understanding of global business practice by changes in the curriculum. Second, they reach out to new international clients (students) to add classroom diversity. Finally, they integrate academic and behavioral aspects of an internationally oriented curriculum, and the diverse experiences of an internationally recruited student body to produce graduates capable of working effectively anywhere in the world.

Internationalisation of any university is directed to internationalising the educational experience for students so they might better perform in an international and multicultural economic environment. It has also transformed the higher education landscape in the last two decades; a more globalised and inter-connected world has encouraged governments to foster academic relations and opportunities with university partners in other countries (Knight, 2008). A key driver of internationalisation is its ability to generate revenue (Ngo, 2011) and administrators, faculty, and staff in higher education are all critical to its success (Choudaha & Contreras, 2014). Nations remain distinct economically, socially, and culturally, but can become connected and inter-related through the internationalisation processes.

Many Asian universities have developed internationalisation strategies with the aim of being more competitive in the international higher education market, with a view to attracting foreign students, recruiting international scholars, supporting cross-campus research collaborations, and increasing performance. Efforts have tended to focus on three areas: first, teaching, including student exchanges, branch and offshore campuses, joint degree programs, and internationalised curricula; second, cross-border research partnerships, faculty development, and accreditation processes; and third, alignment of instructional quality, curricula, assessments, and increased student mobility.

Singapore is an example of where the government developed an internationalisation strategy that aimed to reduce the number of local outbound students through improvements to domestic study options, the promotion of the return of graduates after completion of their studies, and the deliberate recruitment of incoming international students into the Singapore workforce to address internationalisation concerns (Dquila, 2013; Ziguras & Gribble, 2015). Government policies in Singapore were developed to encourage specific local student values and attributes, including intercultural awareness.
and engagement, an international competitive edge, and global citizenship – all through their internationalised curriculum. In China, the internationalisation of higher education has been handled a little differently. A significant trend in China’s internationalisation strategy has been to export Chinese knowledge, part of a process of cultural integration between China and the West (Rui, 2014).

A broader classification of modes of internationalisation is provided by Knight (2006) who focuses on the component parts of higher education and the ways in which they might cross borders. This gives rise to a four-part classification based on the movement of:

People — staff and student mobility, including exchange and study in international institutions.

Programmes—a programme from an institution in one country is delivered in another.

Providers — essentially, this involves the formal establishment of a physical presence.

Services and Projects — this includes a diversity of forms of cooperation, whether directly research-related or more obviously focused on pedagogy, curriculum development, quality assurance or management.

The role of government

With regards to internationalisation, the regulatory and supervisory role of the Chinese government is embedded in the daily operation of higher education institutions. The role is played out through a range of examination and control procedures or in a more subtle way via policies and funding programs that guide institutional efforts into the areas prioritised by the government. Up until now, government approval has had to be obtained if any staff member wanted to go abroad on business for any reason, including attending a conference, giving lectures, undertaking joint research, etc. Nowadays Chinese institutions are encouraged to establish partnerships and joint teaching programs with foreign institutions. Yet, to do this they have to pass a special qualification examination to obtain authorisation beforehand from the educational authorities. After reaching any agreement with their foreign partner, the Chinese institution still must register their joint program in detail with the educational authorities. Clearly, the Chinese government is vacillating between allowing more authority and keeping tight control. This can be seen also at the institutional level, where a dual system of university governance sees the traditional management system having equal weight with the Community Party management system, which often leads to tensions being played out at institutional and even departmental level.

Research question

This research aims at providing the groundwork for understanding the particular meaning, implementation and evaluation of international higher education in the Chinese context.

Therefore, the main research questions are:

What does internationalisation mean to the case university?

How has the case university sought to ‘internationalise’?

What barriers does the case university face in defining and implementing internationalisation, and how might these be overcome?

Method

A qualitative case methodology based on in-depth interviews and documentary analysis was adopted in this study. Although the case study approach can be a very satisfactory methodology, it has some limitations. The research findings were discussed with those who had participated in the study to obtain their reactions and opinions, with the aim of enhancing the validity of the conclusions. The reliability of the findings was improved by triangulation through the use of multiple research approaches, methods and techniques in the same study (Hussey & Hussey, 1997; Sham, 2004). This would overcome potential bias and sterility.

An exploratory qualitative research design, involving semi-structured, face to face interviews was undertaken to explore the views of senior leaders and faculty. Interviews with ten HE leaders included discussion of their key concerns, from their perspective, in order to better understand the key drivers, and challenges, surrounding HE internationalisation. Specifically,
interviews were intended to seek insights into: first, how internationalisation was conceptualized by the participants; second, what key factors were critical to the success of internationalisation of HE in the context of the university; third, what had been achieved; and fourth, what challenges had been faced. Research methods should align with the research problem, with selected paradigms and methodologies shaping the choice of methods (Silverman, 2010). Semi-structured interviews allowed the interviewer flexibility in selecting lines of questioning, and probing further if required (Lloyd and Gatherer, 2006). They were also used because perceptions of HE internationalisation in the university were that it was uncertain and dynamic, and such interviews would enable useful exploration of attitudes, motives, rationales and practices being investigated. Interviews with ten participants were conducted. Purposive, snowball sampling was used.

Thematic analysis was undertaken on the transcripts, and themes reflecting participants’ perceptions and views about higher education internationalisation emerged. Manual color-coding coding of themes and concepts (Creswell, 2009) was used to extract relevant sections of text, capturing the different views and perspectives of the participants and comparing them to the relevant literature. Each transcript was worked through and coded into themes and sub-themes with colored highlighting of texts used to identify texts. Then, a summary description of each theme/sub-theme’s meaning was written. Interpretation of the data followed where sample texts, and associated interpretive commentaries, were reviewed with reference to current literature, and recognising both similarities and differences with participants’ views and experiences. The findings are presented below.

Results and discussion

Five main themes emerged, namely quality of provision, international reputation, teaching staff, research and student recruitment. Each of these will be discussed in turn, and are grouped so as to answer the main research questions.

Research question – what internationalisation means to the university

Quality of provision

The quality of research and teaching programs featured strongly in internationalisation discussions with the participants. High quality research and teaching outcomes were believed to result in higher quality faculty being attracted to the institution. The domino knock-on effect was that this would, in turn, result in higher quality graduates. It needs to be mentioned that more than 80% of graduates in the university in this case study undertake postgraduate study abroad, primarily in North America, with many studying at some of the world’s top-ranked institutions. This not only raises the international profile of the university, but also provides added impetus to deliver high quality, internationally-recognised programs:

Quality is the top priority, especially the quality of our students, who are our product, and our partners are impressed with their level. The faculty are selected carefully as well, so having quality programs is making us more successful. We’re getting better and better; we have more and more English courses; we’re absolutely committed to success (Participant 4).

The university is moving quickly towards becoming an English medium institution. This has not been without issues, as course design needs to be integrated with courses taught in Chinese, the English language proficiency of students and faculty needs to be equal to the task, and the lack of Chinese language proficiency of international students needs to be taken into consideration. Teaching methods also need to be compatible with the characteristics of programs. This is acknowledged by the participants:

We need to be aware that to move towards having everything in English is necessary, but we mustn’t forget that we need the language level of our teachers to be up to the level required. The students have English language classes to help them get to the level, but maybe we need to be more careful to see what the language level of our teachers is. However, we’re making good progress, by hiring from abroad, where the teaching methods are also more up to date. Some very good teaching happens already in China, particularly in Math and Science, so we are making sure we have top quality (Participant 9).

The quality of tuition, especially for a university engaging with international partners, is considered vital:

Our international partners are providing some joint programs with us. They are important, so we need to meet them often, to assure them that our programs are up to the level. If they are comfortable with the quality of our programs, we can grow more. Quality is in the ability of our students and the level of our professors (Participant 5).
Ultimately, quality also will ensure an international reputation is enhanced.

**International reputation**

The international reputation of the university was of concern to all participants. It was believed to be important to promote that reputation internationally, and especially to be ranked internationally:

*We need to internationalise in a proactive way, and then we have to develop our vision in order to not only be strong in science and engineering, but also economics, management, the arts, and law with accreditation by international bodies as soon as possible. We have to spread our name in China, in Asia and then spread it on a worldwide basis. We need to feature in the global rankings – that’s crucial* (Participant 8).

Rankings was an area mentioned by all participants, and it seems that this is really what internationalisation means to them on a fundamental level, as it is an acknowledgement of how their education system has improved over the years. Some participants felt that the greatest challenge lay with pushing the internationalisation agenda further, speaking of the need to maintain international educational standards, and sending Chinese academics overseas to other universities, as well as bringing scholars and students from overseas to China:

*We need to make clear that education is not just for within China; it has to reach international standards. We need to send our scholars abroad on exchange, and the same with our students. It is not just about bringing scholars and students here* (Participant 2).

Many of the participants spoke at length about the benefits of internationalisation, for their university, and for China. A strong feeling of pride in doing this for China prevailed. One participant spoke about the benefits of international cooperation for internationalising teaching and research methods, so as to ensure the university adhered to international standards and increased its reputation:

*More international cooperation will make teaching and learning better. Teaching staff can update their knowledge, research has a higher impact, and students can achieve international standards. This will grow our reputation* (Participant 10).

Research question – How the university has sought to internationalise

**Teaching staff**

All of the participants highlighted the role of teaching staff in the internationalisation process. Employing more foreign teaching staff was seen as a way to promote internationalisation:

*We might invite foreign professors from partner institutions to deliver some courses in English. We may also employ foreign staff for even junior positions to create a new environment and atmosphere in our campus. Maybe we can’t do this in a big way in the beginning, but maybe also we have to force this a little, otherwise the pace will be too slow* (Participant 1).

This view was shared by others:

*In the process of internationalisation, internationalising teaching staff is necessary. It is maybe the most important thing. Moreover, we could invite more foreign staff to work at our university. We’ve already started to do this, but we need to be honest, and say that most of the foreign staff are returning Chinese who have a foreign passport* (Participant 6).

Participant six highlights what is actually happening when it comes to recruiting foreign teaching faculty, as the vast majority of such faculty are what is known as returning Chinese, i.e. those who grew up in China and undertook their undergraduate studies there, before moving abroad to compete their postgraduate studies and having lived and worked there since then. Most have acquired citizenship of their adopted country in the process, while still retaining Chinese citizenship (however, if a returning Chinese academic is offered the presidency of a Chinese university, then they have to give up their foreign passport). Now they are being lured back to China with generous salaries, promotion opportunities and research funding. Non-Chinese nationals are being recruited in far smaller numbers, usually for less high-profile positions, and without the same incentives. Therefore, to speak of internationalisation of teaching staff is perhaps a little disingenuous, though it is an aspect that is played up when it comes to international university rankings, with little mention of the dual citizenship involved.

In addition to teaching staff, research was seen to be one of the main driving forces of the internationalisation process.
Research

High quality research cooperation was seen by almost all participants as being crucial in the drive for more internationalisation. This could be achieved by faculty exchange, as mentioned by some of the participants, inviting more visiting scholars to the campus and using research in a better way to help underpin teaching on the university’s programmes.

The need for publishing high quality research (in the English language) in internationally-renowned journals was also considered central to the internationalisation process:

*Publishing academic research is really important in the process of internationalisation – in the highest quality journals* (Participant 3).

Publishing in high-ranking international academic journals in the English language was seen as being rather challenging, but it was felt that strides have been made in this area. Participants also pointed to the fact that the university is hosting more international conferences to share research achievements, which they believed would assist in boosting their university’s research profile and international standing:

*Research is the most important. We know this. We already have some institutes on campus that will produce future Nobel laureates. Our plan is also to cooperate with our strategic partners to work on the international conferences* (Participant 7).

The case-study university is very fortunate to have significant budgets available, thanks to government funding, to fund international collaborative programs for teaching, research, and student exchanges. However, a few participants admitted that more work needs to be done on international conferences, as these have not been as successful to date as might have been hoped. This was one of the challenges to internationalisation that was identified, with the other being international student recruitment.

Research question - Challenges to internationalisation

**Student recruitment**

Attracting overseas students has not gone as smoothly as hoped:

*We need to do more to attract international students, and that needs to start by making sure they can survive here easily. This has been a problem for us, as it means accommodation, food, all the daily things and not only academics, need to be planned more carefully. We need to see what our expectations are, what their expectations are, and we need to help the students to accept them* (Participant 2).

This is an issue that needs to be sensitively managed. The university’s original plan was to expand international student recruitment very quickly, but they have since taken on board the sentiments expressed by all stakeholders, and are now recruiting international students in a more phased manner.

By the same token, as their reputation for academic excellence increases, they can afford to be stricter in terms of recruiting Chinese students, and select the best.

Maintaining international standards in the university, while also enhancing the quality of the academic experience for students, were seen as ongoing challenges. So, too, was the drive towards joint-program agreements, as those involved in negotiations needed to have a significant level of experience, to persuade international partners that the university is capable of delivering sustained quality. Preparing students for the marketplace was not addressed in a significant way by the participants, although there was a need expressed for a greater variety and breadth of programs. Human resources and administrative challenges, as well as infrastructure challenges were seen as factors that could delay or slow down the internationalisation process. The lack of English language skills of support staff (though steps have been taken to remedy this, with the provision of English language training) and the lack of understanding of international culture were also seen as challenges. All the participants acknowledged that most of their support staff did not have international experience.

**Recommendations**

Though it did not arise in the study, a major issue facing higher education in China is graduate unemployment – and this is on the increase. International partnerships, for example, enable more students to earn a degree than otherwise could be
the case, but this may simply mean more unemployed graduates. Therefore, these partnerships need to pay serious attention to the question of the graduate labour market in China. How relevant are the educational programmes? Is there a demand for the graduate skill set being produced? This is something that needs to be considered for the future. It is related to what is considered to be one of the most relevant aspects of internationalisation mentioned by participants, namely, developing the country and its international reputation.

In addition, the concept of internationalisation ‘at home’ and the implications for curriculum content and skills development among staff and students have also become increasingly important. From the participants’ perspective, to ensure the university offers international higher education, it is imperative that English as a medium of instruction courses are staffed by faculty who are able to teach in English, and that the language level of students on such courses is equal to the task. Otherwise, the danger is that international and Chinese students will be segregated in different classes, with the Chinese students studying in their native language, which means that, on paper, lip service is being paid to internationalisation, but nothing meaningful is being implemented in practice. Maybe this will mean a review of the policy of hiring almost exclusively returning Chinese as overseas faculty, in favour a more diverse faculty body.

A traditional focus on the mobility of students and scholars has been augmented by a diversity of forms of collaboration in teaching and research, including franchising, validations, distance and online learning, international campuses, research partnerships and networks, and international research programmes. Quality assurance mechanisms will need to be developed to ensure the success of such initiatives, if the international standards mentioned by most participants are to be both attained and sustained. Though not mentioned in the study, there could be more explicit forms of cooperation between universities in China, and not just between Chinese and foreign universities, as the journey towards internationalisation is one that they have in common, as is the journey towards being highly ranked.

Conclusion

The findings highlight key implications at both institutional and national levels for China, Asia, and beyond. Internationalisation strategies and policies have been found to be critical to the development of higher education in China. Based on these findings, as mentioned in the recommendations above, universities in China may consider connecting their strategic objectives and strategic planning processes to support one another during the internationalisation journey of higher education. The findings also offered exploratory insights into what was considered important to further support the internationalisation processes, as well as highlighting the challenges that could arise. The findings presented confirmed that internationalisation was conceptualised by senior university leaders as including processes directed toward internationalisation of curricula, the support and development of international research and publication collaborations, broadening of joint teaching programs and degrees, and an enhanced global, strategic mindset of both higher education leaders and staff at all levels of the universities involved. Ensuring international standards, facilitating staff exchanges, and increasing student mobility were also considered vital constituents in the internationalisation of higher education in the case study university in particular, and in China generally.

As also mentioned in the recommendations above, the future of internationalisation in higher education in China will undoubtedly remain a topical issue but will be determined ultimately, not by finance, but by the relevance of such programs to the country’s future social and economic development. It is this area that still needs to be fully addressed.

References


A Case Study in Neuromarketing: Analysis of the Influence of Music on Advertising Effectiveness through Eye-Tracking, Facial Emotion and GSR

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Abstract

Music plays an important role in advertising. It exerts strong influence on the cognitive processes of attention and on the emotional processes of evaluation and, subsequently, in the attributes of the product. The goal of this work was to investigate these mechanisms using eye-tracking, facial expression and galvanic skin response (GSR). Nineteen university women were exposed to the same TV ad of a perfume in our Laboratory (https://neurolabcenter.com/). Nine of them were randomly assigned to the music version and ten to the silent version. During viewing, the visual areas of interest, the fixation time, the facial emotions and the GSR were recorded. Before and after viewing the subjects completed a questionnaire. Results: 1) The commercial with music caused a GSR level higher than without music. The GSR evaluates the degree of arousal (emotion)., 2) The facial expression indicated that the variable "enjoy" and "engagement" were significantly higher in the version with music. The positive valence (liking) presented higher values in the musical version, 3) However, the evaluation of the variable "attention", measured through facial expression, did not show differences between the groups. There were also no differences in the heat maps of areas of interest. 4) The attributes evaluation of the product, measured with the pre-post questionnaire, showed greater increases after exposure to the musical version, but only in specific product's attributes, such as "power" but not on other attributes, such as "status". These results are interpreted within the framework of the recent theories of advertising and music (Oakes, 2007).

Keywords: case study, neuromarketing, analysis, influence, music, advertising, effectiveness, eye-tracking, facial emotion, GSR

Introduction

The music and the sound stimulus have allowed to give emotion to the stories in the movies and on the radio, accompany us in moments and give us back sensations only when we listen to the melody again. Its evocative power based on its ability to create emotions and associations (Douglas, 1986) has been used in film for its dramatic ability and in advertising, today it is difficult to imagine a television advertising without sound. Advertisers strive to use its communicative potential with music that the audience can remember, through a catchy letter or a melody, that bring emotion to the message and identity to the brand, facilitating the creation of associations that will later make it remembered. Music provides added values (Gurrea, 1999) since it awakens or suggests feeling, it empowers them, accompanies them or brings new meanings (Martinez, 2004). Music is undoubtedly an important component in advertising communication, being in some cases the main creative component of the ad (Kellaris, Cox and Cox, 1993), which will not only serve as the basis for maintaining attention and joining scenes, but also it will influence the attributes of the brand (Hung, 2000).

Music determines in our organism direct or reflex reactions, which are transient functional reactions that characterize an emotion at the moment in which musical excitement acts, and indirect reactions, which is when the musical excitement acts on the psychic representation of musical emotions. (Arteaga, 2009). The musical excitations, like any other sensory
excitement, determine a direct increase in the physiological activities of the organism and will affect the attention, engagement and memory of the brand (Vermeulen & Beukeboom, 2016). A more intense experience corresponds to a greater emotional involvement, which in turn makes future considerations more reliable in the purchasing decision (Satel & Lilienfeld, 2013). In this sense, music plays an important role in advertising since it exerts a strong influence on the cognitive processes of attention and on the emotional processes of evaluation and, subsequently, on the attributes of the products.

In relation to the role of music in advertising, Gerald Gorn (1982) demonstrated a certain relationship between the choice of an object and the type of music associated as well as the unconscious nature of this process. The type of music to be used is important, several studies show that using a music congruent with the advertisement causes greater preference for the product and the probability of purchase (North, MacKenzie, Law & Hargreaves, 2004; Alpert, Alpert y Maltz, 2005). In relation to its effect on the perception of the brand, Anand and Sternthal (1990) analyzed attitudinal responses to an advertisement for soft drinks with music and without music proving that the use of a voice-over along with music caused greater affective and cognitive effects positive towards the brand and the repetition of the ad while the one without music was perceived as more boring and irritating. The emotional and rhythmic characteristics of the music also influence by causing different emotional states that will affect the perceived perception of the brand, for example, provoking a state of positive humor with the use of cheerful music (Mitchell, 1988; Bozman, Muelind y Petit-O’Malley, 1994). When music is used in audiovisual advertisements, that is, when accompanying a video, it has proven to be more effective than verbal cues by a greater recall of visual imagery such as action (Stewart, 1998). In their research on the effect of music on visual memory, Gorn, Goldberg, Chattopadhyay and Litvack (1991) found that the use of music, versus the same stimulus but without music, was more effective in producing higher levels of recall.

While the voice in the ad describes the properties of the product, the music evokes an emotional response. Research shows the difficulty of delimiting the emotional and cognitive responses in advertising since cognitive messages must have a message of emotional background and, on the other hand, emotional stimulus, for example through music, can trigger involuntary cognitive processes that influence purchasing intention (Oakes, 2007; Gopinath and Nyer, 1999).

**Neuromarketing**

Neuromarketing applies knowledge of neuroscience, scientific study of the nervous system, for a greater understanding of the unconscious processes that intervene in consumer purchasing processes. Analyzing the psycho-physiological reactions of individuals when they are exposed to marketing stimulus it is being used to study the affective and cognitive consumer’s responses based on objective and scientifically measurable results. In this way it is intended to better understand the consumer and get to meet their needs more effectively. The majority of decisions are made in the intuitive or unconscious side, the emotional responses caused by the announcements are greater than those that can cause in the logical plane thanks to a higher level of engagement and excitement (Satel and Lilienfeld, 2013).

Neuromarketing registers different indicators whose analysis allows to measure criteria such as emotional engagement, retention, purchase intention, novelty, knowledge and attention. The most widespread are those non-invasive techniques related to readings of brain activity such as electroencephalogram (EEG), positron emission tomography (PET), magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) or magnetoencephalography (MEG) that allows to register brain activity during the stimulus. These studies help to correlate emotional states, brain activity tests and behavioral studies such as preferences for stimuli (Herz and Schooler, 2002, Sowndhararajan and Kim, 2016). But in addition to these tools, neuromarketing allows the integration of other psychophysiological variables (Cuesta, Martinez-Martinez and Cuesta, 2018). The facial expression of the emotions or Facial Expression technique register emotional states of the individuals, by means of observable gestures like a smile or micro-muscular changes like contractions associated to certain reactions, it is an indicator of the positive or negative emotional responses of the individuals. Through the use of eye-tracking can be recorded automated behaviors such as pupil visual tracking and dilation of the pupil, informs about the route of the gaze, the heatmaps, areas of interest and the time of attention spent by individuals at a point providing information about the attention, interest and engagement caused. The visual selection and the route of the look are effective to measure the effectiveness of the brand, knowing where the individual looks at the stimulus gives us information on how information is ordered (Plassmann, Ramsøy & Milosavljevic, 2012). The dermoelectric response, or Galvanic Skin Response (GSR), records the electrodermal activity or skin conductance sensitive to increased activity or emotional arousal. The heart rate and the variability of the heart rate are related to emotional and cognitive aspects. The emotional response can be of positive or negative valence, the triangulation of the different indicators will allow us to finally evaluate the degree of emotion and whether it is positive or negative.
Therefore, neuromarketing offers scientific research techniques that can provide important information about the effects of music used in advertising on an affective and cognitive level in individuals allowing a better understanding of the audience and of the mechanisms inherent in the perception of the brand.

Method

2.1. Objectives and Research Questions

The objective of this study was to investigate the effects of the use of music in advertisements on 1) the cognitive processes of attention, 2) the emotional processes of evaluation and 3) its effect on the attributes of the products using the techniques of eye tracking, facial expression and GSR. Research questions:

RQ1: How does music in advertisements affect the emotional responses of individuals?

RQ2: How does it affect cognitive responses?

RQ3: Does it affect the way the ad is viewed?

RQ4: How does it influence the perception of the brand?

Procedures and Sample

A sample of 19 university students with an average of 25 years and an age range between 19 and 27 years were used. A factorial design of independent measures was carried out where the independent variable is music, with two levels: 1) an ad with music and 2) the same ad without music; that it would allow to analyze the effect of the use of music in advertisements on the perceptions of individuals about a product and/or brand, its attributes and valuations. The television ad for One Million perfume by Paco Rabanne (21sec.) was used, presenting it to a group of subjects with sound and to another group without sound. The subjects were randomly assigned to the experimental treatment groups.

Five dependent variables were used: (1) "product perception", (2) "brand assessment" as well as the psychophysiological variables measured during the exposure to the ad: (3) GSR, (4) eye-tracking, and (5) facial expressions.

The research was carried out in the Neuromarketing Laboratory "NeuroLabCenter" (www.neurolabcenter.com) in the School of Communication of the Complutense University of Madrid. After completing the pre-test, the participants were randomly exposed to one of the experimental treatment groups (announcement with sound vs. announcement without sound) while their psychophysiological responses (GSR, eye-tracking and Facial Expression) were collected by the different sensors. After viewing the participants completed the post-test.

Measurement instruments

To measure the evaluations and perception's attributes of the brand, a questionnaire of 7 questions was used. The questionnaire was completed at the beginning of the session and, subsequently, after the presentation of the subjects to the experimental treatment. The questionnaire was based on an adaptation of the same used in previous research (Cuesta, Niño and Martínez-Martínez, 2018).

The psychophysiological variables: GSR, eye-tracking, pupilometry and facial recognition of emotion were measured using a Shimmer for GSR registration, a Tobii EYE Tracking, a high definition camera together with AFFECTIVA software and the iMotions software for the processing of the different indicators. The technique used has been widely described by us in previous research (Cuesta, Martínez and Cuesta, 2018).

Analysis and results

3.1. Effects of music on attention and emotion

The data obtained from the galvanic skin response (GSR) showed that the announcement with music caused a greater reaction (78% of viewing time) than the ad without music (50% of viewing time). Regarding the type of reactions provoked, we found that in the ad with music they were more positive (7.5%) than in the case of the ad without music (5%), the latter also recorded some negative reactions (1.2%).
The results of the facial expression showed that the advertisement with music provoked a higher level of engagement (10%) compared to the announcement without music (7%), however, the attention values were similar in the advertisement with music (57%) and without music (56%).

The GSR showed two peaks of attention and emotion coinciding in both ads. In the first peak, the subjects concentrated their gaze on similar areas, however after that peak the attention and emotions generated decayed more pronounced in the ad without music. (Figure 1)

The same happened in the second peak of attention at the end of the announcement when the two golden perfume bottles appeared (female format and male format) and the name of the brand on a white background. Both groups set their sights on the packaging without looking at the brand, the attention and emotion were maintained for longer in the ad with music and declined to a greater extent in the ad without music. (Figure 2).

The image that provoked higher levels of attention, engagement and positive emotions in both groups was the face of man, we can observe that these levels were higher in the case of the ad with music. (Figure 3 and Figure 4)

As previously suggested, another peak attention was the final image of the ads where appeared the products and the name of the brand. This scene also generated positive reactions in both ads, although the levels were higher in the music ad.

Heatmaps and areas of interest

According to the data obtained through the Eye Tracking in relation to the points of attention of the individuals during the viewing, that allow us to distinguish the different areas where the individuals fix their gaze, we can observe that there were no significant differences in the hot zones or areas of interest between the two groups. In both conditions the character that receives the most attention is the man (Figure 5).

Perception of the brand

We did not find significant differences (p <0.05) neither between groups nor in the data obtained before and after the stimulus. In relation to the type of emotion that the participants associated with the brand, 95% named concepts such as success, sensuality, sexual attraction, passion, motivation and power. No differences were found between groups nor in the opinions offered before and after the stimulus.

When the participants were asked to associate certain attributes to the Paco Rabanne brand, practically all the evaluations increased in both groups showing thus main effects of the experimental factor. However, an interesting interaction effect also appeared showing that changes were greater in the announcement with music (Table 1). The Student's T test showed significant differences in the scores before and after the stimulus only in the ad group with music for the attribute "power" (p = .002 ; Table 3).

After the stimulus, there was also some increase in both groups over their belief on the item "a perfume influenced the mood", but with no significant differences between groups (p<0.05). Regarding the image of the product, data shows an increase in all the evaluations after both stimuli (Table 2) but no significant differences were found neither of main effects nor of interaction (Table 3)

Conclusions and Discussion

4.1. Discussion

Music is one of the most important characteristics of advertising for the generation of persistent effects that has a potential to mobilize emotions in the viewer that accompanied the perception of messages enriching its contents. It also causes an increase in emotional activity that facilitates both the subsequent memory and the increase in attention.

However, previous research in this field has shown unclear results, which can be very complex, with different creativities, types of music, creative styles, etc. All this requires accumulating a large amount of experimental experience that allows accumulating enough data to create a comprehensive theoretical body of this complex phenomenon.

Previous investigations have proposed that music it's perceived as a peripheral type signal that it is used to provoke an emotional state (Stout and Leckenby, 1988). According to the dual process theory, that is, the theory of central and peripheral processing, it has been interpreted that music acts as a signal to generate a positive attitude towards the
message and then transmit it to the brand and the product. In this way, music would have a greater effect on an audience that is not very involved (low commitment audience), (Park & Young, 1986, MacInnis & Park, 1991, Petty & Cacioppo, 1986).

However, specific effects of music that can directly produce on the brand and the product have also been proposed: through the feelings of the spectators and the provoked emotions that will be directly linked to the stimuli through associative conditioning (Clynes and Nettheim, 1982, Alpert and Alpert, 1990).

In line with previous works Zimny and Weidenfeller (1961) our research seems to confirm this last proposal. Zimny and Weidenfeller demonstrated through GSR and heart rate how music generates emotion in the subjects (psychophysiological activation) which was transferred directly to the brand and product.

In a similar sense, our research provides the physiological data that show the greatest emotional activity in certain perceptual segments generated by music. This emotion has resulted in different perceptions of the product and the brand shown in the surveys made to the subjects. Researchers are now learning that emotions guide and influence consumer behavior far more than seen in traditional, cognitive research. (Rossiter & Percy, l991)

Consistent with the studies of Zimny and Weidenfeller, the transmission of values attributed to the brand and the product has been very consistent with the type of music used and the emotions that they mobilize in the subjects: the highly critical and markedly asymmetric music has generated an emotion of "power" or "speed" that has been transmitted as an attribute to the product. However, other values, such as status, not linked to the association generated by music, have not appeared as a gain due to music.

Conclusions.

The study on the effects of music on advertising has been studied previously. However, in our knowledge, there are no research that use questionnaires together with neuromarketing techniques that help to understand in greater depth these effects.

In this research, the analysis of psychophysiological responses showed that the use of music in the ad has a greater effect on emotional processes such as excitement and emotion. It also caused greater enjoyment and engagement. On the other hand, the use of music did not show an effect on cognitive processes such as attention, the way of looking at the advertisement, or in the areas of interest during both stimuli. However, it did have a persuasive effect on specific attributes of the brand such as "power". These data reveal that the music in the advertisements affects the emotional processes of the consumers and also the perception of the brand without influencing the cognitive responses of the subjects, which would provide clarity on the debate between the link of emotional responses and cognitive in advertising (Oakes, 2007; Gopinath and Nyer, 1999).

On the other hand, the increase in the attribute "power" can be caused by the type of music used in the ad coherent with the type of image (black and white) with dry changes that link cuts of general and short planes.

These data provide important information about the effects of music on the perception of the brand through stimulating emotional processes studied in other research (Bozman, Muelind and Malley, 1994), as well as the importance of using music coherent with the announcement (Anand and Sternthal, 1990).

References


Tables

Table 1. Group statistics attributes associated with the brand Paco Rabanne

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of stimulus</th>
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<th>Average</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Error mean</th>
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Table 2. Group statistics Attributes associated with the presentation of the brand

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Table 3. Group statistics Attributes associated with the announcement

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Figures

Figure 1. Comparison GSR peaks ad with music and without music
Figure 2. Comparison GSR peaks announcement with music and without music

GSR peak ad with music

GSR peak ad without music

Figure 3. Facial recognition with music

Facial expressions music ad

Figure 4. Facial recognition without music

Figure 5. Comparison heatmaps ad with music and without music

Heatmap ad with sound

Heatmap ad without sound
Scoring Higher Grades at ‘O’ Level Exam Through N-Theory Strategy

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Associate Professor in Tamil Language Programme,
Sultan Idris Education University, Malaysia.

Abstract
The pursuit of Education is important to the overall development of an individual. It is attained in different stages. The stages differ according to the learners’ age and goal. Usually, students undergo different learning stages. It begins at the kindergarten (pre-school), and continues into the primary school (elementary), secondary school (high), college and finally the university. Teaching and learning is the main aspect in education. Usually, a classroom consists of five levels of students according to their competence. They are excellent, potential excellent, medium, potential medium and critical level students. All these students have to face the ‘O’ level examination which is essential in Malaysia. It determines the students’ bright future. It is conducted by the Malaysian Examination Syndicate. Students find it difficult to score higher grades in this examination. This study proposes the ‘N’ theory strategy. This strategy explains that the role of teacher, which is dominant at the kindergarten and primary level of education diminishes correspondingly and is taken over by the role of the student, which increasingly gets dominated at the secondary and university levels. Since the ‘O’ level examination comes at the secondary level, the ‘N’ theory strategy is applicable to these students to score higher grades. It also helps the students to internalize their study materials easily. This research article aims to discuss the importance of ‘N’ theory in ‘O’ level examination and it also focuses on the pre-test activities using ‘N’ theory strategy and post-test based upon a research conducted among a selected secondary school students.

Keywords: ‘O’ level exam, ‘N’ theory, pre-test, post-test.

Introduction
Education is a process of teaching and learning. The learning includes acquisition of knowledge, language skills, cultural values and beliefs. Different methods like, training, discussion, narration, research, etc. are being used. Education starts from kindergarten and goes on to higher education institutions. The methodology used for teaching purpose is called ‘Pedagogy’.

Education shapes students in different ways. Through education, a student not only gains knowledge but also learns discipline. Education can be attained in different stages. The stages differ according to the students’ age and goal. Usually, students undergo different learning stages such as, kindergarten (pre-school), primary school (elementary), secondary school (high), college and finally university for their education. Students continue their education till they achieve their goals. It’s not an easy task to achieve one’s goal. During the learning process examination is the main testing area. Studying and memorizing is included in the testing area. Oxford Dictionary (1948) defines examination as, ‘a detailed inspection or study’. It can be also said as a test of one’s personal knowledge in a subject. Students have to come across examination during their education. There are different types of examinations and one such examination is ‘Ordinary level (O level) exam’. It is a subject based academic qualification and is conducted universally. In Malaysia, 4 examinations are important namely: Standard 6 public exam, Form 3 public exam, ‘O’ level exam and ‘A’ level exam. Of these, the ‘O’ level exam is conducted by the Malaysian Examinations Syndicate. This exam is very important for the students as its results will decide the future of the students (Samikkanu Jabamoney, 2018).

This research article explains the importance of ‘N’ theory in scoring higher grades in ‘O’ level examination. Moreover, it focuses on the pre-test, activities using ‘N’ theory and post-test based upon a research conducted among the students in Malaysian context.
Research Background

Malaysia is a Southeast Asian country. Malaysia consists of 13 states and 3 federal territories. Each and every state has its own government to be governed and the ultimate governance is with the federal government. All the departments like, education, electricity, finance, transport, etc. have its own ministry. Education in Malaysia is governed by the Ministry of Education. It oversees the education departments established in all the states and federal territories in Malaysia. Moreover, it is governed by the Education Act 1996 (Samikkanu Jabamoney, 2018).

Like other countries in the world, the education system is divided into preschool education, primary education, secondary education, pre-university education and higher education. According to the Malaysia law, primary education is compulsory. As in many other ASEAN countries, Malaysia has standardized examinations (Bakri Musa, M. 2003).

Examinations are conducted according to the division of education system in Malaysia. The General Certificate of Education conducts academic qualification examinations. This examination is subject specific examination. The General Certificate of Education is composed of three levels which are based on the levels of difficulty. They are Ordinary Level (‘O’ Level), Advanced Subsidiary Level (‘A1’ Level or ‘AS’ Level) and Advanced Level (‘A’ Level). Of these levels, ‘O’ Level is for the school leaving 17 to 18 years old students. It is taken by all Form 5 secondary school students in Malaysia (Samikkanu Jabamoney, 2018).

Scoring in ‘O’ Level examinations is not an easy task. Students work hard to achieve grade ‘A’ in this examination.

Statement of Problem

Teaching and learning is a process in the education. Usually teaching and learning takes place in a classroom situation. In a classroom learning context students from different knowledge backgrounds can be seen. Knowledge varies according to the students’ competence. Considering the learning competence of the students, five levels of students can be distinguished in a classroom. They are excellent, potential excellent, medium, potential medium and critical level students. All the students need to work hard to score good grades (Samikkanu Jabamoney, 2018).

O level examination is essential in the Malaysian context in particular. It is not easy for the students to score distinction grades in ‘O’ level examination. Both the teachers and students dedicate and work hard to prepare for this examination. Most of the time, the students fail to score higher grades. Teachers themselves come out with various techniques and ideas to guide the students. But still they find it difficult to score good grades.

Research Objective

The major objective of the study is:

To make the students to score higher grades in the ‘O’ Level examination using ‘N’ theory strategy.

Limitation

The study is limited to Form 5 students from one of the secondary schools in Malaysia. Only 28 students, who fell within the medium and potential medium levels in the classrooms, were selected from the chosen secondary school for this study. Furthermore, only the past 15 years of actual ‘O’ level Biology question papers were used for this study.

Literature Review

Literature review provides idea as how to go further with the present research work. It also allows the researcher to view the concept of the theory.

Robert R. Newton (1980) has done a research on M and F theories and he proposes what he believes is a more practical alternative.

There is a theory called as SYM theory. ‘It is Supersymmetric Yang–Mills (SYM) theory and is a mathematical and physical model created to study particles through a simple system, similar to string theory.’ But this doesn’t relate with the ‘N’ theory mentioned by Shulman (2018). It is a notion theory which provides completeness to a frame work.
Moreover, ‘N’ theory is used in the field of Mathematics, Physics and Philosophy by other scholars. But it is never used as an education theory. Hence, the researcher has implemented the concept of ‘N’ theory in all the subjects to identify the progress of the students in their ‘O’ Level examination.

Research Methods
The research is based upon the Experimental method.

‘The experimental method is a systematic and scientific approach to research in which the researcher manipulates one or more variables, and controls and measures any change in other variables.’ (explorable.com)

Gay, L. R (1992) defines experimental method as, ‘The experimental method is the only method of research that can truly test hypotheses concerning cause-and-effect relationships. It represents the most valid approach to the solution of educational problems, both practical and theoretical, and to the advancement of education as a science’.

This research is based on an experiment carried out with the students. ‘N’ theory strategy is implemented on two groups of students such as experimental group and control group. Through this experimental method past (old) real questions of ‘O’ level examinations are revised.

Concept of ‘N’ theory
N theory is a part of string theory in the field of physics. Even ‘N’ is used as integer or any number in mathematics. The concept of ‘N’ theory is to form n category and to form structure of space and time. For this study the concept of ‘N’ theory is based upon the string ‘N’ and is given in Figure 1.

Figure 1: ‘N’ Theory
In the above given ‘N’ diagram, there are two colors namely red and green. The red indicates the teacher’s role and green indicates the student’s role. Moreover, there are 3 lines drawn which shows 4 levels of education system such as kindergarten, primary level, and secondary level and university level. As seen in the diagram, the role of the teacher will be more and students have fewer roles in the kindergarten and primary level. Whereas, at the secondary and university levels the role of the students will be more and teacher has fewer roles in the learning processes.

Research Tools
Examinations were conducted before and after implementing the concept of ‘N’ theory, namely Pre-test and Post-test and these were used as research tools.

Teaching Materials
The study area was confined only to the subject of Biology. Past 15 years of actual ‘O’ level Biology examination question papers were used as teaching materials. Teachers had to revise these past 15 years of ‘O’ level biology examination questions chapter wise, and prepare model question papers with answers. Such a preparation required the teacher to divide the question papers according to the nine chapters found in the Form 4 and six chapters in the Form 5 textbooks. In total there are 15 papers to be prepared by the teacher. All these papers are designed with sample questions with answers. The ‘N’ theory strategy was used as teaching method in this study, whereby the teacher’s dominance was minimal.
The details of the chapter from Form 4 and 5 are given in the Table 1 (Gan Wan Yeat, 2005):

**Table 1**

**Form 4 and 5 Topics of Biology Subject**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHAPTER</th>
<th>FORM 4</th>
<th>FORM 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Introduction to Biology</td>
<td>Transport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Cell Structure and Cell organization</td>
<td>Locomotion and Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Movement of substances Across The plasma Membrane</td>
<td>Coordination and Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Chemical Composition of the Cell</td>
<td>Reproduction and Growth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Cell Division</td>
<td>Inheritance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Nutrition</td>
<td>Variation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Respiration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Dynamic Ecosystem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Endangered Ecosystem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

O level exam is based on 2 years of study i.e. Form 4 and 5. There are 3 parts of questions namely Part A, Part B and Part C. Table 2 shows the type of questions in the ‘O’ level examination (Gan Wan Yeat, 2005).

**Table 2**

**Structure of Biology ‘O’ Level Exam Paper**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl.No.</th>
<th>Part</th>
<th>Type of question</th>
<th>Total number of questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Part A</td>
<td>Objective</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Part B</td>
<td>Structure</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Part B</td>
<td>Essay</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Research Sample**

In total, 28 students from a secondary school were selected as sample for this study. Out of 28 students, 14 students each were selected as samples for the experimental and control groups. All the sample students belong to medium and potential medium from the secondary school classroom. Of these students only experimental group students were subjected to the ‘N’ theory strategy.

**Implementation**

The study was implemented on two groups of students such as experimental and control groups. Both the groups underwent mid-year examination in the secondary school and the results were taken as Pre-test results. After this, only the experimental group students were involved in the 15 week activities. These activities were based on the chapters in the biology textbook from Form 4 and 5. The students had to attempt all the questions based on the 15 chapters at the rate of one chapter per week for 15 weeks continuously. After attempting the questions, the students have to check their answers with the given sample answers. Based on the ‘N’ theory strategy, teacher’s intrusion is avoided. The students on their own will look up for possible correct answers and explanations. Only when they are unable to understand, they seek the guidance of the teacher. Finally both the groups of students sat for the real ‘O’ level examinations. The results were published in the month of March 2018. The grades scored during the real ‘O’ level examinations were recorded as Post-test results. The details of the pre-test and post-test results are presented in detail.
Results and Discussion

The results of the study, pre-test and post-test results, are tabulated below for further discussion.

Pre-test

Pre-test results that are gotten from the grades of the mid year examination for both the experimental group and the control group are given in Table 3 and Table 4.

Experimental Group

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>A+</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>A-</th>
<th>B+</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C+</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total No of students</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A+, A, A- Distinction
B+, B, B- Strong credit
C+, C, C- Credit
D, E No credit
F Fail

A total of 14 students were involved in the experimental group. Out of 14 students only one student scored A- grade and no one scored B. Further, 1 student scored C, 2 students D, 3 students E and 7 students scored F grade respectively.

Control Group

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>A+</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>A-</th>
<th>B+</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C+</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total No of students</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 14 students were involved in the control group. Out of 14 students 2 students scored C, 2 students D, 2 students E and 7 students scored F grade respectively.

The study identifies that 7 students have scored F grade in both the groups and remaining 7 students have scored lower grades except one in experimental group. This can be seen clearly in the following chart and graph. It is evident from the pre-test results that both the experimental and control groups received similar results.

Chart 1: Pre-test Result of Experimental and Control Group
Activity for Experimental Group

In the pre-test only one student scored ‘A’ grade and no one scored ‘B’ grade. In this context ‘N’ theory strategy was implemented. All the 14 students involved were to discuss and revise the previous 15 years ‘O’ level real question papers. All the 15 years questions were divided according to the chapters found in the Form 4 and 5 textbooks.

In total, there are 15 chapters in the Form 4 and 5 textbooks. Questions related to these 15 chapters are divided and revised in 15 weeks, i.e. the students revised one chapter questions in a week. This activity went on for 15 weeks to complete all the chapter questions.

Post-test

After the completion of the 15 weeks activities, both the group of students sat for the year-end ‘O’ level Biology paper. Their results were collected as post-test results when the results were announced in March of the following year. The results are tabulated in Table 5 and Table 6.

Experimental Group

Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>A+</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>A-</th>
<th>B+</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C+</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total No of students</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In post-test, 14 students were involved in the experimental group. Out of 14 students one student scored A+ grade, 3 scored B+ and 3 scored B grade. Further, 4 students scored D and no students scored F grade.

Control Group

Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>A+</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>A-</th>
<th>B+</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C+</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total No of students</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graf 1: Pre-test Result of Experimental and Control Group
14 students were involved in the control group of post-test. Out of 14 students, 4 students scored C+ grade, 6 scored D, 1 scored E grade and 3 students scored F grade.

The study identifies that all the students of experimental group have scored distinction, strong credit and credit respectively whereas the students from control group have scored only C, D, E and F grades. This shows that the experimental group who underwent the revision of past ‘O’ level questions through ‘N’ theory strategy has improved their grades compared to the control group. This can be seen clearly in the following chart and graph.

**Chart 2: Post-test Result of Experimental and Control Group**

**Graf 2: Post-test Result of Experimental and Control Group**

**Discussion**

The researcher used the ‘N’ theory strategy in between the Pre-test and Post-test for 15 weeks to provide activities for the students of the experimental group. The results of pre-test and post-test of the experimental group have differed according to the grades scored by the individual student. It can also be noticed that post-test results are better when compared with the pre-test results. This is because of the implementation of the strategy of revising the ‘O’ level questions of past 15 years using ‘N’ theory among the students for 15 weeks. It could also be argued that if such a result could be produced, using the ‘N’ theory strategy on students belonging to medium and potential medium category, excellent results can be gotten for the top-notch students by applying the same.
Conclusion

This study was aimed at the students scoring higher grades in the in the ‘O’ Level examination using the concept of ‘N’ theory. The results of the pre-test and post-test clearly pictures the improvement of scoring grades from fail (F) to distinction (A+). The researcher has identified that the ‘N’ theory strategy really worked well within the students of experimental group in this research. No doubt, the students who use ‘N’ theory can score higher grades in the ‘O’ Level examinations. Hence, the researcher recommends to implement the ‘N’ theory strategy among the Form 5 students to score higher grades in their ‘O’ level examination.

References

When is the Integration of Students with Special Educational Needs Successful? - A Good Practice Example - School N.O. Brasov, Romania

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Abstract

The issue of integrating children with special educational needs in mainstream school is still debatable. However, there are situations where the integration of children with special educational needs is successful and all those involved are satisfied. What are the factors that contribute to achieving true integration? Is it about a certain school environment or some teachers? Is it about parent involvement or school leadership? To answer the research question of this study, we have raised the hypothesis that school culture (values, teachers’ perceptions on integration, leadership) determines the success of integration. The goal of this study is to analyse the educational actors’ perceptions (students, teachers, managers and parents) and the school culture which promotes human diversity. The study in question was embedded in a constructivist-interpretivist paradigm, which employed both quantitative and qualitative methods for data collection. A questionnaire regarding students’ and teachers’ perceptions on integration and focus groups were used. A case study of a primary school (School N.O. from Brasov) was conducted. A number of 100 participants were included in the study, teachers, parents and students from primary schools of Brașov. One of the main conclusions of the research is that the integration of children with special educational needs depends on several factors: from the school culture that promotes social values such as tolerance, respect for difference, etc. to teachers directly involved in integration activities and parents who accept and understand the benefits of integration for all children.

Keywords: integration, school culture, children with special educational needs

Introduction

The issue of integrating children with special educational needs in mainstream school is still debatable, because there are several factors which influence the integration. Even though in the past 10 years efforts have been made for inclusion, by promoting educational policies to combat exclusion, there is still no real, complete integration of children with SEN in the mainstream school (Unesco, 2015). This is because the terminology specific to the field of special education (integration, inclusive school, special educational needs, etc.), as Alkahtani (2016) shows, is disputed among researchers and refers to several dimensions of integration / inclusion: some objectives are easier to make and measure, such as physical integration, others, more difficult to identify and achieve, such as psychological / social integration. Also, the pedagogical dimension of integration, which cannot be ignored, is another issue and it’s rather difficult to evaluate. This is reflected in the following types of questions: What type of learning experience really helps students with SEN? Is formal learning the one that ensures integration? What other forms of education impact children with SEN? These questions reflect, in fact, the complexity of the reality that this term describes.

Ainscow et all (2016) show that inclusion is: a process (inclusion has to be seen as a never-ending search to find better ways of responding to diversity); inclusion is concerned with the identification and removal of barriers; inclusion is about the presence, the participation and achievement of all students; inclusion presumes a particular emphasis on those groups of learners who may be at risk of marginalisation, exclusion or underachievement.
If we add all the attitudes towards integration, the cultural specificity of the school society, then we will have a clearer picture of the complexity of the integration issue. There is research (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Newton et all, 2014) which shows that teachers' positive perception of pupils with disabilities or of inclusive education is a determining factor for their classroom behaviour. Attitudes towards the integration of pupils with special educational needs vary according to the type of school, type of disability of the child / pupil, distance from pupils (those who work directly with the pupils or indirectly - administrators, counsellors, etc.). The teacher variables were analysed - age, didactic experience, level of schooling, direct contact with students with disabilities, teacher training, teachers' beliefs / attitudes towards students with disabilities, environment / socio-political context in which the school is set - and which greatly influences the attitude towards pupils with special educational needs.

The Inclusive School Between Social Values and Personal Beliefs

Today, more and more specialists in the field of education (P. Senge 2016, H. Stolovitch, E. Keeps 2017, J. Mezirow 2014, J. Hattie 2014, H. Siebert 2001, etc.) draw attention to the necessity of redefining the place and the role of school in the individuals' lives and in society in order to meet the individuals' needs and the challenges of society. The UNESCO study of 2015 clearly highlights the idea of redefining education from the perspective of a humanistic approach seen as a solution to the challenges of the knowledge, digitized, globalized society: "The ethical and moral principles of a humanistic approach to development stand against violence, intolerance, discrimination and exclusion." (Unesco, 2015, p.10).

What kind of school and what kind of education or learning is it about? What values does this school promote? We believe it is a 21st century, inclusive, postmodern school, tailored to double requirements: on one hand, the social requirements / demands and, on the other hand, the ability to meet students', parents', and teachers' different expectations.

Analysing the definitions of inclusive school, we note the following common characteristics: an inclusive school is a school where all students are welcomed regardless of their gender, ethnicity, socio-economic background or educational need; it's a safe school (children's wellbeing is present); it has a differentiated / personalized curriculum. An inclusive school is a school that promotes the principles of constructivist pedagogy, transformative learning succeeding in creating a meeting space between social values and personal beliefs, according to the following arguments.

Diversity. “Education should celebrate cultural diversity”. (Unesco, 2015, p.67)

An inclusive school promotes diversity in all aspects: human diversity (students, parents and teachers from different ethnic backgrounds, lifestyles, social classes, etc.), cultural diversity, curriculum/pedagogy of diversity. Diversity as a value of postmodern society has a dual implication. On one hand, diversity provides the space for free expression of the differences between individuals; on the other, diversity can give rise to tensions or even violence. School, as a micro-society, is the one that helps us experience diversity in a somewhat securing way. Confronted early with various human typologies, with various problems (from medical to behavioural, social and emotional issues), with different learning styles, with different expectations and mentalities, all educational actors learn (each according to its own style) to understand, accept and promote diversity. Engaging children with SEN in all school activities is a good social exercise that ensures the socio-professional integration of students with SEN. This is a first argument for defining an inclusive school as a postmodern school that understands, supports and promotes diversity.

Positive emotions

Recent studies of neurobiology underline that positive emotions determine effective learning. Children with SEN need even more that secure attachment that conditions learning. Traditional schools were centred on cognitive achievements, leaving behind the socio-emotional development. Nowadays school is trying to change this perspective because there is evidence that affectivity (Cozolino, 2017) is a powerful learning engine. The Finnish school model centred on the appreciation of pupils' happiness and not performance is still proof that positive emotions can ensure a harmonious global development (Walker, 2018). Living positive emotions and experiencing well-being depends on positive relationships with others. Cooperation, collaboration, tolerance, empathy, critical thinking, assertive communication and all social skills and values cannot be formed without being practiced in the various social contexts offered by school. A lot of research points out that an advantage of integration is precisely this social exercise that all those involved in education, from parents to school managers, have to do. This is the second argument to support the idea of inclusive school.
Promote an authentic learning

The third argument relates to the learning process, namely to the learning experiences that make of the postmodern school a 21st century school, an inclusive school. We are talking about a transformative learning supported by the socio-cultural context in which the school is set, promoting an authentic learning that assumes the student’s active involvement in learning, from the cognitive, affective, and motivational points of view, and which is based on solving authentic, day-to-day issues.

Transformative learning - “the process by which we transform problematic reference frameworks (mentalities, mental habits, perspectives on meanings) - sets of assumptions and expectations - to make them more comprehensive, lighter, more reflexive and more capable of affective change” (Mezirow, 2014:168). The integration of children with SEN into mainstream schools, beyond affirming values such as diversity, empathy, cooperation, creates the context of learning through transformation.

A study (Voinea, 2018) demonstrated that non-formal activities through their transformative learning potential may contribute to the promotion of values such as diversity, tolerance and cooperation and illustrate how people with special needs share many common problems and solutions. In fact, non-formal activities (trips, contests, cultural events, etc.) shift the emphasis from the cognitive performance to the social competencies that help children get out of the rigid patterns of formal education and see others from another perspective.

Teacher’s leadership

Last but not least, an inclusive school requires a management that promotes a culture of diversity. It is well-known that teachers’ mentalities determine their teaching behaviour and the quality of their relationships with students. One of the vulnerable points of integration regards precisely those mentalities, attitudes. An important role in creating a climate favourable to inclusion is the managerial team that both through conception and through its own behaviour promotes cooperation, critical thinking, and help offering. The Finnish school model is again relied on to support this idea: “all schools in Finland must set up a student support team consisting of specialists, teachers and school managers who should discuss worrying issues and decide on the best way of approaching them”. (Walker,2018,p.16)

The principle of inclusion helps to change the mind set of teachers, principals and parents because they also go through transformative learning.

All of the arguments presented above support the idea that an inclusive school that has an impact on all those involved in education is a school that is dynamic, open to challenges and responds to the needs of individuals regardless of their status.

School N.O. – an Example of Good Practice for Integration

This research is part of an interdisciplinary project under the aegis of Transylvania University of Brasov, Romania, which aims to develop a training program for support teachers, seen as the key factors in creating an inclusive culture. One of the goals of the project is to identify parents’, teachers’ and students’ perceptions on integration, starting from the premise that one of the main barriers to genuine integration is attitude / mentality.

In our research we analysed a school in Brasov, Romania, which attracted our attention by the way it managed to integrate students with SEN, meaning in a manner very close to the principles of an inclusive school presented above.

Methodology: The goal of this study is to analyse the educational actors’ perceptions (students, teachers, managers and parents) and the school culture which promotes human diversity. The study in question was conducted in a mix methods structure, which employed both quantitative and qualitative methods for data collection, embedded in a constructivist-interpretivist research paradigm. We are interested in deeply understanding specific cases within a particular context. (Patton,2002).

A questionnaire regarding parents’ and teachers' perceptions on integration and focus-groups with students were used. A case study of a primary school (School N.O. from Brasov) was conducted.
This study included a number of 100 participants: a sample of 20 primary school teachers, a sample of 20 secondary school teachers, 20 parents, 20 pupils from primary schools and 20 pupils from secondary school from Brasov.

The questionnaire addressing the parents’ and teachers’ attitudes towards the integration of students with SEN in school included 23 items, on a 5-point Likert-scale (ranging from 1 = to a very small extent, to 5 = to a very large extent), pertaining to attitudes towards the integration of children with SEN in a typical classroom, related to cognitive aspects (Ex: "I believe integration of children with SEN is important"), emotional aspects (Ex: "I am afraid of a child with SEN being in a normal classroom") and behavioural aspects (Ex: "I am willing to participate in training programmes/specific activities regarding the integration of children with SEN")

For the teachers, there was also developed a questionnaire aiming at the cooperation with the support teacher. This questionnaire consist in 5 closed-structured items, using a 5-point Likert scale, pertaining to both behaviour and attitude towards the teacher’s collaboration with the support teacher.

**Discussion:** The institutional analysis of N.O. school addressed the physical / material aspects of the school and the social dimension (of human resources).

From the point of view of the material dimension, N.O. school has three buildings, recently renovated, with educational areas appropriate to students’ age and fitted with the necessary equipment for a modern 21st-century education. In two of the buildings, they teach primary school pupils and in the third one (located 1 km from the other two), they teach the secondary school students. The school is located in an area on the outskirts of the city, in a developing neighbourhood, within a very attractive environment (the area is known for its forests, the nearby lake, the zoological garden and the recreational park).

The buildings where primary school students are taught are arranged in a welcoming, joyful manner specific to pupils in this learning cycle. We note the large spaces in the school yard and especially a garden where the students participating in a project planted trees. The courtyard of the school is full of children’s asphalt drawings; the cardinal points are marked; there are the sports grounds.

The results of projects in which the school participated (national and international projects), since the inauguration of the school, are presented and the guiding values are written on the steps of the school (see photo).

![School values](image.jpg)

**Fig.1 School values (friendship, honesty, tolerance, respect, collaboration, communication, education)**

From the analysis of the physical aspects of N.O. school, we can say that this school creates a good environment for integration, creates a sense of belonging to students (by displaying their results, their products), gives them the chance to manifest their interests (by involving teachers and pupils in many different national and international projects) and promotes values specific to nowadays society.
From the point of view of the human resources, N.O. is a school with 750 pupils in primary and secondary school, 20 primary school teachers, 37 secondary school teachers, a school counsellor, a support teacher, a speech therapist, 12 Integrated children). Children come from various social backgrounds, the middle class being dominant. N.O school is a "typical average" school for Brasov, being neither a prestigious school (centred exclusively on student performance), nor a problem school. We could say that it is a dynamic school where successes come together with various problems. Proof of the success and the openness of teachers for collaboration are the award winning projects (“Friends fur-ever”, 2013; ”Open the gates to the universe”, 2017) that led to receiving the e-twinning school title.

The interview with N.O. school manager (who has 10 years of experience as a manager and 31 years as a teacher) has highlighted the fact that the values promoted through formal school documents and formulated in the school’s mission and vision (school is a non-discriminatory community where students feel protected, respected and motivated for permanent learning) are also present in the teaching behaviour and the relationships with subordinates. The manager herself is involved in projects, supporting her colleagues by her own example. The projects at the county level "How do I feel, how do I behave?"; "Ethno Treasure", "Glorious Past - European Future ", "On Mountain Trails" as well as Erasmus or e-twinning international projects such as "Values and student entrepreneurs" , "My virtu@l friend", "The odd one…IN" target directly or indirectly values such as: integration, cooperation, collaboration, openness to communication, responsible use of media. The common key of all projects is that they work in student-teacher teams and they promotes and exercises social values with direct impact on students, teachers and parents.

It is also worth noting that the school teachers are supported by the school manager to capitalize on the physical environment in which the school is located through formal and non-formal activities in the area where the school is located. (e.g., tourist orientation contests, visits to the zoo, trips, etc.).

Both the physical environment and the social ambiance of the school influence both teachers and students. In this sense, the focus group analysis is significant.

The focus group with primary school pupils highlighted the fact that those in the higher grades (3rd and 4th) understand the issues of students with SEN in a more nuanced way. We present in the table below, the topics identified in the focus group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Identified topics</th>
<th>Grades 1st – 2nd</th>
<th>Grades 3rd – 4th</th>
<th>Grades 5th – 6th</th>
<th>Grades 7th – 8th</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Representations regarding children with SEN</td>
<td>Medical conditions</td>
<td>Medical conditions</td>
<td>Medical conditions</td>
<td>Medical conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learning difficulties</td>
<td>Learning difficulties</td>
<td>Learning difficulties</td>
<td>Learning difficulties</td>
<td>Learning difficulties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Behavioural issues</td>
<td>Social issues (ethnicity, low social status)</td>
<td>Emotional issues (when you lose someone dear or when your parents get a divorce)</td>
<td>Emotional issues (when you lose someone dear or when your parents get a divorce)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Emotions related to children with SEN</td>
<td>Pity</td>
<td>Pity</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sadness</td>
<td>Desire to help</td>
<td>Desire to help</td>
<td>Desire to help</td>
<td>Desire to help</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>People responsible for helping children with SEN</td>
<td>The primary school teacher</td>
<td>The primary school teacher</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>The psychologist</td>
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<td>The psychologist</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Colleagues, Friends</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Proposals / solutions</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>An class to talk</td>
<td>An class to talk</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Inclusion in games</td>
<td>Activities together</td>
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<td>Discussions</td>
<td>(&quot;they about themselves&quot;)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 Topics identified in focus group

By analysing comparatively the topics approached in the focus groups, we notice that the differences of perception, understanding and interpretation of the issues related to the integration of students with SEN in mainstream school are related to several factors:
1. The direct experience with children/people with SEN (children who have experienced life along those in difficulty have a different understanding and acceptance of people with SEN)

2. Participation in formal and non-formal activities on inclusion (pupils in the 3rd and 4th grades declared that they had discussed in the civic education subject matter about "people with disabilities, people who have lost someone dear"; pupils in the 5th and 6th grades gladly remembered the projects made together with children with SEN). Here, the role of school in promoting values and behaviours specific to inclusion is clearly outlined. Of course, non-formal activities such as projects, competitions, cultural events had the greatest emotional impact.

3. Also, the presence of the support teacher and of the school psychologist who work with the pupils is another factor contributing to the formation of certain attitudes regarding children with SEN.

The focus groups have also highlighted certain vulnerabilities, besides the positive aspects related to inclusion:

1. There is still poor perception of people with SEN, with a domination of the medical aspect and the one related to academic performance (the most common description of students/people with SEN is a negative one: "they do not learn", "do not write", "are lazy"). This limited perception is sometimes sustained by the fact that teachers work separately (personalized) with these children, especially for the basic skills of writing and reading, and these children are "taken by the psychologist". The opinion of a second-grade girl is significant: "she, the psychologist, also takes me, but not because I am bad, but to develop."

2. Another weakness identified in the focus groups is linked to insufficient communication with students about integration issues. Children need more discussions with specialized people, who to present them, in an accessible way, various aspects of inclusion. Most of the time, the conversations are with the class teacher, in the primary school or with a teacher (in the secondary cycle) and very rarely with the parents. Most pupils participating in the focus groups appreciated the positive, interesting discussion and expressed their willingness to participate again in such discussions.

The parents' perspective on integration issues completed the interpretation of the data collected by the other methods. Analysing the questionnaires, which had a return rate of 75% in parents, we noticed that parents consider that the responsibility of integrating children with SEN belongs to parents (67%), to pupils with SEN and support teachers, to a very large extent (33%). Also, 80% of parents think, to a large extent and to a very large extent, that integration of children with SEN in mainstream schools means that they will work with typical children in common projects.

Unlike parents, teachers think that integration primarily depends on the support teacher and the school management.

The qualitative analysis of the answers to the questionnaires revealed that parents have a positive attitude towards integration, considering it to be an important, necessary issue, but place the responsibility outside the school, to the parents of children with SEN. The dominant emotions are those of pity, of concern, but too few say they are willing to spend time or money to support integration. The fact that parents see integration as involving children with SEN in common projects with their colleagues is a good thing that reflects changes in perception. We suppose that this change is also due to the children's projects developed in school, where parents were involved as well. However, there are still some changes to be made, as we noticed, according to the questionnaire answers, a discrepancy between what they feel and what they would be willing to do.

Teachers also have a positive attitude and they believe that integration is largely dependent on the support teacher, the school management and the group of pupils in which the child with SEN is integrated. The positive attitude can be explained by the fact that teachers know better the reality of integration and some of them have had this experience.

The teachers' positive attitude is influenced by the fact that they have had a very good collaboration with the support teacher. The proof that this collaboration is good is also the fact that the support teacher is known by all the teachers of the school, not only by those who work directly with him. The support teacher is always present in school (he does not have many schools in his didactic norm, as is the case in most schools in Brasov) and is involved in school projects. This is actually the key of the success of integration in this school.

By synthesizing the answers to the questionnaire, the analysis of the focus groups with children, interviewing the manager, we can presume that there is a contamination of attitudes from parents and teachers to children - something that is
noticeable especially at the level of emotions. There is generally a positive attitude towards the integration of children with SEN, which can be explained by several factors:

- The existence of children with SEN in school fact which fosters the social exercise of understanding and accepting the other,
- Availability of teaching staff to work in a personalized manner, to collaborate with the management team and with the support teacher,
- Effective involvement of the support teacher, the counsellor and the speech therapist in various school activities,
- The manager’s and teachers’ involvement in projects on integration (at different school levels),
- Exploiting the potential of the area and the community in organizing non-formal activities with a transformative impact on all students and teachers.

4. Conclusions

Although the research carried out has the constraints specific to the constructivist-interpretative approach, where the truth is built through the dialogue between the participants and the researchers, from the adjustment of the perspectives and the impossibility of generalizing the conclusions, we can state, based on the presented case study, that a school promoting a culture of inclusion creates the premises of changing attitudes. We can presume that the integration of children with special educational needs depends on several factors: from the school culture that promotes social values such as tolerance, respect for difference, etc. to teachers directly involved in integration activities and parents who accept and understand the benefits of integration for all children.

This research is a starting point for a broader research that aims to compare different types of school culture and to investigate the relationship between school culture and the attitudes towards integration of all involved.

References


Moving on the Chain: Push-Pull Factors Affecting the Migration of Laotian Workers to Udon Thani, Thailand

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Abstract

The tendency of migration of Lao workers to Thailand is likely to increase especially migration pattern is social network. The objective of this research was to study factors effecting the migration through social network of Laotian workers in Udon Thani. Qualitative research method was applied in the study. Unit of analysis was group level. In-depth interview guideline was applied to collect data from 15 Laotian workers. The research site was Udon Thani, Thailand. Participatory observation and non-participatory observation were use for additional data collection. The ATLAS.ti programme was applied to categorize data, and data analysis was based on the content analysis method. The research results showed that the crucial push factors which contributed migration among Laotian workers included Udon Thani Unemployment in residency, and low revenue in residency and important pull factors include higher compensation, worker demand of establishments in Udon Thani province, Laotian employers' values in Udon Thani, and social network of Laotian workers in destination.

Keywords: Social Network, Migration, Push factors, Pull factors, Laotian workers

Introduction

Labour migration is a global phenomenon which has been observed over the world. Tendency of labour migration has been increasing due to the development of socio-economics and advancement of technology (IMU, 2008). In Southeast Asia, labour migration occurs due to a different rate of economic development in ASEAN countries. Burma is the country where send the most workers to destination countries, followed by Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Thailand, the Philippines, and Vietnam respectively. Here, Brunei, Singapore, Malaysia, and Thailand are counted as the destination country. It is to say that labour migration in Southeast Asian Region is an output of economic development of ASEAN countries (Chamaratana, 2016).

Thailand has been considered as origin country and destination country (Chamaratana et al, 2554), since economic change of Thailand in past decades boosted economic growth in Thailand. A huge number of development project has been settled up in Thailand especially development project on infrastructure facilities and industrial sector. Those conditions has caused the flow of labour migration in Thailand. In addition, Thailand currently is becoming the aging society, and it resulted in a decrease of working-aged people. In addition, the working-aged people seems not to work as workers due to higher education they received. This circumstance tends to be contrast with current country’s economic which is growing and need more unskilled workers to serve industry (Kulkolkarn, 2010).

Udon Thani is a city located in northeastern region of Thailand. Udon Thani nowadays is growing rapidly due to the growth of economics. According to statistics of Udon Thani Economics (2013), the provincial economic revenue of Udon Thani is 8.5 billion Baht (257.5 million USD), GDP is 52,000 Baht/year (1,575.76 USD/year), total loan is 6.3 billion Baht (190.9 million USD), and total deposit of 4.9 billion Baht (148.5 million USD). Economic growth rate is increasing 5 % comparing to year 2008, and 100% comparing to year 2003 (The Udon Thani Provincial Office of The Comptroller General, 2013).
massive economic growth rate offers a huge number of employment slot in Udon Thani However, it appears that number of unskilled workers in Udon Thani is insufficient due to the fact that many Thai workers have their own lands so that they prefer doing agriculture in their own lands to working in some unskilled jobs. These are reasons why Udon Thani needs migrant workers to serve economic sector. (Thongyou and Ayuwat, 2005)

Udon Thani located 70 Kilometers away from Vientiane capital of Lao PDR, and there are international bus that serve passengers travelling from Udon Thani to Vientiane capital. Moreover, people from those two cities have shared same culture. They have similar language and traditions. These conditions encourage a number of Lao worker moving to work in Udon Thani through their social networks, which are labour broker network and their relatives (Chamaratana, 2010). Migration through social network is necessary for Laotian migrants in order to ensure security during they are working abroad such as jobs, housing, and etc. Moreover, social network reduces risk on migration, such as human trafficking, exploitation by employers, etc. (Chamaratana et al, 2011).

As mentioned earlier, research question has been set up to explore what are factors encouraging migration through social network of Laotian migrant workers in Udon Thani. Findings of the study are advantage to governmental organizations and private organizations that are working on migrant workers to cope with an increasing of migration circumstance practically. That let us to research objective as to investigate factors encouraging migration through social network of Lao labour in Udon Thani, Thailand.

Conceptual Framework Development

This paper investigated factors encouraging migration through social network of Laotian migrant workers in Udon Thani. The study applied academic concepts including 1) Migration, which explores meaning of migration and factors influencing on migration, and 2) Social Network, which describes meaning of social network as following details.

Migration; a concept of migration refers to the movement from one place to another place. International migration means the movement of people across state or country’s boundary. Purposes of the movement are to settle permanently at destination areas, or look for jobs. In addition, migration can be made legally and illegally (Applyard, 1992).

Everett S. Lee (1996) describes factors that influenced on migration. Migration consists of four elements including 1) push factor; which is factor that forces migrants to move out of origin area, 2) pull factor; is factor that encourages migrants moving to destination area. 3) Intervening of sets of obstacles, which is the condition, such as law, that obstructs migrants to move to another places, and 4) personal factor that causes decision of migration. Personal factors appears differently among migrants.

This paper aims to investigate push factors and pull factors, which are important factors of the migration, and it is essential to explain migration circumstance of Laotian migrant workers in Thailand.

Social Network; is an interrelationship among individuals, groups, or organizations, who share same goals, rules, and resources together. Functions of social network also coordinate and create interrelationships to each other through mindset of individuals and activities that individuals do together. In addition, interaction of social networks relate to roles of individuals within the network (Niratrom, 2000; Niyomna et al, 2009; Chamaratana, 2011).

Moreover, social network can be considered as another type of collaboration among people within the network, and it is useful to analyze behavior of people. Social network is a social phenomenon that expresses social relations among individuals (Ponpanatham et al, 2010; Chamaratana, 2011).

Therefore, the definition of social network is applied to the study to explain factors encouraging migration through social network of Laotian migrant workers in Udon Thani as a figure below (see figure 1).
This paper applied qualitative methodological approach to the study, and unit of analysis was group level. Key informants consisted of fifteen Laotian migrant workers who immigrated to Udon Thani, Thailand, legally and illegally through their social networks. Criteria of key informants including 1) key informants must be Laotian migrant workers, 2) they must work in Udon Thani. 3) They used social network as a mechanism to assist moving to Udon Thani, 4) key informants were experienced in recruiting other Laotian migrant workers to work in Udon Thani, and 5) they all are in the same social network. In-depth interview, participatory observation, and non-participatory observation were used as research tool. For in-depth interview, we use interview guide which content validity approved by two experts.

Data collection started with contacting employers in Udon Thani. We introduced ourself to employers, and explained research objective to employers. Thus, researcher asked for permission to employers to collect research data from Laotian migrant workers. Once researcher and Laotian migrant workers met each other, researcher made appointment with Laotian migrant workers to interview on later date.

Data analysis was made briefly during the interview, and it would be analyzed carefully based on conceptual framework of the study after the interview. Data, thus, was categorized and analyzed by the ATLAS.ti platform. In addition, analytical description was used to present research findings.

Findings

This paper presented empirical findings in three topics including 1) characteristics of Laotian migrant workers in Udon Thani, 2) push factors of Laotian migrant workers in Udon Thani, and 3) pull factors of Laotian migrant workers in Udon Thani.

Characteristics of Laotian migrant workers in Udon Thani

Most Laotian migrant workers who worked in Udon Thani is female worker. Interviewed Laotian migrant workers consisted of nine female workers and six male workers, who aged between 18 to 30 years old. Most of them did not graduate junior high school because they were poor and their families could not support education expense for them. Laotian migrant workers experienced in migration 2-5 times averagely. Agriculture, self-employed job, and industrial jobs were prior occupations before they moved to work in Udon Thani. Since they were in Udon Thani, five of them worked at noodle restaurant, five of them worked at livestock farms, and another five worked at Som Tam (Papaya Salad – the favorite local food) restaurant. In addition, it was found that most of Laotian migrant workers came from the same community.

Push factors of Laotian migrant workers in Udon Thani

2.1 Unemployment in Lao PDR

Laotian migrant workers who migrated through social networks to work in Udon Thani, most of them did not work on a regular basis. Their works mostly based on agricultural tasks, which operated on seasonal basis such as in wet season (eg. rice cultivation), or harvesting in winter season. However, in off-season, they were unemployed, so it resulted in financial insecurity of the families. They did not have sufficient income to support all family members, while the cost of living in Laos is high.
To solve this problem, Laotian migrant workers tried to look for jobs near their own communities. Some of them got a short-contracted job, while some of them were getting a job in factories, which were located near Vientiane capital. Although they got higher income from those jobs, they had to pay other expenses such as travelling, meals, accommodation, etc. Therefore, they did not have much money for savings. They had only money to spend in each day.

When their social networks encouraged them to work in Udon Thani, Thailand. Those who interested in would ask about job details, income, and lifestyle in Udon Thani as Mr. Tong said for example;

“Once I finished rice cultivation, I stayed at home and had nothing to do. My friends who have worked at Udon Thani came to my house. He convinced me to work together at Udon Thani. I firstly consulted with my parents, and they were okay if I agreed to work. Therefore, I decided going with my friend because I trusted him. My friend and I knew each other very well for a long time. I then went to governmental bureau to get the passport” (interviewed on September 18, 2017)

Unemployment in Lao PDR is one of major factors contributing the migration, and the social network that they had at Udon Thani functioned the migration as a supporter in which encouraged Laotian migrant workers to work at Udon Thani easier. In this case, social network was presented as his friends who encouraged Lao worker with information about income they would get in Udon Thani.

2.2 Low income in Lao PDR

Low income is a crucial issue that directly affected livelihoods of Lao families. Background of Lao families mostly based on agricultural activity. They were poor and lived in rural area. Financial issue was a primary issue that caused education problem of young family members. When families could not have sufficient income, their family members could not attend higher education. Many of Lao children have to leave school to work for families.

The study found that when migrant workers stayed at their homes, they did not have regular income. They did agricultural tasks which provided low income to families. Moreover, they also faced with a circumstance of low production price and natural disaster such as drought and flood. Some years they only had agriculture products to consume within the household, the evidence example as Ms. Dee mentioned.

“Once I stayed at home, I did rice farming. I had sufficient rice for livings. However, some years my rice field was flooded, and I did not have rice to eat. Sometime I had to ask my relative for rice. I also grew vegetables, but it provided small amount of income. I got few money in each month” (interviewed September 18, 2017)

Due to those reasons, families of Laotian migrant worker were not able to generate sufficient incomes. This became a reason that pushed them to work outside community in order to support families. Some went to work in the factory, while some worked at restaurants in Vientiane capital.

In conclusion, low income and poverty among Lao families is a crucial factor that influenced on migration. Laotian migrant workers had to work outside their hometown to support their families. When they accumulated sufficient income, some of them would return their home. They would change occupation to improve the quality of life of the families.

Pull factors of Laotian migrant workers in Udon Thani

3.1 Higher income

Income is the first factor that Laotian migrant workers concern when they migrated to work in Udon Thani, since they needed more incomes to support family expenses at origin area, for instance, living expenses, education expense, etc. the evidence example as Mr. D mentioned.

“Firstly I heart that working in Udon Thani was a well-paid option. You easily got at least THB 9,000 each month, or you could get THB 300 daily. It is hard to find such a well-paid job in Laos. It is impossible for those who did not graduate school to get a good job” (interviewed September 18, 2017)

Laotian migrant workers decided working in Thailand because of higher wage, and they did not pay too much for living expenses because they had relatives or colleagues, who previously worked in Thailand, took care of them during they are working in Thailand. It resulted in Laotian migrant workers had much remittance to send to their households, the evidence example as MS. A said.
“It is reasonable for migrants to get THB 9,000. Moreover, you can stay with employers. Employers normally provide accommodation to Laotian migrant workers. You can save money as much as you could. If you work in Laos, you get THB 5,000, and you had to pay for accommodation. It is difficult to save money” (interviewed September 18, 2017)

According to statement above, Laotian migrant workers compared wage between Laos and Thailand. They concluded that working in Thailand could be better than working in Laos. Many of them, thus, decided migrating to Thailand. Income they got in Udon Thani was between THB 8,000-12,000. Most of Laotian migrant workers worked at restaurants and livestock farms. Employers would offer free accommodation and meals. Laotian migrant workers spent some money for personal expenses, and a large portion of the wage would be sent to their families in Laos. Comparing to the factory job in Laos, workers would get monthly THB 3,000-4,000. It was impossible to save money, since they had to pay for accommodation, meals, and travelling cost.

3.2 Worker demand in Udon Thani

Udon Thani currently has been facing with labour shortage especially unskilled worker. Many unskilled workers were working in agricultural sector, but there were a huge number of job available in service sector. Therefore, it was an opportunity for Laotian migrant workers to find job in Udon Thani. Working in Udon Thani was not difficult for Laotian migrant workers, since people in those two countries shared similar culture such as language, tradition, etc. Moreover, Udon Thani located not far from Thai-Lao border, and there were convenient transportation system to serve people from two countries, such as international bus or train.

Due to those reasons, it caused number of Laotian migrant workers living in Udon Thani was higher than migrant workers from other GMS countries. Moreover, employment demand in agricultural sector, service sector, and industrial sector are still high, and it resulted in vary jobs available for Laotian migrant workers, the evidence example as Ms.Koy mentioned.

“Previously the shop I worked for was small. There were only two workers. Later, the business was growing. The owner decided expanding the shop, and he needed more workers. I then took my brother from Laos to work together” (interviewed November 29, 2017)

Economic growth in Udon Thani caused more job positions, but domestic workers could not support employment demand. Therefore, Laotian migrant workers were option for employers especially on the jobs that Thai workers considered as dirty job, hard job, and low-paid job.

3.3 Employment trends on Lao worker among employers in Udon Thani

Thai employers preferred Laotian migrant workers to Thai workers because Laotian migrant workers would be diligent, and the wage was lower than Thai worker’s wage. Almost Laotian migrant workers had only one purpose in Thailand. They wanted to make money as much as they could. When they had enough money, they would back home and started small business. Therefore, Laotian migrant workers would work very hard to make money. This was different from Thai workers. Thai workers had more chances to choose jobs. They might change jobs immediately once they found new opportunity. This was why labour shortage became a major issue in Udon Thani, the evidence example as Ms.C said.

“My boss said she don’t want to hire Thai workers because Thai workers always come to work late, and they have many requirement of working. They can’t work hard. It’s different from Laotian migrant workers.” (interviewed September 18, 2017)

Moreover, some Thai employers preferred hiring Laotian migrant workers due to low wage paid. Wage of Laotian migrant workers was lower than Thai worker’s wage. Employers would like to recall Laotian migrant workers, who were in their labour network, to work with them again once labour shortage arose as Ms. A said.

“At that time the shop needed more workers. My employer asked me to work at his shop again because I was ex-employee at his shop. We had a contact each other such as Facebook, or Line. I had nothing to do in Laos, so I said okay. Another reason is; my boss contacts me directly. He said he really wanted me to work for him. I appreciated him” (interviewed September 18, 2017)

According to information above, it is concluded that Thai employers in Udon Thani, who had ever hired Laotian migrant workers, preferred Laotian migrant workers to Thai workers. Moreover, there was an encouragement of migration among
Laotian migrant workers. Laotian migrant workers would be rewarded by Thai employers once they recruited Laotian migrant workers to work for Thai employers during labour shortage circumstance.

3.4 Social network of Laotian migrant workers in Udon Thani

Social network is another factor that influenced on migration. Laotian migrant workers used advantage from their own social network to help working in Udon Thani. Social network performed through kin relationship. Laotian migrant workers normally convinced their relative to work in Udon Thani, and they would prepare travelling details for the new comers, the evidence example as Ms.A reported.

“I allowed him to prepare my travelling. When he had completed everything, he and I made appointment to go to Udon Thani. I asked him to pick me up at my house because I never go to Udon Thani. He came to my house, and crossed the border. I worked immediately when I arrived Udon Thani. He would introduce me to others, and advise me to work” (interviewed September 18, 2017)

Social network is a mechanism to ensure that migration to work in Udon Thani would be smoothly. Laotian migrant workers decided moving to work because they trusted persons who were in social network, mostly were their relatives. Moreover, Laotian migrant workers would be safe if they came to work with their relatives. They would be safe from human trafficking or exploitation.

Social network is another pull factor which influenced on migration. Social network would have major impact on migrant workers, since most of social networks of Laotian migrant workers were relative each other, such as siblings, or close friends. This was a reason why Laotian migrant workers had confidence in migration, and they made a decision to migrate easily.

In conclusion, both push factors and pull factors are influenced on migration of Laotian migrant workers. Push factors consist of unemployment in Lao PDR, and low income in Lao PDR. While pull factors consist of higher income in Udon Thani, worker demand in Udon Thani, and employment trends among Thai employers. Thai employers prefer Laotian migrant workers to Thai workers because Laotian migrant workers are diligent, and they share similar culture such as language. In addition, the wage paid to Laotian migrant workers is lower than Thai worker’s wage, and social network is a mechanism to ensure safety during they are working in Udon Thani.

Conclusion and Recommendation

Push factors that influenced on migration of Lao worker consist of two causes including 1) unemployment in Lao PDR, and 2) low income in Lao PDR. This result is supported by Suwicha (2008), Laosai (2012), and Wannahong (2016) who suggested that push factors of migration in Laos are poverty and high unemployment rate in Laos. Those migrants are considered as surplus labour who are not able to find jobs in Laos. While pull factors consist of conditions including 1) higher income in Udon Thani, 2) worker demand in Udon Thani, 3) employment trends among Thai employers, and 4) social network of Laotian migrant workers in Udon Thani. These conditions are supported by Suwicha (2008), and JungJing (2016) who suggested that high employment wage in Thailand is a priority that convinces Laotian migrant workers come to work in Thailand, while employment availability and social network are important as well. Wannahong (2016) also suggested that decision of migrating to Thailand has been made easily when Laotian migrant workers have their networks at destination country. Friend, neighbors, or relatives who have moved to Thailand earlier would facilitate the new comers, and encourage them to live in Thailand smoothly.

The research result show that effect from social network contribute to the decision to migrate more. So that, Department of employment ministry of labour, Thailand deserving has measures receive migration from social network. When it was discovered that Laotian migrant workers has migration with relatives who used tourist passports to doubt beforehand that is migrating to work. And signing a letter of intent to work and then came the registration of labor later.

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Reference


The Path of Standard Albanian Language Formation

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Abstract

In our paper we will talk about the whole process of standardization of the Albanian language, where it has gone through a long historical route, for almost a century. When talking about standard Albanian language history and according to Albanian language literature, it is often thought that the Albanian language was standardized in the Albanian Language Orthography Congress, held in Tirana in 1972, or after the publication of the Orthographic Rules (which was a project at that time) of 1967 and the decisions of the Linguistic Conference, a conference of great importance that took place in Pristina, in 1968. All of these have influenced chronologically during a very difficult historical journey, until the standardization of the Albanian language. Considering a slightly wider and more complex view than what is often presented in Albanian language literature, we will try to describe the path (history) of the standard Albanian formation under the influence of many historical, political, social and cultural factors that are known in the history of the Albanian people. These factors have contributed to the formation of a common state, which would have, over time, a common standard language. It is fair to think that "all activity in the development of writing and the Albanian language, in the field of standardization and linguistic planning, should be seen as a single unit of Albanian culture, of course with frequent manifestations of specific polycentric organization, either because of divisions within the cultural body itself, or because of the external imposition" (Rexhep Ismajli, "In Language and for Language ", Dukagjini, Peja, 1998, pp. 15-18.)

Keywords: formation and development of the Albanian Standard Language, Albanian culture, the history of Albanian people

Introduction

The whole process of the standardization of the Albanian language has gone through a long historical path, for nearly a century. When talking about the history of the standard Albanian language and according to the Albanian language literature, it is often thought that the Albanian language is standardized in the Albanian Language Orthography Congress, held in Tirana in 1972, or after the publication of the Orthographic Rules in 1967 (which was a project at that time), and the Linguistic Conference decisions, which was of great importance, held in Pristina in 1968. All of these have influenced chronologically alongside a very difficult historical journey, to the standardization of the Albanian language.

Considering a slightly wider and more complex look than what is often presented in Albanian language literature, we will try to describe the path (history) of the formation of standard Albanian language under the influence of many historical, political, social and cultural factors that are known in the history of the Albanian people. These factors have contributed to the formation of a common state, which would have, over time, even a common standard language. It is fair to think that "all activity in the development of writing and the Albanian language, and therefore in the field of standardization and linguistic planning, should be seen as a single unit of Albanian culture, of course with frequent manifestations of specific polycentric organization, either because of divisions within the cultural body itself, or because of external impositions."

In chronological order during the historical development of standard Albanian, this development is closely related to the attempt to unite the alphabet with the "Society for the Publication of Albanian Writings" of Istanbul (1879) and continues

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1 Institut i Albanologjisë, Kongresi i Drejtshkrimit të Gjuhës Shqipe, Pristina, 1974, f. 95.
with the gathering of "the Union" of Shkodra¹ (1899) out of which came out three important alphabets: the one of Istanbul, the Arbëresh (1895 and 1897) and that of "the Union" of Shkodra. All of these collective efforts have been finalized in the second phase of this stage: at the Congress of Manastir (1908) from which the present alphabet came out, which would be put into the base of the standardization of the Albanian language at Shkodra’s Literary Commission (1916-1917) and later in the Albanian Language Orthography Congress in 1972.

The unification of the Albanian language orthography, planned at the Congress of Manastir, was initially accomplished in the period of World War I, at the Albanian Literary Commission of Shkodra in 1916-17. In this important event, the standardized Albanian language was born for the first time in the history of the Albanian people; its norm was based on Elbasan variant, which functioned for several decades. This standardized language had a proper orthography published, which served with great success for all those who wanted to respect it in writing and speaking.

It should be noted that this literary variant was used after World War II, in Kosovo and Macedonia as the only spoken and written norm of the Albanian literary language, until the Orthography Congress (1972), but also had a slightly wider basis and included linguistic elements of other Gheg variants (especially of Kosovar, Debar etc.).

The standardized language at Shkodra’s Literary Commission did not spread in the entire Albanian language terrain. In the southern part of Albania there was still functioning a variant of the literary Tosk. Perhaps, this could be due to the fact that the vast majority of the participants in the Literary Commission of Shkodra were citizens of Shkodra. Even Shkodra’s representatives did not apply the norm of the standard language of the Albanian Literary Commission of Shkodra, because in the daily practice they kept the variant of literary Shkodra.

Most literary languages in the early stages of their historical development have had literary variants. But in cases of the literary language where there are variants that have not had any differences between them, they have ended in a single form of standard language. This can happen in standard homogeneous languages, spoken and written by homogenous nations.

However, when speaking of written Albanian dialects, they appear in the first written documents of this language, such as "The Baptismal Formula" (1462) and Von Harfif’s Dictionary (1497), which are of the literary variant of Gheg, while the "Gospel of Easter" of St. Matthew, which belongs to the end of the 15th century, comes out in the literary variant of Tosk. Nevertheless, the clearest and most complete differences of Albanian literary variants emerge in the second half of the 16th century. Buzuku wrote his "Meshar" in the variant of literary Gheg, while the work of Lekë Matrënga, "Embsuame e krështerë”, is written in the variant of the literary Tosk.

Later, in the 19th and 20th centuries on the basis of this literary variant, another variant would be formed. Less widely spread functioned the literary variant based on the Elbasan’s variant, which is known as the variant of the middle Gheg. This form was chosen because they tried to find a middle of both dialects in the entire Albanian speaking territory, where it was located the Elbasan.

It is well known that the variant of Elbasan with its orthographic rules foresaw the preservation of non emphasized vowel ë in all the positions of the word, just as it also emerged in the literary variant of Tosk. In the period of Zog I’s government, it was accepted and proclaimed as an official language of Albania by decree in the 1923 Official Gazette, since it had previously been accepted by the Lushnja Educational Congress, eventually receiving the standardized language seal². However, the Albanian Government of Post-Liberation ignored this completely by sending orders from its top authorities so that all the schools in Albania use the ABC-book of the literary tosk variant³.

It is known that the northern variant of literary Gheg or literary variant of Shkodra has a history a bit earlier than other variants, distinguishing it from "Meshari" (this is mentioned by B. Beci in "For the dialect affiliation of" Meshari ", Seminari XVIII, p. 393) from the other authors of that time. Also, Shkodra’s variety was followed as a literary variant at the time of the Albanian National Renaissance in the works of Gjergj Fishta, Filip Shiroka, Ndre Mjeda, and other writers of Shkodra.

¹ Alfabeti i shoqërisë "Agimi" të Shkodrës, është rezultat i punës individuale të Ndre Mjedës.
² Shih F. Raka, Historia e shqipes letrare, Prishtinë 1997, f. 182.
These characteristics of literary variety of Shkodra can be found in the language texts and in the other writings of A. Xanon, Justin Rrotës, in the Dictionary of "the Union" of Shkodra, etc. After the end of the Second World War, the use and value of the variety of Shkodra started to fade, especially when it became the standardization of the literary norm.

However, the former variants of Albanian, as well as their dialects, always remain a precious treasure for enriching the standard Albanian language\(^1\).

As will be discussed below, in linguistic terms, the source of this phenomenon is found in the fact that both literary variants of Albanian were based on the source of everyday language and in the Albanian dialect language.

**The effort of National Renaissance for Standard Albanian:** The treatment of standard Albanian began since the Albanian National Renaissance period, dating from the second half of the 19th century. The interest in the writing of literary Albanian began with various articles published in the magazines of that time. The national conscience began to rise for a language that is written in Albanian, with propaganda not to write about the interests of foreign states of Istanbul, Athens, Vatican and various Balkan centers who tried to prevail in our country through their language and writings.

However, it influenced the rulers of that time in the anti-Albanian propaganda from Ottoman long rule, where they did not allow publishing magazines and newspapers in Albanian, not even in Albanian speaking territory. This helped our Renaissance people in the further development of the Albanian literary language against anti-Albanian propaganda. Various magazines and newspapers began to be published in other European countries, such as Romania, Bulgaria, Italy etc. During the Renaissance, many different magazines were published in Albanian and other European languages, even in Arabic\(^2\), run by patriotic societies, private persons, religious political organizations etc.

The first Albanian newspaper is "The Albanian of Italy" (L'albanese d'Italia), which was directed by De Rada in 1848, the newspaper "Peliazgu" in 1860 by the Greek arbëresh Anastas Byku, the newspaper "Prizren" in 1871-74 in Prizren, as well as the newspaper "Kosovo" in Pristina in 1877-88, in Pristina (both of them were published in Turkish and Serbian)\(^3\). Other papers were also published, which devoted special importance to the protection and development of the Albanian literary language such as "Fjamuri i Arbërit" (1883-1887) and "Drita-Dituria" (1884).

The newspaper of A. Kulluriot was entirely in the service of Albanians to protect and develop Albanian literary language. This newspaper made a fiery propaganda against Greeks saying that "The Albanian language was not capable of being written and serving the national idea of freedom"\(^4\) The newspaper countered with great skill against this propaganda, where the issue of Albanian language and education was protected with much love and patriotism.

In addition, there was another magazine "Albania", which was published in Brussels and London during 1897-1909, led by one of the most important national Renaissance personalities, Faik Konica. This magazine had as a special purpose the unification of the Albanian literary language from the foreign elements that prevailed at that time. There were discussed the problems of uniting the Albanian alphabet, the spelling of literary Albanian, the theoretical treatment of Albanian orthography by many well-known authors of this period such as: Konica, Gurakuqi, Xhuvani, Logoreci and others\(^5\).

As noted above, other European countries where the National Renaissance magazines and newspapers were published were Romania and Bulgaria. In Bucharest was the newspaper "Albania" in 1897-99\(^6\), where it played a very important role for education and raising the national awareness of the Albanians. It also contributed to the unification of the alphabet of the Albanian language. It should be mentioned that it was the newspaper that used the Latin alphabet during the whole time of its publication.

The issue of the common literary language also appeared in "Dituria" that was in Thessaloniki in 1909. It can be said that during the Albanian National Renaissance a greater awareness of all Albanians was achieved to see the acceleration of

\(^{1}\) Shih M. Samara, *Roli i dialekteve të shqipes për zhvillimin e normës letrare në fushë të leksikut*, Konferenca shkencore "Gjuha letrare kombëtare dhe bota shqiptare sof", Tiranë 2002, f. 333.


\(^{3}\) Po aty.

\(^{4}\) Po aty.

\(^{5}\) M. Blaku, *Rreth trajtimit të gjuhës letrare në organet e shtypit të Rilindjes*, Seminari 4, f. 183.

the liberation of Albanian lands from the Ottomans, Greeks etc, as well as the issue of a very valuable importance that we can boast with this period of development of the unity for a common Albanian literary language.

Among the first and old sources of Albanian dialect in Kosovo, written and published for the first time in their discourse, was the work of Pjetër Bogdani written in Padua, Italy in 1685. So, from that time are preserved the tracks of the old Kosovar, especially in the phonetic aspect (the change of the consonant cluster kl, gl in the k, e, g, a quality that shows and confirms the age of a phenomenon of the Albanian variant in Kosovo). Also a not too long time after Bogdani, in Albanian language is also the writing of the Gjakovar Nikollë Kazazi, who in 1743 published "The Christian Doctrine" in Rome, where in the absence of full material, a short fragment was found where, apart from the diphthong ou, usually encountered u, it has no great value for Albanian language. With the death of Kazazi, ends the literary activity of the old Albanian authors where there was a long pause of Gheg dialect writing.

The first place based on antiquity takes “Vehbija” of Tahir Efendi Gjakova, which was written in 1835, published in Istanbul. Always with this Arabic-Turkish alphabet, at the end of the century (1900), a mevlud was written by the author Tahir Efendi Popova (from Popovë of Vushtrri). Later it was discovered in the field of literature and with this alphabet, Sheh Maliq of Rahovec.

The Congress of Manastir - an important event for a common Albanian language: The awareness of Albanians of this period continued to grow even more. Different political events in the Ottoman Empire further influenced the development of patriotic activities for the opening of schools in Albanian language. A task of great national, scientific and political importance was also the issue of forming a common alphabet, which started to grow in this period.

The efforts to organize a congress at the national level in order to see and reach a unified conclusion of the alphabet issue in the interest of all Albanians were becoming numerous. The initiative was taken by the "Union" club of Manastir, which in its meeting of August 23, 1908 decided to organize a congress aimed "to end this great need for the unification of all Albanians in one language". This congress was attended by many representatives from all the countries where Albanians lived, there was a total of 50 delegates, representatives of 23 societies of Albanian clubs, while the right to vote was accepted only to 32 people. Participants were newspaper directors, writers and linguists, National Renaissance veterans, and delegated from different cities where Albanians lived. It lasted for nine days, while the interest was quite large, where about 400 people participated in the plenary session. Through the discussions, unique stands were achieved for the national alphabet for all Albanians. In addition, in these plenary sessions were approved important decisions, such as:

a) It was supported the idea that the base of the next alphabet of the Albanian language would exclusively be the Latin alphabet;

b) The congress chose an 11-member Committee or Commission that would decide on the Albanian alphabet, while congressional participants vowed to accept the decisions of the Congress Committee.

The congress would look at the Latin letters for the alphabet of the Albanian language, because those three alphabets that were in circulation had small graphic changes of sounds, which Latin language does not have, but they were in Albanian. The committee would select one of these three existing options:

1. Take one of the three alphabets that were most prevalent in Istanbul, the "Union" or "Agim" of Shkodra with or without any changes, as they were until then;

2. Create an alphabet with the elements of the three systems, merging the three alphabets into one;

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2 Mahir Domi, Alfabeti i gjuhës shqipe dhe Kongresi i Manastirit, f. 7.
3. Create a new alphabet, regardless of the alphabets that existed and were used until then. The Commission decided to create a new alphabet, thus complying with the third point. There were many discussions especially for letters that Latin did not have (dh, gj, nj, ll, rr, ê, y, sh, th et.j). After nine days of work, the Congress of Manastir successfully completed the work on November 22, 1908 and entered the history of Albanian culture as the Congress that decided to unify the alphabet of the Albanian language. It was a victory of special importance to the entire Albanian people, from the Albanian National Renaissance period to the present, helping to establish a common Albanian literary language. As professor Rrokaj rightly states, this Congress finally gave the Albanians the Latin alphabet by turning them towards the West, removing them from the clutches of the Turks and territorial greed of the neighbors. Language and blood this binominal DNA of our nation.

The Albanian Literary Commission of Shkodra (1916-17): After the Congress of the Manastir for the designation of the Latin alphabet, it was thought that another convention would be held, but this time it would be devoted to the orthography of the Albanian language.

However, after many events that occurred in that period, such as the liberation from the Ottoman Empire, the First World War, and considering also the invasion of northern and middle Albania by Austro-Hungary, in order not to further make Albanians angry, decided to give some rights to Albanians for their national affair. In the framework of these rights, the Austro-Hungarian conqueror allegedly attempted to solve the issue of the common nationwide Albanian language, so they sent scientific staff from the Vienna Academy of Sciences and organized the Albanian Literary Commission of Shkodra, which was led by the Albanian linguist dr. Gjergj Pekmezci. In Shkodra Albanian Literary Commission were outstanding fighters and workers of well-known Albanian culture: L.Gurakuqi, N.Mjeda, A.Xhuvani, M.Logoreci, S.Peci, H.Mosi, Gj.Fishta, A. Marlaskaj, N.Paluc and others. There were participants also two foreign Albanians: Rajko Nahtigal and Maksimilian Lamberc, the first one is from Graz of Austria and the second one from Vienna.

Albanian Literary Commission of Shkodra, which operated for a year with irregular interruptions, arrived on January 3, 1917 to announce its decisions in Shkodra. The orthography of this committee marked an important step for the structure of the word, while maintaining the full structure was also approved for the use of vowel groups of the type ie, ue, ye (diell, miell (flour), mësue (learn), punue (work), lye (paint), fyell (flute) etc.

- It was specifically mentioned the vocal field of the preservation of not emphasized – ê, when used in the body of the word in the pre-stressed position (shtëpi, (home), shëndet (health), etc.); in the final position of female nouns (mollë (apples), lugë (spoon), punë (work)) to the plural of male nouns (punëtorë (workers), fshatarë (peasants), qytetarë (citizens), etc.). Also, in the first person and in the third person of the present tense (lexojmë (we read), punojmë (we work), rrëfejmë (we confess) shkojmë (we go), etc.) Preserving the ê in the final position was also an achievement of the approximation of literary Gheg to that of literary Tosk.

The matter of preserving the two Albanian literary variants by approaching the writing, as well as maintaining the full structure was also approved for the use of vowel groups of the type ie, ue, ye (diell, miell (flour), mësue (learn), punue (work), lye (paint), fyell (flute) etc.)
- Preserving the graphic sign (^) in only two occasions: zâ, âsh, pê, frê etc.
- The consonant groups should also be fully preserved (mb, nd, ng, ngj etc)

The Orthography of the Albanian Literary Commission of Shkodra is of great importance for the first orthography in our history in a scientific gathering; the approximation of two written forms of literary variants of Albanian; and we can say that for the first time the Albanian literary language was standardized. In addition, this standardization was also approved in the official acts of King Zog’s Government in 1923.

**Linguistic Conference of Prishtina (1968):** In contrast to all the events that took place for a standardization of the Albanian language organized in the Linguistic Conference of Prishtina organized by the Albanological Institute and the Department of Language and Literature of the Prishtina Philosophical Faculty, on April 27-28 1968, with 150 participants, all authors, writers, politicians, the renaissance people of this period were from ethnic Albania. The linguistic conference of Prishtina was opened by the director of this Institute, Fehmi Agani. This meeting was intended to reach a position for Albanian language in Kosovo and those areas where Albanians lived in the former Yugoslavia. The goal was to designate one of the two existing opportunities that had emerged in the 1967 project, so whether or not to accept the orthography of the Albanian language (1967), which implied the common Albanian inclusion of Kosovo Albanians and other ethnic areas, or to continue the path of the existing literary Albanian of the areas where Albanians lived and to be used to variant of literary Gheg. The 150 participants who participated in the Language Conference in Prishtina ’68 decided to choose the first variant that is the most straightforward way of unification of the Albanian literary language.

Linguistic Conference of Prishtina ’68, was also of great importance, where the persistence of all Albanians was noted for the standardization of the Albanian language; which was undoubtedly an important step in Kosovo and throughout the Albanian territory. This Language Conference was the route that preceded the preparation of the Albanian Language Orthography Congress in 1972. According to the member of this Linguistic Conference professor Idriz Ajeti emphasizes the importance of this meeting: "Although at that time we did not see the possibility of the rapid spread of the unified Albanian literary language, the insistence that its issue was brought by the experts and other representatives present in this Conference, their unreserved disposition to use the common Albanian literary language gave us greater hopes than being accepted it would soon expand into the school, in editions and in radio and television programs".

**Orthography Congress, Standardization of Albanian:** As we described above the historical path of the standard Albanian language, it is noticed that the vast majority of the writings, meetings, congresses were intended to reach a full definition of the standard of Albanian language in the whole Albanian speaking territory. Different principles have been established for an adequate acquisition of written Albanian, ranging from the phonetic principle, the morphological principle and the syntax principle (where the spoken form of the Albanian language was in direct proximity to the spoken language of the people).

The final standardization of the Albanian language throughout the Albanian speaking territory was a historic and actual necessity for national unification. This began in 1972 with the holding of the Orthography Congress held in Tirana, which must be said without doubt that it was the result of the numerous efforts of all the intellectuals and prominent patriots whom we aforementioned. It should be noted that this koine came as a nationwide result, as an imposed language that even Albanians will eventually have a common language and will eventually be a more organic and more united nation than before.

Since the time of the final standardization of '72, over 40 years have passed that we are very strictly observing the protection of standardization, always bearing in mind the political challenges that the people of Kosovo have overcome. We can already say that this language has stood and is continuing to stand up to the challenges of the time.

"The Orthographic Congress is primarily directed at the Albanian school as the core of linguistic formation of younger generations ... to evaluate the acquisition of unified literary and spelling norms approved by Congress as a fundamental

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1 Idriz Ajeti, Rruga e zhvillimit të gjihës letrare në Kosovë, KDGJSH 1974, f.37
duty and to completely implement new orthographic rules, starting from 1973-74\(^1\). Hence, it was of particular importance that the linguistic formation to be learnt correctly and systematically, starting with the 8-year-olds of that time in our schools.

In Kosovo, it is well known that a high percentage of school literature was in Slavic (Serb-Croat), and that literature began to be translated in Albanian, where there was considerable violation of the norm, especially in the field of syntax. As we will discuss in the following chapters, we find these violations to this day, but not so much in writing as in speaking in Kosovo.

In the Orthographic Congress '72, the normative sanctioned Albanian code was introduced: "Today's structure of the literary language is open and will remain so." Otherwise, the development of the literary language would be discontinued. Hence, "the ultimate crystallization of the norm" is never really final, eternal, static, but constantly evolved and perfected\(^2\).

In adopting the literary norm according to the 1977 Orthography Congress, Kosovars tried to stay on the standardization to the fullest so that there were no Slavic words and non-original translations and often turned out with different meanings in different school literature. This was also reinforced by the Kosovar education within Kosovo at the University of Pristhina where the Albanian language was studied, without having to be educated in other republics of former Yugoslavia, where it was necessarily influenced by Serbian language. Also, the educational and cultural integration was influenced by the change of the political situation in Kosovo, the great literature contributions from Albania in the drafting of texts not only in language subject, but also in other subjects where the importance was multifaceted and of great benefits in acquiring the standard.

It is worth mentioning that the development of the Albanian standard language has had an Albanian support, even to the Arbëresh of Italy, bringing dexterity into the further development of the Albanian language itself.

According to Professor Fadil Raka\(^3\), the process of standardization of the Albanian language is divided into two periods of time: "the first, the years 1972-90 and the second, from 1990 to the present day". We think that a particular stage of development should be treated after the post-war period in Kosovo after 1999. To tackle this issue, one should also observe the role of some of the important non-linguistic factors that directly affect the Kosovar variant, taking into account the circumstances, geopolitical contexts, various interlingual contacts, etc. Through verifications in the structure of discourse we have come to some theoretical conclusions about the many sociolinguistic phenomena that have occurred there. We will observe these phenomena in the following chapters as they relate to the development of standard Albanian language in different grammatical aspects.

**The dialect base of standard**: Regarding the graphical representation of standardized Albanian, we can examine from the point of view of dominance of its two main dialects\(^4\). Thus, as we know, the two main dialects of the Albanian language Gheg in the north and Tosk in the south are roughly separated from the Shkumbin River. Gheg and the Tosk have branched out for at least a millennium, and their less extreme forms are in a mutual way understandable.

It is known that both dialects have their own specific: phonetic, morphological and syntax forms. Looking at the perspective of the development of the dialect base of standard Albanian, we will notice some features that are common, but also have differences between them. We will try to present these differences in the phonetic, morphological, lexical-semantic, and the word that is not considered in Albanian standard Albanian.

From the chronological presentation of the development of standardization of the Albanian language, we noticed that especially during the National Renaissance, but even later, during the years until the end of the 20th century, Albanians had as a means of communication both variants (as in speaking also in writing).

Albanians worked and acted to have a common nationwide language that eventually came to be configured at the 1972 Orthography Congress. In the standard Albanian language structure, are noticed the common language elements that are included in the grammatical system of the standard Albanian, such as:

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2. Gazeta ditore "Koha ditore", *Dymbëdhjetë propozime për pasurimin e standartit të shqipes*, e diel 19 dhjetor 2011.
4. Ky burim grafik i rollit të dialekteve në standard është marrë nga interneti.

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nouns: mal-i,(mountain) thes-i,(sack) mur-i,(wall)
adjectives: i ri(new,young), i vjetër(old), bukurosh,(handsome)
personal pronouns: unë,(I) ti(you) aii/ajo(he/she), ne(we), ju(you) ata/ato,(they)
Interrogative pronouns: cili,(which) kush,(who)
umerals: dy,(two) tre,(three) pesë,(five)
auxiliary verbs: kam,(have) ke, (have)ka,(has) kemi,(have) keni,(have) kanë,(have)
Adverbs: atje,(there) këtej,(this way) bukur,(pretty) tepër,(extremely) kur,(when) në,(in) sa,(how much/many) etj.

Therefore, in terms of both phonetic structure and grammatical form and word formation are the same in both dialect variants and in standard Albanian language.

As it is already known, the Albanian language has 7 vowels and 29 consonants, which are found in both the literary variants of Albanian as well as according to their vernaculars. Unlike the Gheg dialect, which has the nasal vowel system, it is also known that this system is left out of the standard of the Albanian language. Vocal groups, ie, ye, are prevalent in our two dialects, but they have ended as the simplest vowels (i, y), or that are known in particular in one of these dialects.

Among the common features of the two dialects we have the definite and indefinite form of nouns, the system of adjectives, most of the forms of the pronoun system, the modes of verb tenses etc. Likewise, we have cases in the Albanian lexicon, which includes the internationalisms that have entered our lexicon and have become an inseparable part of it especially lately with the respective developments in different fields.

There are differences in the phonetic system, namely the structural composition of the pronounced vowel -ë, which replaces the nasal -a that is characteristic of Gheg and its former variant.

It is also important the process of rotation, such as: emër (name), rërë (sand), bëri (did) etc, which is taken from the variant of Tosk, but we should not forget the language units that are included into the standardization according to the variant of Gheg e.g. ronishte (sand), nini (youth), zanore (vowel) etc.

However, the fact remains that the group of old, significant and relatively compact isoglosses, whose northern limit (rotation and development of *uo in ue in the [Gheg] or in ua in [Tosk] in syllables that end with a sound) is along the course of the Shkumbin River, and the southern belt of which is extended some ten to twenty kilometers southwards (with the change of *vo-> va- in the middle position), represent a decisive moment in the history of the Albanian language, unlike other languages which are distinguished by the Albanian language from their contact with Latin.

It is the same case with the vowel diphthong of Gheg ue that is not outside the norm of standard Albanian language, it is found at the type of nouns: mësues,(teacher) punues,(worker) lexues,(reader) botues (publisher) etc. Also, this phenomenon is noticed at the declared adjectives with the productive suffix: -shëm, e.g i lexueshëm,(readable) i punueshëm(acceptable) etc. Moreover, the verbs that are supported by the former variant of Gheg of the first person in the declarative case in the present tense with – j (punoj, (work) mësoj,(learn) lexoj (read)etc), but in the imperfect declarative mood of the present tense have entered in the norm of the Albanian language according to the personal suffixes, such as: -ja, -je, -nte (that is the same with the Gheg suffix), -nim, -nit, -nin (punoja,(I worked) punoje (you worked), punonte (he/she worked), punonim (we worked), punonit (you worked), punonin (they worked) where they are left aside from the former Gheg variant: - jsha, -jshe,-nte, -jshim,-jsh, -jisht, -jshin, (punojsha, punojshe, punonte, punojsht, punojshin), it is left aside of standard -jna, -jne, -nte, -njim, -njit, - njin (punoja, punonje, punonte, punonim, punonj, punonjin).

Another important phenomenon is the infinitive of Gheg, which is formed by prepositional particle and participle Gheg me shkue (to go), which is removed from the standard Albanian language, however is inserted in the standard according to the type of subjunctive mood with the participle: për të lexuar (to read), për të punuar (to work) etc.

Regarding the infinitive, which is the earliest mood of Albanian language history, so the infinitive “me” (“to”) the sigmatic imperfect. The main phonological features are simultaneously emblematic, but also datable. The fact that the division between the two dialects dates after the contact with Latin, is clear since Latin borrowings undergo the corresponding developments in these two dialects, for example, > vorfën/varfér, (h)arênus > rané/rârë. Also, it is certain that these changes
occurred before medieval migrations of Arvanites and Arbëresh, which are obviously Tosk. However, between the *terminus ad quem* e *terminus a quo*, it is extended a period of seven or eight centuries during which another important event occurred in the history of the Albanian language: Slavic invasions.

The case of the participle of the standard Albanian language is included in the norm according to the support of the former Tosk variant: lexuar (read), punuar (worked), kënduar (sang) etc.

Regarding the separation between Gheg and Tosk, there are three main thoughts about the chronology of the division of these two dialects:

1. has been conducted prior to the contact with Slavic languages;¹
2. started before, but continued during contacts with Slavic languages;²
   
and

3. started after contact with Slavic languages.³

In order to establish the dialect base of the standard Albanian language, the first work that was done was the norm of completely similar phenomena in both dialect variants, thus matching the entirety of the linguistic system. Although most think that the dialect of Tosk is the standard dialect of the standard Albanian language, this can be noticed even according to the percentage of Albanian speakers and the acquisition of standard language.

However, Gheg speakers have some language difficulties in speech, which we will also see in response to the respondents and those who are recorded. Therefore, many scientific meetings, symposiums, conferences and scientific congresses, is being seen again the possibility of flexibility that the standard language should have, extending to the different linguistic inclusiveness, which lie within the grammatical systems in phonetic, morphological, syntax, lexical, and word-formation field.

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Satisfaction, Resilience and Achievement. Towards a Change in Priorities Within the Framework of New Sociocultural and Educational Paradigms

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Abstract
The importance of Satisfaction and Resilience is shown (linked to numerous “social competencies”) in processes of Academic and Professional Achievement in various contexts (scientific, academic, professional). The results support empirical research linked to academic-professional pathways. Our objective was to explain the factors associated with achievement (included as conditions or effects within the models, as independent or dependent variables) and to understand the “reasons” and “processes” that underlie the numerical results (statistics, rankings). These included base, psychosocial, pedagogical-institutional, organizational and structural factors. In particular, we sought to observe the weight of psychosocial variables, which the author named “social competencies” 20 years ago and which today are prioritized (“soft skills”) by countries that lead the rankings in educational quality. Among these, Resilience and Satisfaction have recently been incorporated by PISA (2014) for their importance for achievement within the learning paradigm. A synthesis of studies is presented in which these variables’ weight is shown. The strategy for analysis was micro-meso-macro in light of the author’s theory of three interacting levels or The Three-Dimensional Spiral of Sense. The results show that as the basis for achievement or as an associated effect- social competencies play a key role in facilitating learning. Without listening, communication, implication, engagement, satisfaction, solid relationships and strategies for overcoming adversity, both learning as well as integral changes in education systems that respond to new demands will be difficult to produce, as will changes at the individual and institutional levels.

Keywords: Satisfaction – Resilience – Achievement – Social Competencies – New Paradigm

1. Introduction
In this era of knowledge, and from a paradigm of learning where what is most important is learning how to learn, educational priorities in developed countries have changed to incorporate skills and competencies, whereas before education was restricted to disciplinary knowledge and excluded knowing how to do, how to be, how to live and how to be happy. These all become necessary in the context of dramatic changes that place value not only on the knowledge one has but also on “what one is able to do with that knowledge.” This involves the development of creativity, flexibility, a critical eye, open-mindedness, recognition, decision-making and negotiation abilities and related competencies.

Globally, this change in priorities can be observed at two levels:
a) At the level of education, said skills/competencies have evolved looking towards the demands of the future, towards the “future of the workplace” or “workplace of the future”, each with its own connotations. Competencies that were developed 10 years ago and those that are currently prioritized are located at different ends of the spectrum in countries that lead the rankings of institutional quality and learning (OECD. World Economic Forum “Future of jobs report”). These competencies, more developed in some countries than in others, -within a model that links determining factors with effects- generally enter as factors determining individual/professional achievement. From the author’s perspective, and through added effects, these factors influence the respective institutional quality and lead to improvements at the national level (macro level.

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reflected in country rankings) (Aparicio, 2015 a, b).

b) In terms of the expected or most valued effects, both in academic and workplace systems (more precisely in the educational systems that lead the rankings), there are two factors to recover and attempt to measure. On the one hand, the factor/dimension of Satisfaction and achievement of better conditions, both academic (a climate of collaboration, founded on motivation and individual interest) and professional (healthy relationships with colleagues and bosses, greater transversality without limiting authority and opportunities for continuing education) (Mostafa & Pál, 2018). On the other hand, the factor of Resilience or ability to cope with adversity in a complex world where one must learn strategies to deal with unexpected situations in the academic institution and in life (problem-solving, coping) (Agacisti et al, 2018). PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment), which measures Language, Mathematics and Reading performance of teenage students in 72 countries, began to compare these two factors in 2014.

Previously, countries were concerned with being highly ranked and being aware of professional mobility, with overcoming social inequalities in broad terms and with reaching greater equity; now, in a global and competitive world which is ever more demanding, it is also important to study aspects such as satisfaction (an effect reached within a system) and resilience (a condition for achievement in difficult contexts or the result of the co-construction of bonds between individuals and institutions/communities).

Interest is centered on individuals, conditioned by their contexts which are limiting but not determining (in this line, some countries show high results for all levels of society, a fact which represents advances in terms of equity).

What's more, revaluing said “soft” skills and competencies which are more related to the subjective level (Chernyshenko, Kankaraš & Drasgow, 2018), indicates that there is a certain return to the individual in the epistemic and sociological-cultural paradigms at the base of the current educational paradigm shift: the learning paradigm. The interactionist paradigm (Boudon, 1973) and the “grammaires de l’individu” (Martucelli, 2002) would oppose hyperfunctionalism and the “grammaire génétique-structurelle” of Bourdieu and Passeron (1979). An individual's achievement is not determined only by his origin, mediated by the school (reproducer of bourgeois cultural codes and social classes), but is conditioned by the development of multiple abilities/competencies (among them psychosocial competencies) as part of the educational system, a system that is now demanding rapid, equal and integrative changes in many countries, including Argentina, and that involves both politicians and educators as well as students, the system’s main actors. Thus, three systems in interaction.

II. Brief Theoretical Framework: Research focus

Here we take up certain approaches that guided our research and which we will detail as follows.

As opposed to PISA: a) our research deals with quantitative-qualitative investigations in the “field”, carried out from a systemic perspective sui generis using interactive models that shed light on the “goings” and “comings” (feedback) within the individual and educational micro-systems as related to the workplace and of all systems in sustained interaction (recursive spiral movements with advances and relapses, with positive and negative effects, not linear but rather dynamic) (Aparicio, 2007; 2009 a, b; d, 2016). In fact, learning and results are also observed in organizational contexts (Shön, 1992; Argyris, 1982). b) We work with university students rather than with adolescents, which highlights the fact that resilience and satisfaction continue to be relevant factors over time. c) Our strategy of analysis was micro-meso-macro-micro, which has not been well developed in our field. d) Using this strategy, we attempt to capture, from a comprehensive perspective (Dubar, 1995; Boudon, 1973), the “reasons” that underlie an individual’s achievement or failure and the “meaning” that they find in their behavior, using a personalized investigation that helps to listen to the actors, their problems and from their experience. e) Our models include not only numerical inputs and outputs but also psychosocial/relational, cultural and cognitive processes, processes that mediate results. f) Opting for a systemic paradigm sui generis (far from its biological or administrative origins) emerges from the absence of quantitative-qualitative integrative studies that cover long periods of time (not only synchronic but also diachronic and even longitudinal). During these periods, important macro-structural changes are produced in policy, in education systems, in evaluation and in employment (new systems of recruiting, prioritization of certain competencies in contexts of growing competition, different models of human resources and management). All of this results in greater or lesser opportunities for academic achievement (entrance, permanence, graduation); for workplace achievement (insertion according to education, promotion, dignified working conditions) and for individual achievement (according to aspirations, goals, perspectives for the future and life projects). Only studies over broad ranges of time and space allow for an observation of processes of inter-systemic feedback and of the inside of each
Finally, we must remember that this research had as its focus an improvement in the quality both of the education system and of employment. This is an issue that began to appear at the center of the political agenda in the 1990s and that is still difficult to give shape to, particularly when taking into account the criteria of relevance or the response that the education system provides when faced with new problems and social crises in contexts of growing competition, looking to the requirements of the future and to long-term country projects.

III. Empirical Research: Focus and Results

The following are studies that include Satisfaction and Resilience, both in the academic system and the workplace, and that reveal the quantitative weight (predictive models) or the qualitative strength of values, beliefs and representations related to achievement.

1. Satisfaction

1.1. Satisfaction and Achievement in PhDs

This variable has been included in several of the author’s programs and complementary research projects. Here we refer to two (2) in particular, carried out with different populations though—quantitatively or qualitatively—both have been present in the majority of her studies, many of which last until current times.

If in the last century the question of Satisfaction was already important at the level of Industrial Psychology, despite the criticism that it provoked (Hertzberg, cit in House & Wigdor, 1967), today in times of uncertainty and a crisis of paradigms, the variable Satisfaction becomes particularly relevant from two angles: the individual begins to prioritize satisfaction, his free time, his schedule, and his rights; and workplaces for their part seek ways to maintain the interest and satisfaction of their personnel, linked to production, effectiveness and competitiveness.

1.1.1. Satisfaction in scientists (PhDs) in the R+D System: A quantitative study

Problem

Given the importance that the variable Satisfaction has in relation to Achievement in other contexts, there have been very few studies carried out in the field of science, and fewer still that distinguish between factors associated with Achievement in the hard sciences and in the soft sciences, according to disciplinary culture. In this sense, this study filled a void in our context (for more detail, cf. Aparicio, 2014 b). The interest that the study generated led us to extend it to the present day in the context of other projects (UNCuyo / National Science Agency). Currently there are two (2) running: a) the PICTO 2016-2019 Program which addresses current issues facing scientists/PhDs, those responsible for innovation; b) a study carried out in France with Argentine and other foreign PhDs and post-docs participating in academic exchanges in Paris. The objective is to analyze which factors (objective and subjective) have influenced their pathways and what impact their elected education abroad has had on national innovation.

Objective: The main objective of this research was to analyze the relationship between human (psychosocial) and material (resources) factors, and the efficiency of the Research Units (R+DUI) (Andrews, 1979). Satisfaction enters in the first group.

To achieve this, scales and indexes were developed, especially concerning the product. As far as human factors were concerned, many scales and indexes were included, especially connected with satisfaction at work.

Hypothesis: a) Satisfaction among scientists (all PhDs) is associated with Professional Mobility (the higher the position in the scientific system, the higher the satisfaction) and with the Product. b) Satisfaction is associated with different aspects according to disciplinary fields. c) the role of leaders (bosses) of research groups is a central factor for team development and satisfaction.

Methodology

1 As we will see, they were in part confirmed. They are not aspects that run in parallel. The same was observed in the study carried out with PhDs at Cnam and UNCuyo which we will detail below.
The Sample: A stratified sample was taken from universities and different disciplines, based on a population of research teachers from the National University of Cuyo (N= 53) R+DU: one chief or director and members.

The Techniques: Techniques were quantitative and qualitative. Two questionnaires, anecdotes and non-obstructive observation were used.

1) The Research & Development United Questionnaire, R+DU (going forward, R+D Questionnaire), was given only to Directors who responded with data concerning the R+D United (institutional and financial resources, human resources, R+DU age, sources of national and foreign income, scientific exchange programs and product).

2) The Core Members Questionnaire provided data related to R+DU members of the and to concrete modes of organization. It included objective data (personal and institutional-disciplinary profiles), opinions and representations of the R+DU members regarding levels of personal participation, workplace climate (dedication, cooperation, interference, etc.) and regarding employment (pressure, responsibilities and commitment). Likewise, it included opinions about budgeting and resources; satisfaction with respect to bosses (frequency of contact and effects on scientific performance and professional competencies). It also included representations of power and influence in decision-making and with respect to the effectiveness/productivity of the R+DU according to the objectives sought and the capacity for innovation, as well as to satisfaction in relation with the dissemination of results.

The Scales: Scales and indexes were created using the responses obtained for the items corresponding to variables on the Core Member Questionnaire and we then proceeded to cross them with other variables, among them Production (as an indicator of effectiveness), Professional Mobility (an indicator of achievement, particularly in the scientific and academic realms) and disciplinary fields of relevance.

Regarding that which concerns our study, we established 7 Central Scales of Satisfaction. In addition, we created a Product Scale and a Professional Mobility Scale. Detailing these scales will not be our objective here (Aparicio, 2014 b).

We will only point out that the Social Mobility Index varied between 4.67 and 100.00, with a mean (or average satisfaction) of 53.99 and a standard deviation of 25.53, the lowest observed.

The Index of Product was constructed by taking into account 3 clusters: Publications, Patents and Prototypes, and Reports and Algorithms.

Here we will concentrate on the Scales of Satisfaction.

Items are based on the Liker scale from 1 to 5, with 5 being the most positive situation and 1 the most negative. The individual gave his/her opinion about each of the pairs of opposite statements (X-Y), grading them as follows: 5) X is applicable, 4) Tendency to X, 3) Halfway, 2) Tendency to Y, 1) Y is applicable.

Let us take a look at a summary of the resulting Satisfaction Indexes and at a descriptive analysis of them, considering their level of satisfaction.

Table 1. Satisfaction Indexes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>50.77</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>88.7590</td>
<td>10.0119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atmosphere at Work</td>
<td>44.71</td>
<td>96.47</td>
<td>80.5409</td>
<td>10.5910</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision/boss</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>74.3000</td>
<td>26.2832</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of Satisfaction</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>63.4234</td>
<td>25.2896</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with Co-workers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material Factors</td>
<td>21.54</td>
<td>92.31</td>
<td>61.9982</td>
<td>14.7697</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>About your Job</td>
<td>35.00</td>
<td>91.67</td>
<td>61.6858</td>
<td>12.2830</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>58.7059</td>
<td>28.0216</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in the scale, the highest level of Satisfaction is present for the variables Planning (88.75) and Atmosphere at Work (80.54), whilst the index for Professional Mobility is among the lowest (53.99).
Likewise, we constructed a **General Index of Satisfaction**. This varied between 25.93 and 88.89, with a mean (or average satisfaction) of 68.72 and a standard deviation of 13.19.

We now proceed to describe Satisfaction scales, which show significant differences.

**Scale L: About the Job:** The index varied between 35.00 and 91.67, with a mean (or average satisfaction) of 61.68 and a standard deviation of 12.28, which indicates a moderate level of satisfaction with respect to the variable.

**Scale N: Satisfaction with Chief of Research Unit:** The index varied between 2.50 and 100.00, with a mean of 74.30 and a standard deviation of 26.28, which indicates a high level of Satisfaction.

**Scale O: Planning and Organization of Research Activities in the Unit:** The index varied between 50.77 and 100.00, with a mean of 88.55 and a standard deviation of 10.01, which indicates the highest level of Satisfaction in the variables considered.

**Scale I: Responsibility/Attributions:** The index varied between 10.00 and 100.00, with a mean of 58.70 and a standard deviation of 28.02. These figures show one of the lowest levels of Satisfaction in the variables considered.

**Results**

We observed that levels of satisfaction are not independent from professional mobility and from the associated specialty domains. a) There is a significant relationship between professional mobility and satisfaction in the workplace without making a distinction between hard and soft sciences (disciplinary domains); b) Distinguishing between the two types of sciences, there exists a different association between factors of satisfaction in the workplace and professional mobility in the domains of “hard” sciences and “soft” sciences (institutional culture); c) No co-relation was found between Mobility and Product; d) And finally, the generalized non-conformism found in the mobile subjects as opposed to the team leader or boss of these scientific-academic organizations *sui generis* is of great interest.

We will analyze these results in three instances:

- **Co-relation between Professional Mobility and the Index of General Satisfaction** was significant: 5 % (r= .450**, p<0.05).

- **Co-relation between Professional Mobility and Indexes of Satisfaction:** After the scales were created and indexes calculated, the Mobility Index was co-related to the different indexes of Satisfaction. It becomes clear that there is a positive significant association between Professional Mobility and the indexes of Satisfaction at Work, Responsibility for Specific Tasks and Planning; and a negative significant association with the Boss/Supervisor.

- **Co-relation between Professional Mobility and Satisfaction in "Hard" and "Soft" Sciences**
  
  "Hard" Sciences: Professional Mobility is positively and significantly associated with the indexes for Job (0.48 at 1%) and Responsibility (0.57 at 1%). There is, in addition, a negative significant co-relation with the index for Satisfaction with bosses or directors (-0.45 at 1%).
  
  “Social” Sciences: Here, a negative and significant association can only be found in the index for Satisfaction with the Supervision or the unit's leader (-0.456 at 5%), while there is a positive association with Planning (0.354 at 5%).

Analyzing the scale of co-relations (Pearson), we can see that significant associations at 1% and 5% between Professional Mobility and Satisfaction are different in the "hard" and "soft" sciences scale, which implies that each disciplinary group values different aspects of Satisfaction. In other words, the most movable subjects in "hard" sciences find Satisfaction in some aspects—typically present in their discipline— which are different from those in "soft" sciences (Crane, 1972).

There is only one aspect common to both: researchers from both fields feel they are not satisfied with the leadership in their teams (Hollander, 1971; Etzioni, 1965; Rossel, 1970; Meyer, 1976). This result can be read in light of different frameworks.

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1 Names in the scale remain the same as those of the previously mentioned UNESCO research study, 1971.
From the Expectation-Valency theory, it is thought that the most mobile individuals (that is, those who have ascended in their career) have higher expectations and demand more than those at the top of the system (Feather & Davenport, 1981).

From the “investment” model (Becker, 1964), it is thought that those who have ascended most expect greater benefits, many of which are linked to their position as Bosses.

Finally, it is not surprising in the current situation of structural crisis that the Index of Satisfaction with respect to Mobility is among the lowest: promotion is less likely when positions are limited. This generates non-conformism and anomy in light of the distance between the institutionalized means and goals to reach (Merton, 1968; Heintz, 1970). We see that psychosocial actors overlap with other structural actors, making linear readings difficult.

Otherwise, we find a certain homogenization or disciplinary identity for factors concerning socialization (Crane, 1972). Scientists (PhDs) from the hard sciences and those from the soft sciences only share one aspect: non-conformism with their R+DU bosses. Psychosocial and structural factors thus feed each other in the Science and Technical system.

1.1.2. PhDs, Satisfaction and Professional Future: A French-Argentine study (qualitative-quantitative)

Problem

Abrupt changes in the world of work and the high levels of professionalization now required demand both the implementation of new mechanisms and education in new competencies, not only disciplinary but also psychosocial competencies for management and self-management. In addition, the conditions for practicing in the professional world have changed and insertion and promotion has become a more complex issue.

To these issues are added others, such as PhD saturation in some disciplinary fields, the “plafond” effects at the professional level that result in unemployment or structural sub-employment; derived non-conformism, related especially to the lack of recognition expected, etc. Discontent also emerges from macro-national and political factors, despite having reached, many times, a high professional position (Aparicio, 2017 a; 2009 c). All of this has impacts at the level of identity, demanding a reconstruction of this identity (Goffman, 1963, Silva & Aparicio, 2015).

In this framework, the link between personal pathways, educational pathways and professional pathways constitutes a source of worry. Our objective was to understand a) the objective and subjective factors (among them Satisfaction and/or Unease, VD) associated with achievement; b) the competencies and expectations of the future that define the identity profile of PhDs according to disciplinary filed, university and country.

Methodology: Quantitative and qualitative.

Population: PhD students/PhDs from Cnam (France) from three programs of study: Management, Sociology and Adult Education. At the National University of Cuyo (Argentina) we worked with PhD students/PhDs from PhD programs in Social Sciences and Education (both with sociodemographic profiles similar to those at Cnam) over the same time period.

Techniques: We used a semi-structured survey, carried out personally with PhD students/PhDs (2005-2009 period), and later updated the institutional listings. The survey included open-ended questions which allowed the actors to express themselves freely. The fundamental qualitative technique was hierarchical evocation. This allows us to capture the central representations shared by this population in relation to important nodes (for an in-depth analysis cf. Aparicio, 2009 e, Award Marie de Paris; also Aparicio et al, 2015c). In our report, we address diverse qualitative nodes linked to the value of a PhD degree and the “plus” that it provides or doesn’t provide in terms of personal and professional achievement (including the satisfaction reached after obtaining the degree), representations of the world of work, objectives sought for life projects, essential values for those who lead organizations and those necessary to reach high levels of satisfaction in the workplace, among others. All of these shed light on “where” PhDs place their Satisfaction of Dissatisfaction, that is, in what spaces it is achieved (relationships with bosses, teams, required competencies versus learned competencies, the relationship with Career Mobility and Professionalization, and the relationship between Satisfaction and Positioning, among many others) (Aparicio, 2017 a,b,c).

In terms of the quantitative analysis (descriptive and correlational level) cf. Aparicio, 2009 c, Rapport Award Marie de Paris, 158 pp.

Results related to the variable of Satisfaction
Here we present a brief synthesis of our findings and the variables/dimensions associated with Satisfaction.

1. Greater professional mobility means greater satisfaction, both at Cnam (62% of those who reach the Director level report being Very Satisfied) and at UNCuYo (cf. Aparicio & Cros, 2015 c, op cit, pp. 57-63). We highlight the fact that it is not only entrance which causes happiness.

2. Greater income results in greater Satisfaction.

3. Professional reorientations (narrated in interviews) served to revive and resignify their non-linear paths, sometimes cut short by unexpected situations (war, death). Those who changed their program of study reported finding satisfaction with the option (even when desertion, addressed statistically, is considered a negative aspect which affects both the individual and the quality of the education system).

4. As regards disciplinary fields, notable satisfaction emerges with the program of study and with employment, though with variations according to fields/programs of study and according to objectives sought (economic benefits, power, prestige, personal development). Nevertheless, Mobility brings with it greater Status and though this does produce objective Satisfaction, in some programs a certain subjective Dissatisfaction emerges, despite it seeming redundant. In fact, individuals were not always educated to lead, to manage competencies and programs of study, in moments when the social climate is tense and the world of work is seen by some as a ruthless struggle where competition reigns (Aparicio, 2017). These individuals are satisfied with having completed a PhD, with having ascended to be bosses as such, but when describing this world, they do so in the worst way.

5. The majority occupies positions appropriate to their education and this creates satisfaction.

6. The value of a degree is associated with two factors: mobility and resulting satisfaction. However, the numbers are low: only between 14% and 30% say that a doctoral education results in mobility. Despite this, they report that although mobility is not reached easily, there has been an improvement in their careers (between 60% and 70% in all careers) since starting the doctorate. 20% to 38% say they have seen no progress.

This data points in the same direction as the CEREQ data. Nevertheless, the relationship between Education/Work/Mobility and the Value of a Doctoral Degree/Satisfaction continues to be the object of debate. And though tightening of the relationship between education and employment is not the norm, a positivist vision prevails.

8/ To sum up, while not denying difficulties, the majority are satisfied with their degree and/or doctoral studies and, though these do not always imply economic benefits, they continue to have value at the symbolic level. In this sense, the value seems more symbolic in France than in Argentina. Here PhDs still hope for a brighter future for the sole fact of having reached the PhD.

1.2. Satisfaction and Achievement for Teachers

Introduction

A number of comparative studies have been carried out with this population at the university, tertiary and secondary levels (cf. Aparicio, 2017 and 2018: this article contains a synthesis of all studies completed).

In these studies, we address the issue of teaching from two large dimensions: a) the philosophical bases that underlie the different stages of development of teacher education, political-institutional, historical and legal aspects; b) using empirical studies in the field to understand these issues in vivo, teachers’ concerns, the system’s demands (professionalization, rights, etc.); all of these aspects that define a teaching identity.

Methodology

Fundamentally, we used a qualitative methodology (interviews and hierarchical evocations). The quantitative techniques used included institutional listings and semi-structured surveys that included open-ended questions to allow participants to speak freely.
Results

Globally: among the “non-variants” or common aspects –shared and expressed through social representations– we observed that:

Teachers are satisfied with aspects related to the affective and relational dimension (bonds, interaction). Their achievement is found within the context of their vocation and decisions: within their life project they opted for personal fulfillment and not for economic benefits, prestige or power in their profession (Becker, 1964, “consumption” model versus “investment” model).

There are also dissatisfied individuals who demonstrate a certain level of discontent because of greater social demands (particularly, on behalf of families and the media) and because of the increased presence of violence and lack of respect (Aparicio, 2011 a, b 2013)

It is also important to note that we have found issues common to both the Argentine and French contexts, demonstrated by common expressions and/or words used.

Finally, in line with the author’s strategy of analysis —micro-meso-macro-micro—, we observe that the historic problem of identity in the teacher education system, a system which has been weakened and fragmented by political decisions, falls back on teachers themselves, which further weakens their identity. We find fragmented identities at the macro-national and meso-institutional levels and ruptured identities at the micro level which in some cases in France go so far as to lead to early abandonment of the goal (Aparicio 2009 c; 2012; 2015 a, b; 2017 e; Silva & Aparicio, 2015).

2. Resilience or the importance of “social competencies” to university achievement. The case of students who prolong their studies.

We will now detail some of the research studies carried out, quantitatively and qualitatively.

2.1. Negative performance: a quantitative study of individuals who extend their studies

Introduction

As were previous studies, this research was carried out within the general framework of improvement in Educational Quality as linked to Negative Performance. We used a sample of individuals that extend or delay their studies at six schools (1985-2004), with the objective of understanding what factors/dimensions influenced this decision of extension. The statistics are alarming: only 17% of the students graduate, 60% drop out and the rest extend their studies. This problem represents material and human cost in terms of frustration.

What concerns us in this article, which attempts to show the importance of resilience through empirical studies, are the characteristics of our university education, very focused on the disciplinary aspect, which can be found at the base of the “relative failure” statistics, impacting the “low institutional and learning quality”. In fact, though there are differences according to program of study, education in “social competencies” is frequently forgotten. These competencies, studied by the author for at least 15 years, include: communicational competencies, coping strategies, and resilience, among others (Aparicio, 2016 a,b).

Resilience develops social bonds, relational competencies which will be very useful in the university, in the workplace and in life in general. It is defined as an individual’s ability to react to adverse and sometimes unexpected situations and to overcome obstacles. It implies a set of sub-factors that favor success when one is faced with the changes and processes of adaptation which these suppose, evermore necessary in current times.

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1 We must point out that in this research on University Student Delay, Satisfaction in the workplace was also part of the predictive model, appearing as a factor in line with the extension of studies. In effect, at times when it is difficult to find a job and feel satisfied, students opt to work and prolong their studies. (Cf. Aparicio, 2009 b, cit., Levy-Garboua, 1976).

In addition, Satisfaction and Self-Esteem were analyzed as part of the author’s second doctoral thesis (Sorbonne, 2005) as factors linked to achievement in quantitative-predictive models. Results were calculated in detail according to univariate and bivariate analyses. Cf. Aparicio, 2009 (published thesis).
Here we cannot go into the theory (cf. Aparicio 2007 b). However, it is important to highlight the fact that this ability to resist pressure which allows for a healthy life in adverse environments entails: a) a set of social and intra-psychic processes, and b) concerns not only individuals but also, equally, groups and institutions. It is not an innate ability, it is the result of a personal and institutional construction that reaffirms a belief in one’s own efficacy to solve problems and adapt to changes (Hernández, 1998; Puerta de Klinkert, 2002).

All of these aspects and/or competencies are precisely those which are currently being prioritized by the educational systems that lead quality rankings. In the line of positive performance, these studies carried out with university students demonstrate resilience to be the most important factor for “negative performance” in the models (cf. Studies on ‘delay’, Aparicio 2009 a, b).

Briefly, as the foundation for achievement, including disciplinary achievement, we find the social competencies, of being and living (listening, companionship, bonds and affects, emotional intelligence). Added to these are the cognitive-procedural competencies (flexibility, the ability to reflect, make decisions and act, cf. Aparicio, 2007 a; 2016 b). It will be impossible to change the way of working at school, at university and at work without improving human relations, without giving new value to the individuals in educational institutions or workplace organizations, without developing their unique potential, without sharing and reflecting by setting aside selfish motives, and without developing creativity or encouraging motivation (Argyris, 1982). It will be impossible to replace retrospective representations of ways of acting for others considered more appropriate (at the level of administration/teachers, teachers/students, bosses/operators). It will be impossible to negotiate, knowing that something is always lost but more is gained in these new exchanges, for oneself, for one’s life, for the life of the group and for life as citizens. At times when depersonalization reigns and the term personality has even begun to fall into disuse, it is important to give new value to the individual. On the contrary, in recursive returns or feedback, the individual (consciously or subconsciously) goes against the micro or macro system, generating negative results, at least from the author’s systemic perspective sui generis.

Change must start from all spheres, as well as from oneself and from critical reflection on one’s own practices, not always expecting directives from outside sources. Without this, there will be no teacher or educational reform that improves the quality of learning for life.

**Objective:** to understand the relationship between Resilience and achievement for individuals who extend their studies.

**Specific Hypothesis:** High levels of resilience (RESIL) – favored by instances of socialization (family, school, etc.) and by concrete instances of education – will generate profiles more favorable to achievement.

**Methodology:** quantitative and qualitative. Here we will make reference to our quantitative findings.

**Population:** 229 subjects from six schools at the UNCUyo (1985-2004).

**Techniques:** we used a semi-structured survey with open-ended questions. We also used specific tests to measure psychosocial and other variables in relation to university achievement (RU, measured with a compound index); concretely: Coping Strategies to face difficulties, attributional styles, motivational factors and Resilience (Henderson & Milstein, 2003 Questionnaire). We worked at a descriptive level (resilience according to school/program of study), bivariate and multivariate (cf. Studies on delay, volume 1).

The Questionnaire used is composed of three scales: Students (RESIALUM), Personnel – administration and teachers – (RESIPERS) and Institutions – schools – (RESIFACU). In addition, it was divided into six sub-scales that can be regrouped into two dimensions. The aspects evaluated here are two: A) Mitigate Risk: 1. Enrich prosocial links; 2. Set clear and firm limits; 3. Teach competencies for life (cooperation, conflict resolution, communicational competencies and healthy ways to manage stress). B) Build Resilience: 1. Give affection and support; 2. Establish and convey realistic expectations and avoid the platfond notion for development; 3. Provide meaningful opportunities for participation (problem solving, definition of objectives and goals, helping others).

**Results**

The results demonstrate the role that resilience plays in academic achievement (here, in lengthening studies).

For the three scales, Students (RESIALUM), Personnel – administration and teachers – (RESIPERS) and Institutions – Schools – (RESIFACU), the mean is concentrated in category 3, which indicates that Resilience is currently in the initial

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1 Variables have a point-value: Number 1 indicates the individual is doing ok, 2. he advanced, 3. he is beginning, 4. nothing has been done. Elevated point-values, or those above 48, demonstrate that the student (in our research) evaluates his resilience as null or nonexistent. On the contrary, the minimum value for the student/personnel/institution scales is 12, which shows that the student evaluates resilience taught as something positive, he understands his institution to be a generator of resilience.
stages, with very low values. Generally speaking, this means that at all Schools, Resilience is low for Students, Personnel and for the Institution itself. Nevertheless, each school has its own profile or identity, with some generating more Resilience than others (Aparicio, 2007 b). This fact demands a situated, contextualized analysis (interaction between the meso-institutional and individual levels). Therefore there must be spaces that generate resilience (Schools/Programs of Study in our research) and that favor its emergence.

2.2. Negative performance: a qualitative study of individuals that extend their studies

A complete volume of research work (more than 500 pages) with individuals who delay their studies is dedicated to the treatment of data and qualitative findings. Among these findings, many refer to resilience and to "low resilience" rates developed to face obstacles and reach the goal of graduation in the time stipulated by the Plan of Study. Individuals refer to the lack of precise life projects, the absence of clear goals, entering a program that was not his/her first choice only to "try it out" and when not feeling comfortable, dropping out. They also said that they were influenced by the situation many graduates in the workforce are struggling with: that a diploma does not currently ensure better job positions and if they do get a job, or even without one, many decide to prolong their studies (Levy Garboua, 1976, theory of differed gratification). Once more, we observe that much achievement depends on the individual, on the person in contexts which condition but do not determine. In effect, the entire system could change (increase infrastructure, nighttime course schedules for those students who work, etc.). However, if an individual decides not to prioritize his/her studies, he or she will extend their studies despite reforms to the system. A return to the individual from a "situated" context? The individual, his/her values (cultural factors), motivations and decisions (psychosocial factors), according to the findings, play a key role.

Finally, the influence context has is particularly observed in the qualitative analysis. Individual and context are in interaction in a movement that may or may not be enriching for both. Here, the responsibility that institutions have as generators of this competence emerges, despite the structural or current limitations that will always exist. Socialization emerges in the heart of the results in this line of development.

2.3. Resilience in other research studies

In other studies, this factor was measured qualitatively, using the technique of hierarchical evocation, and was observed through the value of the links, support, and companionship of the extracurricular experiences that strengthen and/or create solid bonds, among many other aspects (Cf. PICTO 2010, interinstitutional research program carried out on Retention, a positive facet of achievement cf. Aparicio (Dir.) 2015 d).

These aspects, using well-known models produced in the US over the last century, appear as central factors linked to achievement (in a positive sense, as is the case of retention and graduation, or a negative sense, as is the case of dropping out). (The first refers to Aparicio, 2007; 2015 a; in both publications there is a synthesis of research with dropouts. See also, cf. Aparicio 2014a. Here we refer to the primary global models on the subject, where the supra aspects cited are decisive and findings are interpreted in light of the author’s theory: The Three-Dimensional Spiral of Sense).

Conclusion

The findings show that the learning paradigm implies the development of soft abilities/competencies at its base. Without developing these, learning becomes difficult, either because of a lack of interest or a lack of strategies to overcome adversity. And said abilities/competencies are generated in an individual within contexts favorable to development, later resulting in an improvement of institution and macro national quality.

References


The Relationship Between the Language of Tourism, Tourism and Sociology

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Abstract

The unprecedented development of all areas of human concern, in particular the growth of tourism as a central and global phenomenon has drawn the researchers’ attention to tourism and the investigative potential of the language used in tourism. This paper discusses the ways in which the English language relates to tourism and sociology, laying particular emphasis on the role language plays in revealing much about how tourism operates, how perceptions, identities are formed and, henceforth, how tourism as a system depends on the use of language. The article is grounded in the seminal works of Dann, G.M. (1996, 1996a, 2012; Mesthrie, R. Swann, J. et al., 2000; Cohen, D. 1984; Dann, G.M. and Cohen, E., 1996, 2001; Thurlow and Jaworsky, 2003; Fox, 2008) and their views on the sociological aspects of the language of tourism.

Keywords: the language of tourism, specialized language, the sociology of tourism, language and sociology, the relationship language of tourism-tourism-sociology

Introduction

Tourism as an industry has boosted at an unprecedented pace over the last decades. Tourism education and training has caught up both with the developments in the tourism sector and the remarkable advancements in other fields, such as linguistics, sociology and IT. In order to design a viable strategy for the development of tourism it is not enough to look at the progress registered by tourism-related areas or academic disciplines, but to consider the contribution of other research areas to tourism, amongst which research in linguistics and sociolinguistics plays an important role.

For some decades the study of the language of tourism has emerged as an ESP or a ‘specialised’ language, a language used in tourism by tourism staff for tourism purposes. Some decades later, the language of tourism, just like any other language variety, was investigated for its capacity to unveil some aspects of tourism as a prosperous, market-driven industry. At the same time, language was used, or rather exploited, to impose rules of conduct and constraints on the relationships established between actors/providers and beneficiaries of tourist services.

Then, tourism has been linked with the linguistic research carried out in the fields of discourse analysis, critical discourse analysis, interactional analysis, etc., some insight methods which proved helpful in unveiling many of the hidden aspects of tourism discourse and tourism.

While language studies were more driven towards sociological issues and theories and followed a sociological bend, tourism studies also turned to sociology for the clarification of some fundamental concepts which, however, kept the industry growing. The study of the relationship between tourism and sociology started in antiquity but, after some less mature and consistent studies, gained momentum during the 1970s, 1980s and 1990s. The turning point of the sociology-driven research on tourism and on the language of tourism was represented by the outstanding works of Dann (1996), followed by Thurlow and Jaworsky (2003), Jaworsky and Pritchard (eds) (2005), Cappelli (2006), Fox (2006b), Phipps (2006), Brice (2007), Jaworsky, Thurlow, Ylanne-McEwen and Lawson (2007) and others.

Finally, tourism researchers saw in sociolinguistics a valuable aid to the investigation of the world of tourism.

Within this broad context, which became unrecognisably interdisciplinary, the present paper seeks to shed light on the relationships between the language of tourism, tourism and sociology. In this respect, the paper is built around the following main issues: the emergence of tourism education, the study of the language of tourism, the language of tourism as a specialised language, the sociology of tourism, the language of tourism and its sociological turn, and finally, a transdisciplinary view of the language of tourism and its relationship to tourism and sociology. Within this intricate web, the paper also highlights the role played by discourse analysis as a valuable contributor to the sociolinguistic study of tourism.
Precursory steps to the study of the language of tourism: the emergence of tourism education

The concern for the language of tourism and its subsequent, more rigorous study is rooted in at least two areas of enquiry: on the one hand, its emergence pays tribute to the development of tourism studies and the rise of tourism education, and on the other, its development is the result of the focus of linguistic research on the language of tourism as a specialized language.

Tourism education emerged slowly but it has developed both steadily and outstandingly over the last 50 years. According to some researchers, it developed in an ad hoc and unplanned way in several countries, resulting thus in a visible fragmentation, which has been perpetuated up to the present (Irimiea, 2009). In 1988 Goeldner admitted that tourism education was still emerging as a discipline, while Airey (1988) offered four approaches to the origin of tourism education in the UK: a first approach that locates the beginnings of tourism education in the early 1900s when the first courses trained chefs and waiters, a second approach which attributed its beginnings to the 1950s when courses for ticket agents and travel agency staff were initiated, a third approach according to which tourism education emerged in the 1960s as a distinct domain for hotel management courses, and a fourth approach which suggests that tourism education has been always part of geography or economic studies.

The emergence of tourism education raised another question that about its status: should tourism education be considered ‘a discipline per se, a relative new comer discipline to the academic world’, or ‘an older subliminal, accessorial discipline’ that branches out from other disciplines? Despite the uncertainty that surrounds the rise of tourism education, it has developed in an unprecedented way in the last two decades (Irimiea, 2009: 283).

Cooper, Shepherd and Westlake (1996) take a look back at the evolution of tourism education and remark that tourism courses were organized in developed countries in the 1970s and 1980s and that since there were no accepted academic or institutional frameworks for these courses, they developed in an ad hoc and unplanned way. The courses were organized as part of geography studies, as recreation or sport-related activities, or as part of hotel management studies. Such an uncoordinated approach, unregulated by standards, let alone by quality standards, resulted in the development of loose and fragmentary training systems.

Cooper (1996) opinionates that there were three ways in which the study of tourism has matured into an academic discipline: (1) sector-based courses have developed and influenced tourism education and training, (2) tourism courses have developed as fertilizers to other business studies by providing them with a vocational orientation- in this particular case tourism training has become an industry application, (3) tourism has grown from other traditional and standing disciplines, such as geography, sociology, and linguistics) which have expanded their concern over tourism. However, gradually, from the status of ‘add-on’ discipline, tourism has become a stand-alone, autonomous area of study and practice which has drawn its characteristics from 16 different areas and disciplines, including: anthropology, business, law, psychology, economics, political sciences, etc. (Jafari and Richie, 1981). The growth of tourism and its interdisciplinary character has called for a more consistent, responsible and thorough curriculum design and organization of training activities.

However, tourism education has moved towards a sociological approach in many of the universities which teach tourism or carry out research on tourism. Lanfant (1995) suggests that the sociology of tourism and its sociological object should capture the multi-polarity of tourism as a “total social phenomenon”. Lanfant (1995) also posits that to deal with tourism social theories does not mean only abstractly linking them with general sociology and its main paradigms, but also taking into consideration all social issues.

Finally, if we turn to the curricula design process of many European universities which embraced tourism studies we understand that the process was prevalingly influenced by the European projects under the coordination of the European Union. The projects’ most remarkable achievement was the collaboration of universities in view of bringing about cornerstone changes through reforms in tourism education. Most of the advances were the result of exchanges of good practices and intake of innovative teaching and learning strategies. The education and training programs offered to European students and staff under the framework of Tempus, Leonardo da Vinci, Grundtvig, Erasmus and other community programs gave a strong impetus to East and Center-European universities to develop rigorous and competitive tourism programs in line with the EU models. Teaching English for tourism purposes developed side by side with the development of tourism studies.
The evolution of *English for tourism* in an educational environment, in particular that of the Babes-Bolyai University of Cluj, has been accounted for by Irimiea (1998, 2008, 2009).

From understanding the broad picture which tourism education became part of, we shall move on to the language of tourism and show its staged development. It should be noted that before acquiring the status of ‘specialised’ language or ESP, the language of tourism emerged in the vicinity of tourism and business studies.

**The language of tourism**

*The development of teaching materials on the language of tourism*

The 1990s represented a period in which many linguists turned their attention to the study of other specialized languages as part of the endeavours to serve ESP (English for Specific Purposes) and EFL (English as a foreign language) teaching and learning needs. In this context, applied linguists became more inclined to research the language of science and technology, the legal language, the language of business communication and genre studies, varieties of languages, areas that tended to be more in demand. The language of tourism and its discourse attracted the interest of English language teachers only later as a consequence of the tremendous development of international tourism and the need to provide the tourists and the professionals with teaching methods and materials that could teach them the efficient or proficient use of English. Thus, tourism discourse became an object of scholarly concern in this thriving context. At the same time, tourism training materials were released to worldwide users, both teachers and students in the form of prolific and proficient teaching/course books (Duckworth, 1994; Jacob and Strutt, 1997).

The books on *English for tourism* adopted a communicative, topic-based and student-centred approach, while seeking to develop all the four skills involved in the use of tourism-related English. Second, the course books provided professional information in a friendly and interactive way aiming to improve the trainees’ familiarity with the professional areas of work. Third, the books provided excellent preparation opportunities for the major European examinations in English for Tourism, including the London Chamber of Commerce and Industry English for Tourist Industry exams.

The books written on *English for international tourism* thrived or prospered in the vicinity of other books for professionals and trainees, in general in the field of teaching business English. Such books were written in the 1970s and 1980s and included English on Business (Collins, 1984), English for Business (Ferrier Mavor, 1971), Write for Business (Doherty, M. et al., 1987), to mention just a few.

Tourism studies took off in close connection with concerns which addressed tourism-based topics. The range of books which turned attention to these topics included: *The Good Tourist* (K. Wood and S. House, 1992), *The Business of Tourism* (Holloway J.C.), *Tourism: The International Business* (Mill, R.C.), *Working in Tourism* (Times Newspapers and The Careers and Occupational Information Centre), *The Travel Agent* (Bottomley, R.M., 1992), etc. Such professional English language teaching books were included in various book series, one of which is the *Professional Reading Skills Series* (Prentice Hall International English Language Teaching series) issued in the 1990s.

These attempts to serve such teaching needs of English for tourism were continued in the first and second decade of the 21st century by writers such as Peter Strutt, Margaret O’Keeffe, Iwonna Dubicka (English for International Tourism), Anna Cowper (Pearson Education Limited, 2013), etc. Digital and friendlier .com support materials have known a wide distribution and consumption after the tremendous development of the internet. Such internet-shared materials included: https://www.learnenglishfeelgood.com/travelenglish/english-travel-airport1.html, https://www.fluentu.com/blog/english/english-for-tourism-and-hospitality/, etc.

**The language of tourism as a specialised language**

Side by side with these advancements in the teaching of English for tourism came the recognition of the language of tourism as a distinct, specialised or special language. The recognition was the result of the conjoined efforts and consensus among researchers such as Febas Borra (1978), Moeran (1983), Hollinshead (1999), Selwyn (1993), Boyer and Viallon (1994), Dann (1996) that tourism has ‘a language of its own’ (Dann, 1996).

From this recognition, it follows that its discourse, regardless of the medium of communication used, has a persuasive function or ‘even a social control’ one, where ‘the goals of the promoter are merged with the attributed satisfaction need of the consumer’ (Dann, 1996:247). Dann asserts that ‘Through pictures, brochures and other media, the language of
tourism attempts to seduce millions of people into becoming tourists and subsequently to control their attitudes and behaviour. As tourists, such people then contribute further to this language through the communication of their experiences’ (summary to the 1996 volume). Dann’s book represents a hallmark for the development of the language of tourism, since it provides the earliest sociolinguistic treatment of tourism and its language. In addition, in the same book Dann further postulates that ‘once a linguistic paradigm for tourism is accepted, it follows that the type of language it employs will vary according to the object of promotion and the corresponding needs which it attempts to fulfill’ (idem.). Following this consideration, Dann (1996) claims that the language of tourism can take the form of several registers as a result of the differences in topic and of the envisaged motivational appeal. From among the possible registers, Dann provides the example of ‘Greenspeak’ which he defines as the language of ‘eco-tourism’ (1996:48). He further explains that this register ‘exists not only on account of its subject matter (the environment), but also through the myriad ways it addresses the associated “green concerns” of its clients’ (idem.).

The sociology of tourism

Prior to engaging in the discussion of the language of tourism and its related sociological aspects, first we should take a closer look at the sociological insights into tourism. A remarkable work in this direction is David Cohen’s book The Sociology of Tourism: Approaches, Issues and Findings (1984: 373), which, in the ‘Introduction’, asserts that ‘The sociology of tourism is an emergent specialty concerned with the study of touristic motivations, roles, relationships, and institutions and of their impact on tourists and on the societies which receive them’. The author provides a brief survey of early contributions to the sociology of tourism, admitting that they were in German (cf Homberg 1978:36-37). Cohen notes the following stages in the development of sociological insights into tourism. The first stage is represented by early investigations written in German, beginning with L. von Wiese’s (1930) classic article and leading to the first full-length sociological work on the subject by H. J. Knebel (1960). A second stage was marked by Ogilvie’s (1933) book on tourism, the first social scientific treatise on the subject in English. Another, more consistent stage, characterised the post-World War research, when the ‘the rapid expansion of tourism provoked some spirited, critical writings (Mitford 1959; Boorstin 1964:77-117) and the first empirical studies (Nunez 1963, Forster 1964)’ (1984:373). The rise of the disciplinary studies was followed by the marked sociological turn in the 1970s:

The study of tourism as a sociological specialty rather than merely as an exotic, marginal topic emerged only in the 1970s with Cohen's (1972) typological essay and MacCannell's (1973) first theoretical synthesis. Since the mid-1970s, the field has grown rapidly, which is attested by the publication of a series of treatises and reviews (Young 1973; L. Turner & Ash 1975; MacCannell 1976; Noronha 1977; de Kadt 1979:3-76) and general collections of articles (V. L. Smith 1977c, 1978a; Cohen 1979d; de Kadt 1979:77-335; Lengyel 1980; Graburn 1983b). (1984:373-4).

Cohen (1984) chooses eight conceptual approaches from the number of general philosophical, ideological and theoretical approaches to tourism:

**Tourism as commercialized hospitality** with focus on the visitor component (Cohen 1974:545-46) of the tourist's role.

**Tourism as democratized travel**, with emphasis placed on the traveler component of the tourist role, where the tourist is viewed as a kind of traveler marked by some distinct analytical traits (Cohen 1974; P. L. Pearce 1982:280). Cohen opines that the authors who pioneered this approach regarded modern mass tourism as a democratized expansion of the aristocratic travel of an earlier age (Boorstin 1964:77-117). He also suggests that this perspective generated some important work on the historical transformation of touristic roles (e.g. Knebel 1960, L. Turner & Ash 1975).

**Tourism as a modern leisure activity**, where tourism is viewed as a type of leisure (Dumazdier 1967:123-38; P. L. Pearce 1982:20) and the tourist as a "person at leisure who also travels" (Nash 1981:462). The promoters of this perspective focus less on the deeper cultural significance of leisure activities, and take a functionalist view instead, one which identifies leisure-and hence tourism-with recreation (e.g. Scheuch 1981:1099; see also Cohen 1979b:183-85). Cohen estimates that this approach informs much of the macrosociological and institutional research on modern tourism (e.g. Dumazdier 1967:123-38; Scheuch 1981)(1984:375).

**Tourism as a modern variety of the traditional pilgrimage**, a perspective that focuses on the deeper structural significance of modern tourism and identifies it with pilgrimages in traditional societies (MacCannell 1973 :589; Graburn’s 1977) i.e. tourism as a form of the "sacred journey".
Tourism as an expression of basic cultural themes, an approach which emphasizes the deeper cultural meaning of tourism as perceived by tourists themselves (Gottlieb 1982: 167; cf Graburn 1983a).

Tourism as an acculturative process focused upon the effects that tourists have on their hosts and strive to integrate the study of tourism into the wider framework of the theory of acculturation (Nunez 1963:347-78).

Tourism as a type of ethnic relations, an approach that seeks to integrate the analysis of the tourist-host relationship into the wider field of ethnicity and ethnic relations (Pi-Sunyer 1977, Gamper 1981).

Tourism as a form of neocolonialism, which deals with the role of tourism in creating dependencies between tourism-generating, "metropolitan" countries and tourism-receiving, "peripheral" nations that replicate colonial or "imperialist" forms of domination and structural underdevelopment.

Cohen (1984) also specifies the major issues that should receive attention in the sociology of tourism, which, according to him, are: the tourist, tourists and locals and their relationships, the structure of the tourist system and the impact of tourism. Cohen recognizes in the conclusion to his article that 'sociology has only recently discovered tourism as a field of systematic inquiry, but that many sociologists still view it with suspicion or even disdain' and that 'it is hoped that this review helped to bring theory and empirical research closer together and to codify the field, as well as to further recognition of it as a legitimate and significant sociological specialty' (1984:388).

Another seminal book, similarly called The Sociology of Tourism, Theoretical and Empirical Investigations edited by Apostolopoulos, Yiorgos, Stella Leivadi, Andrew Yiannakis (first edition published in 1996, reprinted in 1999, 2000, 2001), is ‘a pioneering work aimed at introducing and legitimizing the sociological study of tourism in international academia’. Addressing tourism as an academic concern, in the 'Introduction' to the book Apostolopoulos contends that the book ‘is intended to “reinvent” an area first presented three decades ago’ based on the premise that ‘tourism as a far-reaching transnational industry continues to affect crucially the "post-industrial" world’(2001:4). The author admits that in the book ‘tourism is addressed in a conventional sociological text manner with all the major societal areas covered as they relate to the touristic phenomenon’(idem.). The authors of the volume approach the following themes that are tourism-bound: A sociological understanding of contemporary tourism, The tourism system and the individual, Structures of social inequality in the tourism system, Tourism, underdevelopment and dependency, Tourism and social change, and, finally, Towards a ‘new’ sociology of tourism. The editors and the authors state firmly that ‘a formal sociological approach to tourism will serve as a long-overdue vehicle for moving beyond a limited examination of the touristic phenomenon to a comprehensive understanding of all its socioeconomic, political, and cultural effects through a careful integration of grounded theory and empirical investigation’ (idem.)

In the same book, Dann Graham and Erik Cohen provide a synthetic ‘Sociological treatment of tourism’ (2001:304). Their sociological survey of tourism studies tackles: developmental (evolutionary and cyclical) perspectives or macro-level perspectives (showing how tourism has been institutionalized, industrialized and internationalized, with little emphasis on its impact on individuals); neo-Durkheimian perspectives, conflict and critical perspectives, functionalist perspectives, Weberian perspectives, formalism, phenomenology and ethnomethodology, and symbolic interactionism. They conclude their study with the words: ‘it appears that sociology itself provides only a partial interpretation of the multifaceted phenomenon of tourism. For a more complete picture, it is necessary to combine sociological insights with those from other social science disciplines.’ (1996:313).

It is noteworthy to point out that from the sociology-based approaches to tourism the ones that view it from a language and discourse perspective are ethnomethodology and symbolic interactionism. Both approaches are micro-approaches and focus on the individual in society. In regard to ethnomethodology, the authors admit that it seeks to investigate the ‘undeclared assumptions of human action and discourse, and in that sense could be appropriate for an examination of touristic stereotypes and clichés’ (1996:310). In spite of the fact that Dann Graham and Erik Cohen (1996) mention only one example, that of McHugh, Raffel, Foss and Blum (1974), who have adopted an ethnomethodological perspective for the study of tourism, they emphasize the relevance of such an approach to the analysis of the tourists’ conduct and the tourism industry.

From among the surveyed approaches, the symbolic interaction approach turns to be more influential on tourism researchers and linguistics. Although, in its debut years, symbolic interactionism was mainly focused on the development of ‘Self’ through its components of ‘I’ and ‘Me’, later on the trend took to the detailed examination of ‘the process of role
negotiation by individuals, through which definitions of situations were exchanged, accepted, modified or rejected’ (Dann & Cohen, 1996:311).

In his research on tourism and the language of tourism Dann (1989) examined the ‘tourist as a child’ posture and how it is checked by the industry through its ‘language of social control’ (in brochures, travelogs, advertisements, couriers, guides, etc). The researchers who adopted the interactional approach (Dann, 1989; Mayo and Jarvis 1981) found that transactional analysis can be applied to many kinds of relationships that involve participants who are involved both directly and indirectly in the tourism industry. The practice has been taken up by airlines and hotels which use the transactional approach to train their staff. Other researchers have investigated the dynamics of role negotiation in touristic encounters, in particular the asymmetric one-to-one relationships. The interactionist perspective has also been applied to the content of tourist interviews. The interactionist perspective also permitted referencing back to Goffman’s (1959) ‘presentation of self in everyday life’. Dann & Cohen (1996:311) suggest that ‘yet, there is a great deal in Goffman which has been underutilized by tourism researchers’. Interactionist analysis has also taken the direction of semiotics and semiology (Barthes, 1984). Such studies have applied the semiotic approach to the exploration of tourism promotional literature, some of which have focused on the ‘people content’ of brochures. They have also investigated the way in which the industry attempts to control the interaction of tourists, hotel staff and locals through the use of pictures and verbal descriptions.

Finally, all these developments stay proof of the vastness of the issues that tourism works with or is related with, its multimodal and inter- or multidisciplinary character, while language has always been its medium. Indeed, the work began by Dann & Cohen (1996) surely calls out for more and further collaboration initiatives and openness, if sociological theorizing on tourism should progress.

A while later, in 2010, Thurlow and Jaworsky admitted that

‘tourism as the world’s single largest international trade and as a truly global cultural industry (Urry, 2002), is a major site (a social, cultural and economic domain) for the banal enactment of globalization. Tourism is a deeply “semiotic industry” committed to the production, commodification and representation of culture and cultural difference; language is clearly an essential resource in this cultural production’ (2010:227).

The language of tourism and its sociological turn

Language and sociology

The relationship between language and sociology goes back to some early and key stages that marked the rise of sociolinguistics. The first step is that represented by the oral treaties on phonetics and language structure produced by Pânini and his followers in India in 500 BC, which stimulated the development of independent traditions. The second achievement was the year 1786 when Sir William Jones delivered a seminal speech concerning the relations between Sanskrit, Latin, Greek and other ancient languages. This is the moment when ‘linguistics enters a historical phase in which principles of language comparison and classification emerge’ (Mesthrie, R, Swann, J., et al., 2000:3). The third step forward was the emergence of ‘structuralism’ promoted by Ferdinand de Saussure in Europe and Leonard Bloomfield and others in the USA in the early twentieth century. Their linguistic concern was focused on the internal systems of languages rather than on the historical comparison of languages. The fourth major linguistic event was the publication of Noam Chomsky’s Syntactic Structures in 1957, which shifted attention to psycho-biological aspects, in particular to the way in which a language is acquired by children on the basis of a ‘universal grammar’ common to all languages. Scholars like Franz Boas, Leonard Bloomfield and Edward Sapir contributed a cultural or anthropological interest in languages. Such anthropological studies of language represent the forerunners of some branches of sociolinguistics, in particular the ethnographical approach to language study.

The term ‘sociolinguistics’ is considered to have been first used by Haver Currie, who was a poet and a philosopher and who noticed that research into language matters did not pay any attention to the sociological aspects that could be involved in the use of language. Further significant works on sociolinguistics belong to Weinreich (Languages in Contact, 1953), an account of bilingualism, and Einar Haugen, whose two volumes were an account of the social history of the Norwegian language spoken in America (1953). To these works, Joos (1962) added discussions on the dimensions of style.

Chomsky’s contribution to linguistics and sociolinguistics in the 1960s by ‘abstracting language away from everyday contexts ironically led to the distillation of a core area of sociolinguistics, opposed to his conception of language’ (Mesthrie,
R., Swann, J et al., (2000:4). Chomsky shifted thus attention on an ‘idealized competence’ and noted:

‘Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors…’(1963:3)

In spite of the recognized merits of his theory, in particular of the theory of syntax and phonology, Chomsky’s approach marked a break between the sociolinguists who approached language use within human societies and Chomsky’s followers, whose interest rested with an ‘idealized, non-social, psycholinguistic competence’(Mesthrie, R., Swann, J. et al., 2000:4).

While Chomsky’s work deals with the structures that can be generated in language and with the means that enhance that generation/production, the social approach to language seeks to explain what can be said in a language, by whom, when, where, in what ways and under what social circumstances (Fishman, 1971; Hymes, 1971; Saville-Troike, 1982, quoted in Masstrie et al, 2000). These sociolinguists viewed language acquisition not as a mere cognitive process, based on a predisposition in the human brain, but as a social process as well, which takes place in a social context through social interaction. Hence, they argue that the child’s acquisition of its first language is not a passive process, but one which is sensitive to social contextual (‘environmental’) conditions, including the social identity of the people it closely interacts with.

Dell Hymes departed from Chomsky’s definition and study of linguistic competence, claiming that a child who produces a sentence without due regard to the social and linguistic context would be a ‘social monster’ (1974:775), very much likely to be institutionalised. Hymes defined ‘comunicative competence’ as the ability to use language appropriately in different contexts and circumstances. He took his study further in the direction of social-bound aspects indicating when it is appropriate to talk or to keep silent, providing rules of turn-taking, the amount of simultaneous talk and so on.

One issue that generated debate among scholars and was noted by Mesthrie, R., Swann, J. et al., (2000) as persistent in 2000, was the distinction between sociolinguistics (proper) and the sociology of language. Mesthrie, R., Swann, J. et al. (2000:5) suggest that

’some scholars believe that the former [sociolinguistics] is part of the terrain mapped out in linguistics, focusing on language in society for the light that social contexts throw upon language. For these scholars, the latter (sociology of language) is primarily a sub-part of sociology, which examines language use for its ultimate illumination of the nature of societies’.

Mesthrie, R., Swann, J. et al. (2000) viewed the two areas as alter egos and not as a dichotomized pair and agreed that the terms macro- and micro-linguistics could and would express this distinction. According to them, macro-studies involve ‘the examination of large-scale patterns relating to social structures (the focus is broad, as in the study of multilingualism in a country). Micro-studies examine finer patterns in contexts (for example, conversational structure or accents in a particular community)’ (Mesthrie, R., Swann, J. et al., 2000:5).

Mesthrie, R., Swann, J. et al. (2000:6) emphasise the relations between language and society in their 2000 book. They go out from the statement that, beside its denotive function, language provies signals about the speaker’s social and personal background, being thus ‘indexical of one’s social class, status, region of origin, gender, age group and so on’. Sociolinguists also argue that language ‘not only reflects societal patterns and divisions but also sustains and reproduces them. Thus, ways of talking do not reflect the social organisation of a community but form a practice that becomes a part of the social organisation, and as such become involved in exprssing the power relations in a society’(idem.).

The relationship between language and thought has been expressed by Benjamin Lee Worf and Edward Sapir, who argued that speakers of different languages may be led to different types of observations and evaluations of exactly similar phenomena. This assumption became known as the Worf-Sapir hypothesis and was recorded by Whorf (1956:213) in the following words: ‘we dissect nature along the lines laid down by our native language’. However, language does not have such a strong hold on communities or its members and cannot prevent individuals from viewing things from different perspectives. This assumption was rendered in Gillian Sankoff’s (1986:xxi) words: ‘in the long term language is more dependent on the social world than the other way around…Language does facilitate social intercourse, but if the situation is sufficiently compelling, language will bend’(idem.).

Their hypothesis resulted yet in another suggestion, that ‘real translation between widely different languages is not possible’ (Mesthrie, R., Swann, J. et al., 2000:7).

Mesthrie, R., Swann, J. et al. (2000) also tackle language ‘as a social construct’ and ‘languages as individual entities which
belong to specific societies. They use the term ‘variety’ to avoid sensitive debates over the identification of a ‘language’ or a ‘dialect’ and conclude that what counts as a language and what does not is judged according to sociopolitical issues. They exemplify this concern with the example of Danish and Norwegian, where for centuries Danish was the official language (as Norway was ruled by Denmark), while Norwegian was regarded as a dialect. Norwegian became the ‘official language’ upon the declaration of Norway’s independence. They also hold that language varieties exist as ‘geographical continua without natural divisions into “languages”’ (2000:10).

The language of tourism and its sociological turn

Dann’s contribution to the development of the sociolinguistic perspective to the language of tourism (1996)

From language and its relationship to society, we turn to the language of tourism, its social functions and the underlying social aspects. Dann’s seminal work The Language of Tourism: A Sociolinguistic Perspective (1996) claims that tourism has a discourse of its own, that ‘tourism, indeed, constitutes discourse’, that the language of tourism performs many social functions: as an instrument of the consumers’ active involvement (both in the process of consumption and in the process of co-creating language, which, in turn, induces them to consume), as a process of social control (by the norms and values), and as a medium of socialization (employed by all stakeholders involved in activities and the development of their identities).

Dann notes that ‘The language constitutes a very special type of communication, one which differs from other forms of human exchange since it represents the largest industry in the world- that of tourism.’ (1996:1). He further deplores the lack of interest shown by researchers to it: ‘amasingly, no one has expansively investigated it as a phenomenon in its own right’ and insists that ‘Certainly there have been some studies which have alluded to the linguistic features of tourism promotion, but none has so far brought them together and systematically examined tourism as a language per se.’ (1996:2)

He compares the language of tourism with other ‘languages’ such as the language of architecture’, or the ‘language of music’ and admits that ‘These have various facets of life, have various ways of communicating to us’ (1996:2). Dann enumerates their functions:

They are structured. They follow certain grammatical rules and have specialized vocabularies. They are in many senses language-like in their properties. Analogically, too, these languages convey messages, they have a heuristic or semantic content, they operate through a conventional system of symbols and codes. Many also include the equivalent of dialects and registers. (1996:2)

Dann recognizes the role language plays in tourism given that tourists read about destinations before their departure, and become driven to those destinations by the power of the language. This dependence of tourists on the persuasive power of language is a two way process. Tourists do feed back into this discourse. They have their own way of constructing images from the information supplied to them by the tourism industry and other independent sources. They build their own systems of expectation, and, when these do not mesh with the promises held out by the language of tourism, one will clearly discern the voice of complaint. On the other hand, when tourists are satisfied with their experiences, they contribute to the language of tourism by becoming promoters themselves’ (1996: 3)

Dann argues that the language of tourism is a ‘code’ whose praxis has the value of language for a group (Thurot, 1989). Quoting Kemper (1993: 594), he states that ‘too can one legitimately refer to the “language of tourism” as a “language of modernity”, promotion and consumerism. Indeed, so extensive and pervasive is the language of tourism that it merits thorough investigation by tourism researchers’ (1996:4). Referring to the language and discourse of tourism, he also admits Hollinshead’s view (1993 a:527, 529) that ‘although language can be considered neutral, discourse is value-committed. Discourse, through the processes of domination and subjectification, is said to commit violence on people and things and to impose authoritative limits on thought and action’ (1996:4). He further explains that this led to several authors’ reflecting on the notion of social constraint- and using the term ‘discourse’ or ‘the discourse of tourism’.

Trying to point out the difference between the language of tourism and rhetoric, Dann states:

Some academics also refer to the “rhetoric of tourism”, which similarly implies the use the power by the speaker to impress the addressee. Rhetoric differs from discourse in its “manner of exercising such power, since above all it is “the art of
persuasive or impressive speaking or writing” (Concise Oxford Dictionary, 1959: 1050)- based on eloquence and deceit. (1996:5)

Dann also refers to the ‘increasing evidence of various semiotic approaches towards the analysis of tourism and speaks of 4 major theoretical approaches which have contributed significantly to understanding tourism: authenticity, strangerhood, play and conflict. He states that their sociolinguistic correlates are: authentification, differentiation, recreation, and appropriation.

In Chapter 4, ‘Tourism as a language of social control in prototypical forms of tourism’, Dann looks back at the history of tourism and provides evidence of the type of tourism carried out in ancient Rome and other more attractive resorts and places. Hash (1979, citing Balsdon, 1969) also describes the leisure and travel activities of Romans (games, festivals, pilgrimages, trips to spas) and the excesses associated with resorts. Dann holds that ‘He [Hash] quotes passages from Seneca and Cicero to show that these pursuits were expressed in the literature and oratory of the period. In other words, and even at this early stage, there was a definite connection between the language of tourism and tourism itself’ (Dann, 1996:70).

Dann emphasizes the power of words providing as example the discussion between St. Augustine and St. Ambrose over the Roman tradition of fasting (on Saturdays as opposed to the Christian tradition of fasting on Sundays). Ambrose’s solution was rendered in the saying: ‘When I am here (i.e. in Milan) I do not fast on Sabbath. When in Rome I do’. This explanation has been recorded in the words: ‘When in Rome I do as the Romans do’. This saying records the assumption that ‘the normative requirements of travel have their origins in the language of tourism, a language of prescription and proscription’ (1996:70). Going out from this example, Dann quotes the history of the evolution of tourism in relation to language, opining that the later centuries provided other guides to travelling and relaxation. Travel writers gave a greater impulse to tourism, again certifying the contribution of language to the development and promotion of tourism.

From the older times Dann moves on to ‘Tourism as the language of social control in contemporary tourism’ and starts from the paradoxes of tourism: freedom (external, internal) versus constraints. He views tourists as determined by the place they are coming from and states that their place of origin will define them who they are and how they interpret what they see. At the other end of the interaction, the tourist’s demand has to be channelled and mastered by the tourism industry. In this regard, Dann (1996:75) quotes Micoud’s words (1994: 307) that ‘International tourism becomes a monolithic system with its own set of formalities to which the individual is subjected and all but disappears’.

In discussing ‘The linguistic underpinnings of tourism as a language of social control’ Dann goes out from the illocutionary force of the imperative, which is expressed through a request or command (as in ‘Eat your breakfast’, ‘Let’s have lunch’). In turn, requests or commands can also be expressed through other means (declarative, interrogative, exclamatory). It is through such devices that a language can exercise control over people. To emphasise his point he quotes Burke (1966) who sustains that ‘language is essentially hortatory, a medium through which the cooperation with others is sought. This basic quality is more evident in rhetoric where the attempt to persuade or dissuade is even more evident’ (1996:79).

How does social control come into play in the use of language? To prove his point, Dann shows how the tourism industry through its specific establishments and organised activities sets up constraints as to what and how tourists should behave and act as tourists. His book thus turns into the argument that, in spite of the apparent freedom promised by tourist agencies, hotels and other forms of tourism, tourism as a set of institutionalized activities restricts this liberty. First and foremost, according to Roberts (1994:4-5):

All sociologists hesitate before describing any time as totally free, or any experience as freely chosen... Most people’s leisure is constrained by economic and political structures, social stratification and prevailing moral conceptions of proper conduct... (Even though) people distinguish leisure from work, they say it is intrinsically motivated, rather than externally constrained.

In line with these assertions, Roberts assumes that although individuals are freed from their professional or social duties, ‘they are not automatically free to do anything they wish, since they come under a new set of constraints’ (idem.).

Dann looks further at how tourism acts ‘as a language of social control in hotels and resorts’. According to Dann, a hotel, for example, can be considered ‘as an establishment which encapsulates tourists protecting them from outside dangers’ and affirms that ‘Through its total institution-like qualities, the hotel above all manages its protégés’ (1996:88). Dann quotes
Wood’s assumption that hotels ‘are in essence agents of social control’ (Wood, 1994 quoted in Dann, 1996:88), and that ‘the larger the hotel the greater the social control exercised by the management’ (Wood, 1994 cited in Dann, 1996:88). In a most general sense, social control is a regulation of human behavior and tourists recognize that there are both implicit obligations to use the services provided by a hotel as well as constraints upon their enjoyment. This assumption led to another trend that of self-catering and to some other forms, such as mass tourism, Club Méditerranée (Club Med), etc. in tourism.

Dann’s book stimulated and influenced other sociolinguistic investigations into the language of tourism (Thurlow and Jaworsky, 2003; Jaworski and Pritchard (eds) 2005; Cappelli, 2006; Fox 2006b; Phipps, 2006; Brice, 2007; Jaworsky, Thurlow, Ylanne-McEwen and Lawson, 2007), which insisted rather on language as ‘a creator of identities, power and social differences in the context of tourism’ (Fox, 2008: 20).

2. Further achievements

From the groundbreaking analysis and conclusions expressed by Dann (1996), the present paper will discuss the further achievements of the sociolinguistic approach to tourism.

Giving credit to Dann’s book, Fox (2008) notes that over the last decade the prominent turn in the language of tourism research and in tourism is the sociolinguistic turn, represented by Dann (1996), Jaworski and Pritchard (eds.) (2005), Jaworski, Thurlow, Ylanne-McEwen and Lawson (2007). Fox explains that ‘The new angle has redirected the research into English language in tourism towards explicit links between theoretical and empirical perspectives on the tourist experience, identity, performance and authenticity within the frame of sociolinguistics and discourse analysis’ (2008:14).

The dominant sociological bend noticed in western tourism research has been acknowledged by Dann and Liebman Parrinello (2009: 1), who note in the Abstract to their book: ‘Currently there is abundant evidence of the quasi-total domination of the sociology and anthropology of tourism by academics from the English-speaking world, a situation that appears to be aided and abetted by the publishers of books and articles in English. The authors claim that ‘This volume is the first attempt of its kind to familiarise readers in the US, UK, Australia and the English speaking regions of Africa and Asia with such evolutionary thinking. In such a manner, also, it will be possible to discern, contextualize and better appreciate the European roots of subsequent theorising in the Anglophone world, thereby enabling a more accurate assessment of its hitherto unchallenged claims to originality’ (Idem.).

In the book written in 2009, Dann Graham and Liebman Parrinello Giuli take a closer and a more ambitious look at tourism in its relation to social theories and their emergence in various countries in Europe. Their study was aimed at drawing up a comparative study of tourism-related social theories that emerged in Europe.

On the other hand, the relationship between language – tourism-sociology was enriched by the intake of discourse analysis as a more reliable method. Critical discourse analysis has been given the greatest credit for unveiling the sociological underpinnings of tourism.

As the promoter of Critical discourse analysis (CDA), Fairclough defines it as a form of critical social analysis which focuses upon relations between discourse and other aspects of social life, claiming that its critique is in part ethical. Fairclough states that CDA is both normative critique and explanatory critique (Chouliaraki & Fairclough 1999: 33, 59-69; Fairclough 2015: 10-13), while his more recent works point to an ethical critique which is a part of normative critique. In his 2015 article, he regards ethical critique as primarily a critique of actions, but, at the same time, actions are conditioned and constrained by social practices, institutions and structures, so ethical critique needs to be extended to them, he suggests. It should be understood with no doubt that what Fairclough defines ethical critique will expand over much of what is being said or written as part of any discourse.

Discussion: Transdisciplinarity. The relationship between language, tourism and sociology

All these achievements, in particular the adoption of sociolinguistics by the tourism-based disciplines, disciplines such as destination management, marketing or branding, hospitality, etc., represents a proof of the transdisciplinarity of tourism as a field of study, which grows on the contribution of other disciplines. In addition, according to Fox, ‘the adoption of sociolinguistics as an accredited theory (or a set of theories) by the scholars in tourism and the tendency to work with other disciplines would dispel its “undisciplined” character (Tribe, 1997)” (2008: 20). Fox argues that ‘sociolinguistics can provide a researcher with an objective insight into the language – tourism relationship’, explaining that ‘more precisely, it offers a
theoretical frame for the systemic and critical analysis of the use of language in tourism from a variety of perspectives’ (2008:21).

On the other hand, in the first decade of the 21st century, the language of tourism acquired a distinctive status and became a means of investigating other areas of concern to tourism, such areas as destination marketing, management, branding, hospitality, advertising, sociology of tourism. In this respect, according to Fox (2008:13-14), English in tourism ‘has been highlighted as a factor of the process of “language brokerage” (Cohen and Cooper 1986), as a means of promoting a global lifestyle (Thurlow and Jaworski 2003), as a key element of tourist destination branding (Morgan, Pritchard and Pride /eds./ 2002), as enabling individuals to experience their identity through tourism (Palmer 2005), as shaping a tourist destination (Cappelli 2006), as a key factor of tourists’ perceptions (Phipps 2006), as a carrier of a destination’s “sovereign subjectivity” (Bryce 2007) and, not least, as crucial for the new theorising of tourism (Ateljevic, Pritchard and Morgan /eds./ 2007).’

Fox (2008) assumes that the growth of transdisciplinarity in any field of study, including tourism, accounts for the fast progress towards mode - 2 knowledge; according to her mode – 2 knowledge is a new type of knowledge which involves a variety of mechanisms of creating/communicating knowledge, participants from numerous disciplinary backgrounds, and a great diversity of sites in which knowledge is produced. Fox explains the significance of ‘mode - 2 knowledge’:

‘Unlike traditional forms of knowledge, usually referred to as mode- 1 knowledge, which are disciplinary, homogenous, hierarchical and dictated by the interests of academic communities, mode - 2 knowledge production is transdisciplinary, heterogenous, heterarchical and transient’ (2008:20).

Fox (2008: 20) resumes the benefits of the transdisciplinary character of tourism and the contribution sociolinguistics can bring to its growth:

‘Therefore, the adoption of sociolinguistics as supportive to the theory of tourism will constitute a decisive move towards a new paradigm of tourism research which will lead to the generation of new types of knowledge and, in turn, enable new insights into the increasingly complex relationship between language and tourism.’

Fox further suggests that ‘a sociolinguistic understanding’ of, for example, a tourist destination’s public discourse enables researchers, and practicing managers too, to recognise a tourist destination’s public discourse as much more than just feeding information cum promotion to the consumer’ (2008:21). In addition, Fox concludes that

A tourist destination language/discourse researchers’ awareness of the indispensability of sociolinguistics to a systemic understanding of a destination’s public discourse will gradually make sociolinguistics an integral part of a metatheorising tourism: a process aimed both at an improved understanding of the existing theories within tourism as a field of study, and at further development of the theory of tourism itself, that is, at creating perspectives that overarch the existing theory by involving a seemingly distant field of study: sociolinguistics. (2008:21)

She agrees that sociolinguistics can contribute a theoretical multi-perspective frame to the analysis of the language used in tourism, which is what other scholars have tried to demonstrate as well.

**Conclusion**

Tourism has become a global phenomenon in the post-modern society, owing much of its development to its relationship with language. Over the last two decades, the use of language in tourism has attracted interest from many other tourism-related fields and has drawn in considerable sociolinguistic research.

From a timid start up in the 1950s and 1960s, tourism education has gained more focus and has acquired a steady growth in the last decades of the 20th century. Against the background of the development of tourism education and applied linguistics, the present study argues that the language of tourism slowly made its way into tourism, tourism education and sociolinguistics. However, the relationship between the language of tourism and tourism and sociology is a two way relationship, to which, indeed, both tourism and sociology bring their useful contribution.

The present study surveyed the development of teaching materials on the language of tourism by emphasising the role played by the rise of English for tourism as a specialised language in the larger context of the 1990s advancements in linguistic studies.
The link between tourism and sociology was noted by Lanfant (1995) who also suggested that the sociology of tourism and its sociological object should capture the multi-polarity of tourism. To give relevance to the sociological turn of the language of tourism, the present article tackled the relationship between language and sociology and then the relation that sociology bears to tourism. The remarkable and seminal works of Cohen (1984), Apostolopoulos, et al. (1996), Dann (1996), and Dann and Cohen (1996) in the field of the sociology of tourism have been discussed.

However, the article’s main focus has been the sociological turn of the language of tourism, a phenomenon that marked the 21st century. Broadly speaking, the 21st century has resulted in two firm and discernable perspectives on the language of tourism and its study. On the one hand, the language of tourism has acquired a more investigative turn which headed in the direction of applied linguistic studies, moving towards discourse analysis, multimodal analysis (Faircough, 2012) and semiotic discourse analysis. On the other hand, the transdisciplinary studies have gone in the direction of tourism. Such investigations have been carried out in multiple tourism-related fields or other areas of concern to tourism, such as: destination marketing, destination management, branding, hospitality, advertising and so on. For these tourism-related areas of scholarly concern the study of the language of tourism turned into an active and useful contributor to their study (Fox, 2008).

On the other hand, another research perspective which liaises English for tourism with sociology, has resulted in the adoption of a profound sociological approach to tourism, a phenomenon detailed in the final sections of the article. In this respect, the paper also sought to underscore the deep and interdependent relationship between tourism, the language of tourism and sociology. Then, quoting Fox (2008:14), the article mentions the new angle represented by Dann (1996), Jaworski and Pritchard (eds.) (2005), and Jaworski, Thurlow, Ylanne-McEwen and Lawson (2007) who have ‘redirected the research into English language in tourism towards explicit links between theoretical and empirical perspectives on the tourist experience, identity, performance and authenticity within the frame of sociolinguistics and discourse analysis’ (2008:14). The dominant sociological bend noticed in western tourism research has been acknowledged by Dann and Liebman Parrinello in their 2009 work.

Finally, as a corollary of the presented views and assumptions, the article points out the transdisciplinary character of the language of tourism. The growth of transdisciplinarity in any field of study has become an incontestable reality and English in tourism is no exception. As suggested by Fox (2008) it has become a factor of the process of ‘language brokerage’, a means of studying other areas of concern to tourism, from destination management, branding, advertising, hospitality to sociological issues and investigations that pertain to the individual’s perception of tourism, tourist experience, identity, performance and authenticity (Fox, 2008).

Bibliography


Parnwell (Eds.) *Tourism in South Asia*, London, Routledge


Abstract

Euthanasia or "sweet death" is a topic that has sparked numerous debates throughout history. In Albania, the right to life is protected by Article 21 of the Constitution of the Republic of Albania. Regarding the individual's right to die in Albania, both forms of euthanasia, the passive and the active one, are considered criminal offenses and are punishable by law. The problem lies in the fact that such a definition is not found in the Albanian legislation, but such actions are considered as criminal by the interpretation of the law. In this topic we will study the perception of Albanians regarding euthanasia and whether the Albanian legislation should include this form of soft death or not. The protection of life in the country should take the dimensions of a sustainable protection. For this reason, in addition to the positive effects of improving life protection that derive from the application of the entirety of the various criminal justice programs and policies, also including the recent amendments to the Criminal Code of the Republic of Albania, a concrete and continuous protection should be provided in support of the right to life. I have always drawn a debate on this issue, which deals with the fundamental human right, with the most sacred right, that of life.

Keywords: euthanasia, passive euthanasia, active euthanasia, human rights, life protection, legal basis, suffering, etc.

Introduction

The word euthanasia comes from two Greek words, which has a positive meaning and the sense of death: In the first view, euthanasia has always created the idea of an action which caused harm to a person, while this action leads to the end of the life of the being human. By browsing and searching a great number of substantial materials, I see euthanasia as an individual's right to self-determination, to die in the time and manner chosen by him while suffering from incurable diseases, rather than continue to suffer and have an even more bitter end.

On the other hand, euthanasia can also be viewed from the perspective that it is not be a matter of self-determination and personal conviction because it is an act that requires two people to make it happen. Euthanasia is considered the same as murder, which is against law everywhere in civilized societies.

Albania's opening up to the global world, besides a number of positive outcomes for the country, is accompanied by the emergence of a number of phenomena, some of which are not foreseen or regulated to provide efficient protection of life or to allow the practice of what is known as light death. Some of these phenomena include our criminal legislation in terms of life protection in our country.

1. Study Background

Euthanasia is a human right to end life without suffering. It is often called "sweet murder". There are two types of euthanasia called active voluntary euthanasia and passive voluntary euthanasia. The first is a series of actions that tend to end a person's life, while the second is a treatment, care or assistance to end a person's life. Both passive and active euthanasia can also be non-voluntary. Action in both the active and passive euthanasia can be done without the patient's request.

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person's life, while the second is a treatment, care or assistance to end a person's life. Both passive and active euthanasia can also be non-voluntary. Action in active and passive euthanasia can be done without the patient's request.

Historian Suetonius (AD 63-14) describes how Emperor August, dying quickly and painlessly in the hands of his wife Livia, used the term Euthanasia to show what she wanted at that moment. While the philosopher and married man Francis Bacon (1561-1626) was the first to use the term euthanasia in the medical context, saying that the doctor's role was not only to improve the patient's health but to ease the pain and suffering, and not only when this relief could help improve health but also when it could serve to make a straightforward and upright transition to death. Patients who were almost dead could not be abandoned, but every possible care needed to help them leave this world in a lighter and more gentle way. This was the prevailing thought until the twentieth century. XIX, which accurately depicted what we mean today with sedatives, or medications that allow us to easily die.

2. Euthanasia in various countries of the world

At the beginning of our century in all civilized countries there was an all-inclusive defense of life. In no country abortion was allowed or tolerated, wherever it was strictly punishable. In no country euthanasia was allowed. Suicide itself was not punishable, but, assisting the victim to commit this act was punishable.

However, euthanasia, the so-called easy death, which has been allowed or discussed in many countries, mainly in the Netherlands, basically only makes a difference if the murder occurs with or without the consent of the victim. In the criminal law and in the rules of ethics is accepted as a negative action or is not positively assessed the consent of the person against whom this action is directed.

A healthy person does not want to live in a serious illness and may prefer death when he is ill. In addition, relatives may be tired of being cared for or those who have a duty to pay an annual pension for his life may exert pressure to lead to the killing of this person by claiming mercy for him.

The German Constitution, in Article 2, second paragraph, states that "Everyone has the right to life and physical integrity", but in the third paragraph of this article, it is said that a statutory law may violate these rights. Euthanasia has also been the subject of long discussions, but without any legislative result. The German Federal Court, in a decision of 4 July 1984, against a physician accused of neglecting a person who had just committed suicidal attempts to release his release.

The doctor had found the person still alive after a suicide attempt and had not shown proper care, which could have saved the patient's life. The doctor stayed all the time with the patient until he died. The main argument used by the court in its decision to release a doctor was that from the legal point of view the unclear attitude of the physician could not be considered because he stayed with the patient until his final death, in the sign of respect for the personality of the deceased. In Germany, much has been discussed about the person's right to self-determination for his death. But in Germany alone, we must not forget that Hitler has issued a voluntary death order since the day he started World War II.

In Switzerland, the right to life as a constitutional right is based on an unwritten constitutional law. The Federal Court recognizes the protection of the right to life, in particular in the decision of 28 June 1972, where inter alia the Court. Federal says: The Constitution primarily protects human life. The constitutional right of life in comparison to other fundamental rights of the individual to give personal liberty is characterized by the fact that interference in a person's life means an absolute violation of his rights and constitutes a violation of the Constitution itself. The constitutional right to the protection of life in this way can not tolerate any violation.

In Austria, euthanasia is still punishable, it is considered as a murder at the request, provided for in Article 77 of the Criminal Code. Giving suicide to suicide is punishable, from six months to five years in prison.

The permit for active euthanasia under Article 115 of the Dutch Criminal Code was requested by a member of the National Council, V. Ruffy, through a motion in 1994, which corresponds to the new arrangement in the Netherlands. How successful it is still uncertain.

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1 Council of Europe (2003). Euthanasia, ethical and human aspects. Germany: Council of Europe
In Hungary the problem of euthanasia is being discussed long. But apart from the prohibition of suicide aid provided for in Article 168 of the Criminal Code, there is no other legal provision to address this issue.

While recently, in our country this debate has not yet been opened. Our Penal Code provides for a criminal offense, any form, way or aid that is intended to take the life of the individual.

3. Euthanasia related to criminal law.

Before we get into discussing legal problems with regard to euthanasia (light death), we must first undertake a review of what are the basic principles of protecting human life and its limits. Indeed, all the positions and choices that are presented to man in the analyses made to bring in two different types of important principles of necessity and self-interest, which should be seen as a strong reference point, as to the consistency of approved, with an integral vision of things, as for the clear awareness that individual human concepts stand at the base of his personal choices.

For the concept of necessity, man is conceived of a man object, man of things, and for this is used for extrapersonal-individual or egoistic purposes. This conclusion of this conception is the principle of human opportunity, and where the logical limit lies in the collective or social usefulness of the instrumental use of one, which means, on the one hand, the widespread possession of society and the obligation to be cured to fulfill the duties of in the community. This utilitarian perspective is called for "a free space by law" because legal science is not legitimized to take care of euthanasia because it is an exclusive issue of philosophy and religion alone to decide that human life can be without value.

But we can say that creating a free space from the law for the sick in this state means lifting this category out of legislation and denying that right to everyone in a modern state of law to have a physician to decide if a life is worth living and to be preferred to a person who has an immediate death or a life filled with suffering.

There is a very clear distinction between what is called manus proprietal possession that is legally legitimate and possession manu alius that is legally illegal.

The principle of non-possession of your own life or manus propria is based on the following principles: protection of life, physical integrity and human health, protection of the dignity of the person, of human dignity, equality, consent etc. The concept of the “personal”, which is embraced by the constitution, focuses on the person as a priority in his essence, in harmony with his dignity and his development in the protection of his life, of obtaining consent and of human dignity, solving here the problem of legitimacy of euthanasia.

The problem that arises is not that of pure euthanasia, for the sole reason that it has always been regarded as legal to have medical treatment against suffering, used in a subject at the highest level of his pain and suffering, but not to cause death nor to anticipate it is because the purpose of medicine is not only the salvation from death and healing, but also the reduction of the pain of the patient by assisting in the death process not by causing death.

On the other hand, active euthanasia helps to cause death and is therefore considered illegal, and especially euthanasia without consensus, both in the form of individual mercy and in the common consent form, because it contradicts the principle of the protection of human life, and the principle of protecting human dignity that implies the right to death when it is not foreseen. But it is also illegal to practise active euthanasia with consensus because it contradicts the principle of protecting human life and exceeds the limit on the possession of your body, in accordance with your will and choice.

When considering passive euthanasia, the legal problem is resolved on the basis of the principle of inaction and therefore we have the responsibility of the doctor as his obligation to continue curing the patient. Therefore, it is important to make a distinction between passive euthanasia with consensus and passive euthanasia without consensus. With regard to the first, we are dealing with interruption of the treatment by the patient and as such will be considered legitimate on the basis of a patient’s right to decide for himself if he or she will die or live, and not on the basis of a doctor’s right to decide to put him to death, his personal subjective right to choose.

In the basic concept of consensus explicitly provided in the law, any intervention that will be imposed on a person must be based on his consensus. Thus the criminal responsibility of the doctor who does not cure the patient while respecting his will is not considered anymore. It should be emphasized here that we face very special and rare cases, and the decision to terminate the cure and to be left to die must be characterized by a voluntary quality act and such a decision made by a seriously ill person is difficult and not reliable. Considering passive euthanasia without consensus in the light of the principle...
of “the personal”, it is considered unlawful because at the moment the patient has expressed a desire to be treated and has not asked for the termination of the cure, the criminal responsibility of the doctor who decides to stop medical treatment, even if the disease is incurable and death. So this means that non-prohibition of death is otherwise translated as permitting it to happen. Here the doctor will be charged of murder even if he only anticipated the effect or death. From all this, as we can see above, we can say that there is a major deficiency in the Italian legal system to take into account this phenomenon, circumstances, and forms of euthanasia, as well as the legal illegality of euthanasia both passive and active (this is not the case when the patient has given consensus).

In the criminal code the case is broader and more complex and euthanasia without consensus have been foreseen as intentional murder, and when it is consensus-based it is called a criminal offense, assassination with the consensus of the subject, because giving consent does not mean that he is excluded from the legal responsibility. Since there is no norm that foresees the right to die from the hands of others, the doctor will be held responsible. The code does not foresee any cases when it comes to the view that the right of kill is exercised by the person himself, ie there is no criminal punishment for suicide.

3.1 The criminal code regarding euthanasia

Let us now examine the criminal legislation and the description of punishments given to euthanasia, meaning an act or practice used to end a life of great suffering. Such convictions are:

Helping a person in suicide.
Killing a person who expresses his consent to die.
Assassination of a subject regardless of whether or not he or she does not give his consent.

We need to highlight the fact that all such actions are illegal and punishable. Here it is necessary to verify the conformity of the norms of positive law that protect the human life with different forms presented by the practice of euthanasia.

In most cases, euthanasia practices are not practiced within individualistic subjective goals but with the support, and help of other persons.

Euthanasia as a practice that always implies a material or moral implication of another person, and not only in the capacity of the executor, but in the sense that he participates emotionally in a matter of existence of a man with a feeling of solidarity.1 The rebuilding of the normative system is finalized by the research on the reasons for distinguishing between two legal configurations, namely between manu propria acts (suicide and taking part in suicide) and the manu alius act (murdering/killing someone on their onquest, with consensus).

The key to making the interpretation of this framework of actions, where we can discern elements of incompatibility and of a changeable nature, is presented with a negative fact, the silence of the legislature regarding suicide both attempted and performed. This is of utmost importance because it helps in the actual determination of this legal norm and the reasoning on such a matter would remain unclear2.

3.2 The offense of incitement or assistance to suicide

The first model by which the euthanasia practice is manifested provides for assisted suicide, which calls for the criminal offense of incitement or suicide assistance. The criminal offense of consensus in murder is seen as a willing act of the subject to end the patient's life with the free will and intention of the latter, but we need to highlight that the realization of this will depends on the third person (man alias command). While in the suicide assistance process the subject himself is passive, the main author of the execution (manu propria command) and the third person in this case just assists in such a process3.

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1 Euthanasia is an action always requiring the material and moral intervention of a third person, and not only as an active subject in carrying out this action but also emotionally, with a sense of solidarity with this action.
2 M. B. MAGRO Eutanasia e diritto penale, Torino, 2001 fq. 176
3 In both cases it is punished with the same principle, that of causing the death of the victim.
The hypotheses of passive and active euthanasia, respectively related to the criminal offense of incitement or assistance of suicide, and the killing of a subject with his consent, are similar due to the incitement to the subject, but are objectively and voluntarily differentiated. In the first case, the will of the subject to end life is not only expressed but well weighted to the extent that he takes the initiative himself to do it. In the criminal offense of incitement or suicide assistance we distinguish two different types of participation depending on the fact that the third party action is related to the finalization in the influence on the patient's will at the stage when he is thinking of taking part in his plan or being willing to provide material support in the implementation phase.

In the case of the murder of a subject with his own will the punishment is given in mitigating circumstances and it is the fact that distinguishes and sets the boundary between taking part in someone's suicide and killing a person with the consensus of the victim.

A person who encourages the sick subject to kill himself is sentenced, or even the one who reinforces the other's thought to kill himself. Anyone who incites a person to kill himself or reinforces a person's opinion to commit suicide in any manner is sentenced to five to ten years of imprisonment, and when suicide does not occur but he or she has only personal injuries he is sentenced from one to five years for attempted murder, and in such cases aggravating circumstances are considered such as when he is a minor or mentally incapacitated to understand his actions.

The need to punish assistance to suicide and suicide incitement comes as a result of the lack of a criminal law article to punish suicide (as a punishable act from the entire society). There are three types of suicide actions, the first being moral suicide incitement, the second is the incitement to material suicide by giving medicines, etc. which help to commit suicide and, lastly, an incitement or a reinforcement of thought to commit suicide, but there must be a lot of conditions to be accountable: firstly suicide must be carried out and secondly when it is not done it needs to have been attempted with serious consequences for the health of the person.

Based on what we have just analyzed, we can say that the law punishes the one who persuades someone to end his life full of suffering or reinforces his idea of killing himself or materially contributing to the commission of a criminal offense but it is important to prove intention in this criminal offense, namely the will to help suicide\(^1\). We also have criminal responsibility even when the person does not act, ie in the case of failure to act before a suicidal situation (failure to stop the suicide means to let it happen consciously) by violating a legal norm for action. So it is the responsibility of the doctor who does not act in the case of a patient's suicide by saying that he respects his right not to be cured by not providing the emergency assistance.

3.3 Murdering someone with his own consent (consensual homicide)

The death that brings the salvation sought by the suffering person or anyone who gives consent under the Italian penal code (anyone who causes the death of a man, with his consent is sentenced to six to fifteen years of imprisonment) is punishable for the criminal offense of killing with consensus. This norm has been foreseen recently as a separate article and different from intentional murder. In the case of consensual homicide it is a third person who commits a criminal offense which is different from assisted suicide, where the person helps with preparatory actions and it is the subject himself the one who ends his life. A line should be drawn in order to make an objective difference.

Therefore, we are considering all the elements, the subject is different, one is the victim and the other is the third person, the object is the same, the ending of life to escape from unmanageable pain and suffering, the objective act is carried out with omission in one case (failure to act) and in the other case by action, from the subjective perspective it was done deliberately and in order to put an end to suffering and life.

Various opinions have been given by many authors regarding the consensual homicide of the subject, and many think that the author should not be punished because he is not dangerous to the society, but others feel the opposite\(^2\).

From this debate with so many different ideas, the legislator was forced to introduce a specific norm based on the principle that life is sacred and protected by law, and any violation of this right is punishable as a criminal offense. Many think that

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1 E.PALO MBI, Istigazione o aiuto a1 suicidio, Milano, 1972 fq.1020
2 VISCO, L'omicidio e la lesione personale del consenziente, Milano 1929, dhe FERRI, L'omicidio suicidio, Torino, 1985
killing with consensus is a criminal offense against the person rather than a criminal offense against a person, and as such this offense can not undermine and does not undermine the public interest, the society 1.

By analyzing this act, we see that the legislator has taken into account a number of important types of circumstances, the consensus of the victim himself, and a lesser danger by providing for a lower sentence in contrast to the crime of murder. According to many opinions, the legislator, while prescribing the offense of consensual murder/homicide, considered the killing of someone for mercy, or, in other words, the typical characteristic act of euthanasia.

Although the term *euthanasia* does not appear or is not found in the criminal code, we can not say that this as a matter is not included. It is not necessary to distinguish and present *euthanasia*, since in any case the judge himself is the one who, by considering the matter with all its elements, decides on the basis of his full conviction, if we are dealing with a consensual murder or a simple murder.

The law clearly makes the distinction between a deliberate murder and a murder with the consensus of the victim on the basis that the victim has initially given the consent as a mentally capable person who understands his actions and is aware of the result as a responsible adult and on the basis of a spontaneous decision and without either interference or influence. We do not have to do with the free will of a person when he is threatened and is forced to make that decision.

Generally, paralyzed persons and those with serious physical injuries, characterized by great suffering, require death as a form of salvation by the doctor or by those close to him. But there are also cases when the person has been forced, deceived, or threatened to seek death, and these are the cases that need to be carefully studied and taken into consideration. So in order to have a murder with the consent of the subject, the consensus (consent) should exist from the beginning until the last moment when the crime is committed, and when the consent changes at the last moment of the offense, the guilty person will be responsible for the crime of intentional murder and not consensual homicide.

As we can see, we can say that there are very few cases when euthanasia could be classified as a consensual homicide, since for the application of this provision, as we have mentioned above, a true and complete consensus of an adult person over the age of eighteen (mentally sane to understand his actions) which is difficult to be found in the incurable sick people who are about to die. The vast majority of euthanasia cases belong to the category of deliberate murder.

We may conclude that in the case of euthanasia for mercy without the consensus of the victim who is suffering, the guilty person will be responsible for the criminal offense of murder, and will be punished for not less than twenty-one years, and possibly with any reduction in the years when the mitigating circumstances appear, that the act was committed in the best interest of society and the moral values.

In most cases, euthanasia due to mercy is characterized not only by the actions previously required by the victim to the doctors but also by the family members, and this makes the situation even worse for the culprit who not only will be responsible for the criminal offense of murder not also murder under aggravating circumstances, and the punishment in these cases goes to life imprisonment 2.

It should be noted here that in the cases of euthanasia presented in Italy very few severe cases have been recorded, or none such cases at all, for the sole reason that in the conscience of the judge it is not considered the same murder that which is made for mercy by the family members of a person who is in extreme suffering, with the intention of putting an end to the suffering, with another intentional murder committed against a person. 3

4. Legal Issues of Euthanasia

From the perspective of the law, the question of the legitimacy for the termination of the medical treatment for patients before death is not clear in the discipline of the legal system. According to the criminal doctrine, the case would be resolved by an agreement or on the basis of consent between the doctor and the patient, implying that the former can not force a patient to be cured if he refuses to continue a therapy, respecting in this way the will of the patient even if this would mean

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1 G.L ADECOLA Eutanasia: problematiche giuridiche e medico legali dell'eutanasia fq 373
2 G.IADECOLA Eutanasia : problematiche giuridiche e medico legali dell eutanasia fq 42
3 B.PANNAIN, F.SCALFANI, M.PANNAIN, Lomicidio dell sonsenziente e la questione eutanasia, Napoli 1988 fq 20
loss of the patient's life. On the other hand, if the patient requires continuous treatment until the end, the doctor will not be exempt from the obligation to make any efforts, even if they are hopeless\(^1\). Here stands the innocence of this act performed by the doctor [passive consensual euthanasia] since he is not responsible when he does not cure a patient who does not want to continue to be treated. From this point of view, numerous discussions have been opened, and many consider the passive euthanasia as legitimate, with consent, as an undisputed will of the patient. While, the passive euthanasia without consent is considered a punishable act, as a practice that either inactivity or through the interruption of medical devices ends the life of the person, so, not stopping death means allowing it to happen.

In the case of passive euthanasia without a consensus on the part of the patient who is in a non-recoverable state and the continuation of medical examinations has no value in improving his health, the doctor has no legal obligation to continue with the cure when it has no benefits for the health of the person. When the patient is sick and hopeless for life he needs to be assisted and cared for, but the doctor may, on the other hand, reject the disastrous medical treatment and without any result.

But in the meantime, it is still not clear how to proceed if a seriously ill patient with no hopes for life in an irreversible state of coma (passive euthanasia without consensus). The problem of consensus should not be seen as a fundamental and fair basis for the legal resolution of the doctor's responsibility, with the consensus and willingness to discontinue the cure by the patient, many conditions must be met and it is rare to find such conditions if the ill person is in the death bed. A real and true consensus, he must come from the patient himself, and must be manifested in a very clear form before the doctor has previously been well informed. The patient also needs to be mentally sane to understand his actions and a responsible adult. The will must be real and not overwhelmed, and without the interference and manipulation of the doctor or a third party, and most importantly it needs to be true at the moment it was committed, and not a will previously expressed in the past.

In the legal system this finds a great support recognizing the right to life protection, and in the constitution the protection of human health is viewed not only as a right of the individual but also as a right of the whole society. This protection does not apply only to the cure of a contagious disease that would cause damage to the whole society if spread to the public, but also when it is done to fulfill a task which leads to a political, economic and social solidarity. But what really gives the solution and excludes the responsibility of the doctor is precisely: the doctors' duty is that of offering relief and cure but it has its human logical limits in the case when there are no hopes and no benefits for the health of the person and there are no facts to prove that it is effective and thus, the continuation would only cause further suffering and the discontinuation of the medical assistance would not hold the doctor responsible (the main purpose of the medicine is to serve the patient and heal him, and the second goal is to reduce suffering and to make death easier at the last moments of life). Therefore, the doctor who fails to act to cure a person in the last moments of his life, when this treatment would be worthless, is not considered responsible. But we need to highlight the fact that the notorious concept of the worthless cure (ineffective) is very subjective because there may be different interpretations from different doctors, and it is necessary to foresee those cases when a cure may be considered worthless (ineffective) from a medical point of view, in which case the doctor does not have criminal responsibility in the case of omission.

In the case of cerebral death\(^2\) or known as the death of the brain, in those cases when the patient in in coma and the brain does not function but the heart continues to beat due to a machinery, the doctor is not held responsible for his actions since the continual cure would not bring any results. On the contrary, if it is not managed to ascertain brain death in compliance with the law, and the patient cannot be called dead by law, it is the physician's obligation to continue with medical treatment to keep him/her in life in that physical condition. The doctor in this case is responsible for keeping the patient alive and assisting him because he can improve since cerebral death has not yet occurred, and if discontinuing treatment for mercy on the patient as a form of passive euthanasia, the doctor will hold the responsibility of the criminal offense of murder.

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\(^1\) F. MANTOVANI, p. 80 where he writes about passive euthanasia with consensus actually we are dealing with a refusal to continue with the patient's treatment, and it will be called legitimate on the basis of a doctor's power to let him die, but based on an entity's right to decide whether or not to live.

\(^2\) BASILE. Lamorte celebreale aspetti medico legali f.q.II
5. CONCLUSIONS

The topic of euthanasia is very interesting ethically, religiously, psychologically, and existentially. But in the meantime it has now taken a wider political and legal form because of the intensification of the discussion in recent years of many countries and because of the attitude of some countries that do not punish this act.

Speaking of euthanasia as a legal problem, we refer to legitimacy in principle of the legislation, which in some way legalizes it, given that if this practice is examined through the instrument of law, namely the legal code itself, thus permitting it through the law, we may come to a wrong answer to the problem. The real problem that arises when reflecting on euthanasia is whether a law can exist in the legal system of a state with all the characteristics of a law, that is, the general part, the formalism, the unavoidable bureaucratic character that helps to administer the extreme and dubious situation such as that of euthanasia. It is very difficult to speak and give a definite opinion about the passive euthanasia.

Creating a legal package that will allow to solve many questions about the attitudes and actions of the doctor to the patients, such as in which cases the doctor should decide to stop the therapy, who will be the person legitimized to oppose to this action, where euthanasia can be practiced, etc. In fact such a situation would require a detailed regulation to be practiced. The criminal code punishes either the criminal offense of killing a patient with his own will and consent or the assistance given to him in suicide. So there are many laws that punish this act, and the health legislation contains criminal and civil law, and protects the right to health and life. Physicians are obliged to respect the criminal code as well as the applicable criminal law.

Based on the principles underlying the constitution on the value of protecting the health of the individual and the whole society in general, it is natural that the exercise of euthanasia does not turn out to be positive from a general point of view but that does not exclude other elements of the economic nature, time costs and the useless and hopeless efforts that lie on the other side of the scale.

It is not the same thing to discuss this problem or analogous situations from a narrow legal perspective or considering moral values and the criminal and civil responsibility, but on the other hand though it may look the same situation it is essentially different to evaluate this concrete moment when a patient is at the terminal stage of life and who is about to be provided with the type of medical cure.

And when we are faced with the voluntary termination of medical cure by the patient to accelerate the arrival of death, the boundary between passive and active euthanasia becomes unclear and controversial, and certainly unlawful from the point of view of Italian legislation.

The legislator is increasingly behind with the laws regarding the numerous rapid developments of the medicine (is always a step back) leaving a lot of legal vacuum. And medicine, on the other hand, has raised a wide debate about euthanasia, bringing many unclear points to discussion, and it always shows that the difficulties between the doctor and the patient in such cases are great. It is the doctor the one who is left without a strong legal base to rely on when making a decision on the human life.

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Impact of Political Instability on the Reality of Iraqi Political Parties: A Study According to
the Results of the 2018 Elections

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Abstract

The Iraqi political parties had been affected since 2003 by the political pivotal transformations which happened according to the aftermaths of democratic elections, especially under the disruptions of American’s invasion that led in cooperation with its allies in April 2003. So the social and political situations became ruling according to the new aspects of practicing the new stage of authority as compromise settlements and quota and ethno-sectarian distribution to be as following as compatible with theory of practicing the authority responsibilities (Power sharing) as what happened now, besides to that all political democracy scene has greatly been distorted because of the instability penetrated within rebuilding the state and its institutions from the beginning as planned by an active powerful political forces. Many functions that are characterized by competitions among the political parties had changed the concepts of exercising democracy in a real way to be done an effective shape, because of the political and social actors had different role, which were being a reflection of another reality within the democracy’s process. So that all the situations had been complicated too much owing to the factors of political instability that influenced negatively on the framework of the state, especially the impacts of economic and social factors as of poverty, stagnation, ignorance and disease and another underdevelopment features which predominated over political and social retrogression levels. In addition to that the absence of an efficient administrative elites, which appeared recently under different conditions and circumstances. So it was became very obviously as we know precisely that democracy’s process in Iraq since 2003 was comprehensively undemocratic in practicing because the political forces have not democratic culture that encourage the dialogue to solve all pending problems, and have not abundant tolerance to accept the differences of others parties yet. The phenomenon of the political instability has divided into different varieties by which scattering among the addresses of suspicion and it definitely has a sectarian discourse dimension in case of dealing among each other. So these addresses and dialogues were being away from the political national conformity correctly, because of there was something like definitely as the exclusion and marginalization discourses in order to narrowing any active political party within the political process try to do pro – active role to settle all pending crises. Furthermore, the reality of political life has been under the continuous crises and conflicts over an authority along time not to gain gradually the outcomes of procurement during application the constitution clauses and valid laws, in order to preserving the political stability and to be done more far from the national unity fragmentation and the weakness of political institutions. Finally, we need too much time to reach into condition of stability, especially after opening anew spaces toward active real participation, and because there was a growing need for educated people who could administer the society and the state institutionally by existing strong government, and ultimately peoples will have ability to form new political governing elites later.

Keywords: Impact of Political Instability on the Reality of Iraqi Political Parties: a Study According to the Results of the 2018 Elections

Introduction

The political democracy’s process didn’t entail the clash among political forces and social elites within Iraqi society and imposing unilateral wills against the others as what happened since 2003, but it needs to sustain the transformations of political trends peacefully as a realistic democratic pattern and to be more stability in comparing with the huge challenges which confronted the society and the state alike; especially against the terrorists groups defiance. So there is another
urgent need for a vital debate about all pending problems and obstacles that thwarted and dwindled the prospects of political process in Iraq post 2018 elections, and they will have too much problems and crises to override it wittingly for making the general political stability as a ultimate outcome.

The political democracy’s process in Iraq is witnessing now a turning point basing on sharing the powers among all political forces, but its inclinations has not been viewed within a dynamic framework, because of absence the peaceful political opposition inside the legislative institution; then there were multiple factors involved in making instability by stimulus for political change often comes from outside the government and according to the political pressures from all political forces which have obviously the impact over the general stability in Iraq.

The Problem of Research

The political process in Iraq since 2003 has been witnessed different challenges that affected over the political stability, especially due to the desire of all political ruling elites to be as a part of an authority not to contribute for re-building the stability and the peace within structures of institutions framework.

Method of Research

This research shall be based on the analytical systematic approach and also historical approach in an attempt for researching scientifically, and to tackle the dimensions of political instability on the reality of the Iraqi political parties as a study according to the results of the 2018 elections that sprouted various effects over the problematic political transformations as well as societal perils which have reflected on experience of democracy post 2003.

Hypothesis

This research based on a certain hypothesis which tackled the effects of political forces over the political democracy’s process since 2003, So that we witnessed different challenges that wavering the public situations; specifically the role of the political governing forces in destabilization the whole society and the state alike.

The structure of the research

The research has been distributed into specific prelude and final conclusions, sorting scientifically into three items, firstly the dramatic political transformations toward democracy to analyze the continuous crises within political democracy’s process and to know the repercussions of the political chaos on stability. Secondly, the scientific research has tackled about security defiance against terrorism and the political retrogression to recognize the political untrustworthiness among ruling elites, and to limit the effects of rebuilding the social – security requirements over political stability. Thirdly, we researched about overstepping the efforts to re – build the political stability; and to diagnose precisely the hard hiatus after elections on 12 May 2018 and political instability, and finally, to describe the necessity for concluding a comprehensive national discourse.

First: The Dramatic political transformations toward democracy

The method of practicing democracy in Iraq was transformed as a copy from the western pattern method which prevailed vigorously in all countries of the third world as a new form of democratization since the first decade of 1991.

The multinational force’s 2003 invasion of Iraq overthrew previous Iraq’s government and installed replaced of it an interim administration, Then transitional government hold elections on 30 January 2005; in order to begin the process of writing a permanent constitution instead of the Law of Administration for the State of Iraq for the Transitional Period which was signed on 8 March 2004 by the Iraqi Governing Council.

Accordingly to the international reasons and the internally huge pressures by which motivated different factions and political parties that claimed the January 2005 elections were the first free elections in Iraq's history, to rebuild another experience in democracy’s process and to be as legitimate hope to form a condition of a fair representation of all groups; but on the contrary to that all the scenes had been done effeletly as a results of ethno – sectarian partitions of authority. So that all political forces had distracted in rebuild the powers and political influences on behalf of rebuilding a real democracy’s experiment and starting in practicing a new pattern of political participation, after violent inherited legacy from the past of despotism rule which predominated severely during more of three decades ago (1968 – 2003).
1 – The continuous crises within political democracy's process

Iraq’s democracy has been witnessed biggest challenges under the circumstances of the formation of any government after procured any election experience, as which elections had continuously caused knotty problems as a political competitions among different social and political active forces in the state, So many security problems had revealed; especially after the events of falling Mosul province on 9 – 10 June 2014 under the hands of the terrorists armed groups, as a result of delaying the national conformity to dissolve all pending controversies among political active parts in society and the state alike.

The political crises in Iraq had begun after the first election which hold on January 30, 2005, in order to inaugurate a new period under so – called partition of authority (Power sharing) by exercising the legislative roles according to the wills of the political parties not to the clauses of the new permanent constitution of 2005; and first of all after hold the parliamentary elections on 15 December 2005 according to the valid constitution.

Furthermore, the post period of 2003 in Iraq adopted the specific principle which pertaining about those who gaining the majority after each experience’s election, So the consequences of these changes were being more not easy, because of the struggle over the same authority regardless of the numerical weight ingredients for any party within the political process; and the elections were conducted on a clear ethno – sectarian lines ending with a convincing majority for the Shia coalition as a result of the real outcome for procured elections. In spite of Sunni politicians discovered the advantages of bargaining in the negotiations for the formation of a counterpart coalition, So Sunni politicians were invited to form the first national government as so – called previously under the head of “Nouri Al – Maliki” in June 2006; and all parties satisfied to share the political positions (¹).

The same period started after 2008 when the agreement of withdraw United States of America signed for ending the presence of it in Iraq, despite of reality that Sunni tribal militias trained and financed by the Americans, were winning the battle against terrorists (Al – Qaeda organization) and also contributed to the sectarian rapprochement. In the same of this year the Iraqi parliament approved the Justice and accountability Law; but the election of 2010 was marred by disqualification of hundreds of Sunni candidates due to the allegations of previous membership in the Baath party as pretext. Al Maliki’s government could have another advance after winning the municipal elections of 2009, and there were a target to weaken the Sunni political blocs and another parties as well as a part of imposing the stronger will over all partners in political process (²).

However, to analyze about what happened in Iraq matters terribly for the peoples thoroughly; those who hoped so much for the future in order to assuming some of chances, but if we refused this true, we will miss the opportunity to better understand when and how to respond to the instability according to the reality of the coming challenges at the long term (³)?

Nevertheless, we should elucidate the dimensions of deep – seated review about the framework distinguish between Western democracy and Iraq’s nascent democracy, to limit the nature of Iraq’s political problem and its effects on the stability by re - examining the facts of practicing democratic process and to make sure of these new political transformations (⁴).

2 – The repercussions of political chaos on stability

The deliberations about the political chaos and its effects on the stability scene must understand the best peaceful and democratic ways to override all problems inside the general political life, So the new stage of democracy in Iraq was worsening the political situation by giving autocratic elites a free hand to impose its wills over the political process; and this was leading in the direction of reestablishing another pattern in exercising the authority away from the original views of a democratic Iraq (⁵).

(²) Ibid, P. 102.
On the other hand, national reconciliation as a specific key of absolute significance to the new development of democracy was definitely reduced to just a few conferences and some inactive official statements, and without any exerting efforts toward a real path to dissolve all pending problems. So the internal situation had become more sufferings from the disputed wills among all political parties and to be done an effected by deficiency status in social capital as a result of that (1). So that the elections in Iraq should be associated with various procedures according to the mutual understandings for reaching into a specific resolution, without leaving all participants in democracy's process away from available options by investment the circumstances for seeking about another resources according to the legitimacy of democracy and its effects.

At least until now, the new experience had failed to produce a real democracy in Iraq, in spite of many Iraqis had benefited from the aftermaths of democracy and elections without restoring the political stability. So if Iraq misses this real opportunity, it would perhaps be the biggest mistake inside the society and it could might made another crises in case of committed by the political forces in democratic process (2).

Furthermore, Iraqi people want to be continued in democracy’s process by practicing its political role in holding elections continuously, but democracy couldn’t take forward steps without a basic real participation according to the commitment for preserving it’s a unitary state and the achievements of democracy recently (3).

The elections of March 2010 had been given deeply crises because of huge controversies about the form of cabinet, especially after the political intransigence among all political parties within democratic process, to select the heads of three main constitutional institutions according to the principle of quota compromise not depending on the national conformity and agreement. So that the severe competition has been escalated to select a certain political leader irrespective who was the suitable symbol for that decisive stage of practicing nascent democracy in Iraq. Despite of missing agreement about the larger representative bloc inside the parliament which meant the largest number to form the government within (15) days from the date of election of the president of the republic (4). But the real crisis was also about who should be the prime minister of Iraq after (9) months of political differences among the political ruled elites (Elected parties), especially within stubbornness between "Iyad Allawi" and "Nouri Al – Maliki" for heading of the new cabinet. Eventually the Erbil Accord (Shadowy Erbil framework) that concluded on 8 August 2010, ending all political arguments to form rapidly the new national government according to the compromise between “Masoud Al – Barzani” the head of the Kurdistan Democratic Party and "Al – Maliki” the head of Islamic Al – Daawa party under so – called the national alliance that prepared ultimately the ground for the formation of the second Maliki’s government in November 2010 (5).

Nevertheless, the nature of the tensions and controversies between Iraqi Kurdistan and the central Iraqi government mounted increasingly through 2011–2012 on the issues of power sharing, oil production and territorial control. In April 2012, the president of Iraq’s semi-autonomous northern Kurdish region demanded that officials agree to their demands or face the prospect of secession from Baghdad by September 2012. This was the main problem in the relationships between of them which ended into another crisis due to Kurds have continuously announced the issue of independence. So they hold an independence referendum for Iraqi Kurdistan on 25 September 2017, and as a result of what happened, Iraqi federal government in the center ended the Kurdistan controlling over the city of Kirkuk as well as most all of the disputed territories in Northern Iraq had consequently been returned under the control of central government in Baghdad.

So that, the complex pluralistic political scene with the multiple of power had revealed without any agreement on the rules to prevent pluralism from degenerating into conflict, but the power was fragmented and likely to become more in the short run (6).

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(1) Ibid, PP. 10 – 11.
(2) Ibid, P. 16.
(4) The permanent of Iraqi constitution 2005, Article (76).
Second : Security defiance against terrorism and the political retrogression

The political democracy’s process in Iraq has encountered security defiance owing to an international terrorism that undergone effects around the public situations from different sides, especially as a result of falling the city of Mousl in Iraq’s Nineveh under the control of terrorists groups as so-called the Islamic state in Iraq and Levant ( Daesh ) on 9 June 2014 after general factors that happened behind of it as following as (1):

A – Sectarian policies : Marginalization of Sunni minority following the 2003 U.S.A led invasion of Iraq had been fostered an anger and resentment due to Debaathification policies and the dissolution of the Iraqi army made Mousl fertile for extremist groups like ( ISIS ).

B – Lack of a post 2003 road map : The United states of America lack of a post 2003 plan for Iraq’s stabilization and also contributed to the rise of ( ISIS ) and its dangers.

C – The crises within political system : The mechanism of practicing an authority became more far from the reality in comparing with the permanent constitution of 2005, in addition to that the nature of Al – Maliki’s policies toward all political parties in order to consolidate its personal power base and that made the whole situation into another catastrophic status .

D – The violent oppressions : The violent suppression of Sunni protestors and the disbanding the Sahwa ( Popular volunteers ) had fostered anger and resentment among the Sunni community , and making them more open to recruitment by extremist groups ultimately.

E – The security deterioration : as a result of the ferocity and commitment of (ISIS) fighters led to the fall of Mousl, and there was a general consensus by specialized analysts that Iraqi armed forces were inactive and inability at that moment to confront this type of war against terrorists armed group; as well as the lack of equipment had become the main reason to city’s fall.

F – The international community’s shortcomings : The international community’s unwavering support for Al – Maliki’s government previously, notably owing to the great failures to pursue the political reforms among all the political ruling elites and the another political forces too.

1 – The political untrustworthiness among ruling elites

The political process had been passed under huge of interceptive wills and The transition status to transfer from covert control into overt control. So this is nevertheless very important, because it represents a huge public challenge to the Baghdad authorities recently. For a start, ( Isis ) has seized large quantities of arms, equipment and fuel, including different military arms, as well as millions of dinars from the Iraqi banks as a result of security repercussions in different areas of northern and western regions of Iraq. So the Baghdad’s government will have to try to take Mosul back by force due to Iraq has large armed forces again, but like almost every other instrument of state in a corrupt and incompetent administration became far less effective than they should be expectantly intentioned (2).

The proliferation of sub-state actors during the fight against (ISIS) triggered rival co-optation efforts on the premise that those who provided security earns and have the right to govern as they desire . Such governance is highly unstable, because there is no central arbiter, and usually short-lived. Hence the need for state institutions to reassert control, and this ambition was long thwarted by the Kurdish claim to many of the disputed territories, but since the ill-conceived Kurdish referendums and its aftermath, meaningful dialogue and negotiations between Baghdad and Erbil should again become possible after the formation of a new government ultimately (3).

The constitution of Iraq didn’t represent an agreement among political forces, and the constitution itself not backed by a political pact, So it was considerably fragile as a result of increasing the claims from Kurdish forces to grant the more powers instead of the real federal powers of the central government in Baghdad; as were the responsibilities became more

confused in comparing with the other provinces that could become as autonomous unit by imposing their wills as happened from the Kurdistan regional autonomy, So the conflict over the formation of new regions in Iraq had been accepted as a part of a federal constitution without agreeing to a federal form of government \(^{(1)}\). While the 2008 provincial law(No.21) have increased the powers of provincial governments, and there is no doubt that the provincial elections of 2009 and 2013 had consequently been performed the scope of controversies between the central unit and the local units.

However, Iraq’s central government was perceived a certain path to reduce the centrifugal forces by taking part all political and social groups in the regional and national government a like, but the real disputes among the central units and local units had increased about whoever’s responsibility over control of Iraq’s natural resources; which have lugged at these centrifugal forces; thereby fueling the political tensions by which the federal structure was designed to accommodate in order to solve it consequently not to be remained as a problematic issue \(^{(2)}\).

Meanwhile, The prime minister " AL – Maliki " also sought to discredit provincial authorities in the eyes of their own citizens, when the citizens angered by the lack of services and made of popular demonstrations for demanding to achieve the political and economic reforms during the “ Days of Rage ” which beginning in late of January 2011. “AL - Maliki" sought also to deflect blame onto the provincial government, because of His accusations that incompetent provincial officials that were responsible for the dismal levels of services backfired in many Iraqi regions \(^{(3)}\).

So that the democracy’s political process requires several tools could be pursued by political ruling elites in order to achieve a conditions of political stability in Iraq in spite of huge difficulties that adopting theoretically due to of different explanations to the clauses of valid constitution of 2005, and according to the rules of the governance of law, but the campaign of fighting corruption incompatible to the international indications of accountability and transparency which had been remained very weakness since 2003; and prohibiting the political banishment or cooptation among the whole governing elites those who have the right of participation in political process, So it had to be continued constantly due to the desire of consolidating their powers within its authority.

2 –The effects of re – building social – security requirements over political stability

Iraq’s parliamentary elections which hold in 2014 and saw the ruling Shiite National Alliance form to be as a coalition government with the Kurds and Sunnis political parties, but the rise and collapse of (ISIS) in Iraq fundamentally had changed the dynamics of Sunni politics and also inter-sectarian politics in Iraq. So there was an emerging political framework that took a different shape in Iraq - Islamist political parties especially versus to the civil/secular parties. So that much of the Sunni population was detached from Sunni leaders in Baghdad, and granting” Haider AL- Abadi “ a better chance to win in the coming elections as he is regarded by many Sunnis and Shiites as a compromise between various blocs. The collapse in support for Vice President “ Usama Al-Nujaifis “ by Al-Mutahidoon coalition at the last election meant there will be a number of Sunni parties erupted rivalry for supporting them in the 2018 elections. the popularity of those who were prominent as part of Iraq’s business-as-usual, quota-driven political model has declined. The traditional Sunni, Shiite and Kurdish blocs, split along ethnic and sectarian lines, are not as popular with voters as they once were, and there are also plenty of new divisions within them \(^{(4)}\).

Among the Shia bloc itself, the division between the “ AL-Maliki and AL- Sadr/Hakim “ factions emerged in the 2013 after the provincial council elections in southern Iraq, but AL-Maliki’s support waned due to the damaging impact of his sectarian political agenda." Haider Al-Abadi " avoided much of the political muck-raking surrounding the election, and may triumph in 2018 because many voters and notables want to avoid the insecurity resulting from a more powerful victor \(^{(5)}\).

Despite the vibrancy of the campaigning, there were many reasons to be done pessimistic about the elections of 2018 in Iraq and it was sharply divided country into different factions. So prime Minister " Haider Al-Abadi " has been created his own ‘victory’ coalition to capitalize on claims he led the country to victory over (ISIS) as what happened on 11 November 2017. On the one hand, the multiplicity of parties could be seen as a sign of a healthy democracy; but many of them are

\(^{(1)}\) Marina Ottaway and Danial Kaysi, op , cit , P . 15.
\(^{(3)}\) Marina , op , cit , P . 18.
\(^{(5)}\) Ibid , P . 7.
relatively narrow and sectarian from the other hand later. So in the Kurdish region, the Kurdistan Democratic Party (KDP) will compete with the Patriotic Union of Kurdistan (PUK) and with the Gorran (Change) party and also with several small socialist and Islamic parties. The divisions were being happened as a historic problem, but they have been increased since the independence referendum law that concluded and hold it on 25 September 2017. For example, the Kurdistan Democratic Party (KDP) was not campaigning in Kirkuk, because of its officials were pushed out of the city in October 2017 when Baghdad’s government sent the Iraqi army forces to remove Kurdish Peshmerga from controlling the disputed areas. The elections thus put the reality test of unity experience on Iraq and the Kurdish region even though many disputes were not resolved yet. The same divisions exist between the Shi’ite politicians who dominate Baghdad and Sunni Arab areas that were devastated during the war with (ISIS). In Sunni areas, "Iyad Allawi" was competing against local lists and Usama al Nujayfi’s Muttahidoon alliance. It’s more difficult to see major differences between the platforms of these groups but each of one has its local support, some of which is based on the family and tribal ties (1).

Iraq has won the battle against (ISIS), but What will be happened in the post-ISIS peace period? This is the main question in front of the government of Prime Minister “Haider Al-Abadi” faces as it heads into the election season. Rather than providing a reprieve, the parliamentary and governorate elections scheduled for 12 May 2018 threaten to perpetuate instability. If the past is any guide, Iraq will see several months of pre-election posturing, alliance formation and inflated political rhetoric, followed by a prolonged and turbulent period of post-election government formation (2).

Furthermore, the federal government in Baghdad and the Kurdistan regional government (KRG) in Erbil over the core issues that have vexed their relationship perplexedly, and the dividing and sharing of political control and oil revenues in the disputed territories become into controversial matter. These priorities are interconnected; the EU and its member states can help Iraq to make forward progress, but much limited, on all of them through the deft use of reconstruction funds. As for the Kurdish region, it is undergoing its own post-referendum upheaval, and the EU and its member states can do much to assist the Kurdish polity to organize credible regional assembly elections and carry out a much-needed political transition as well for the future (3).

Third: Overstepping the efforts to re – build the political stability

While it is difficult to know the dimensions of impact of the regional and international actors over the political reality in Iraq, notably after hold the elections in order to rearrange the requirements of settlement problems which concerning with mutual ties to, Iran, Turkey, Saudi Arabia, U.S.A etc… and their relations with various local communities, to the extent that they pursue objectives consistent such as with an Iranian strategic agenda and are recruiting fighters from among the local population to help secure those interests, they are creating a parallel model of rule in comparing with the interests of rest active powers in the world, as far as exerting efforts to confront the international terrorism phenomenon since more (15) years ago. This model, familiar from Iran itself and from other states in the region, as well as from Iran’s role in Syria and Lebanon recently alike. “AL-Abadi” who like his predecessors has tried to balance Iran’s interests with those of the U.S., Turkey and Saudi Arabia, he faces a serious challenge firmly. the PMUs also have sprouted political parties primed to compete in the national elections, and are co-opting local tribal and minority leaders, giving them an advantage in local elections. To prevail in the elections and create a governing majority, “AL-Abadi” will have to work with some forces that oppose Iran’s spreading influence, including former rivals and adversaries such as Kurdish parties and the Sunni politicians; exploit intra-Shiite divisions; and solicit the support of the Shiite religious establishment headed by Grand Ayatollah “Ali al-Sistani”. In addition, he will need to try to reduce the PMUs’ role in the disputed territories by reinserting state security forces that recruit manpower from among the local population, and luring back skilled government administrators who fled these areas after (ISIS) arrived, and many of whom found shelter in the Kurdish region and became at any way co-optation targets for the Kurdish parties (4).

Prime Minister “Haider Al-Abadi “ and the winner of the general parliamentary elections “ Muqtada al-Sadr “ held a joint press conference after a meeting late on 19 May 2018, in which they spoke of their vision for Iraq’s future, signaling that

(3) Ibid, P. 2.
they may work together, “There was a clear message in this meeting, hoping that your government will be all inclusive”, as said Sadr. Both had run on platforms advocating a non-sectarian, technocratic government, and the new government should be strong and provide public services and security to the people in the coming four years. So that an Iraqi Kurdish delegation from the Kurdistan Democratic Party (KDP) has also left Erbil for Baghdad to take part in talks on the formation of a new Iraqi government (The cabinet), and they will have to work in order to achieve the rights of the Kurds and to be a real partner in the political democratic process for the future versus previous period that witnessed postpone of fulfillment its demands. In spite of the preponderance decisive solution in the formation of new government in the coming period recently, by establishing a stronger political coalition between the coalition led by a Shiite cleric, “Moqtada al-Sadr” and AL – Fatah Alliance in cooperation with the another political coalitions.

1 – The hard hiatus after elections on 12 May 2018 and political instability

The democracy’s political process in Iraq had been fulfilled according to the equation of comprise among different political forces in order to practicing the political work as known previously in liberal states that explicaded the western democracy in parallel with what could have been doing within political conditionality that imposing exclusively over the developed countries, but the reality devoted otherwise approach as so-called the quota incompatible with ethnic – sectarian affiliations inside the whole society of Iraqi democracy’s process. So the distribution of authority became ruled with the theory of powers partitions (Power sharing) among political governing elites, as what happened in the formation of The Iraqi Governing Council on 12 July 2003. Thus, the political process sprouted a status of interactions among different participants, essentially after taking transitional stage to be necessity in carrying out and exercising a new nascent democracy; to distinguish between the procedures political work and the real challenges that confronted the political process, in order to achieve political stability in Iraq, by adopting obvious rules of the practicing the constitutional articles.

However, there was another problematic issue that revealed concerning with the level of upper three presidencies notably the President of republic and his deputies (3), and the President of parliament and his deputies (2); and the Prime minister with his deputies (3 – 2). Especially, the main problems had become on the whole parliamentary elections which hold according to many laws of elections such as on 15 December 2005 which concluded according to the electoral law (No.16) which enacted on 9 September 2005 and it increased the number of seats to (325). But the second parliamentary elections concluded on 7 March 2010 according to the electoral law(No.26) which enacted on 9 December 2009; and the third parliamentary elections the number seats of parliament became 328 members according to the electoral law No.45 that promulgated in 2013 and its amendments later in November 2017 which concluded on 30 April 2014 under so hard political and security tensions and circumstances too, specifically after the fall down of Mousl province later under the terrorism of the extremists groups of Islamic state (ISIS) on 9 – 10 June 2014.

the future of Iraqi political system after fourth legislative election which hold on 12 May 2018 needs to a comprehensive reforms among different political forces (6,904 candidates from 87 parties are contesting and competing for 329 seats), and to conduct the political democracy’s process by consolidating peaceful competitions as compatible with the constitutional articles of 2005, and to encourage the national accord about basic principles of democracy to preserve what’s happened until present time.

2 – The necessity for concluding a comprehensive national discourse:

The political democracy’s process witnessed an important development after Iraq’s May parliamentary election was marred by low turnout and allegations of fraud, to override the stalling talks on forming of a new government, considerably the Iraq’s parliament has mandated a nationwide manual recount of votes. An Iraqi judicial body will oversee a manual recount of ballots from last month’s election that including many who had apparently lost their seats in the election which amended the election law to demand a manual recount overseen by a panel of judges. The May 12 election appeared to
result in a surprising victory for the coalition led by a Shiite cleric, "Moqtada al-Sadr", overturning a political establishment that has been entrenched since 2005. So that since the election result announced, the politicians have made a barrage of complaints about voting irregularities, often without citing any evidence, and have made competing demands to address those flaws. The vote and its aftermath had crystallized pent-up frustration among Iraqi political parties and the international community about the performance of the Independent High Electoral Commission of Iraq. So the quasi-autonomous agency that oversees campaigns and elections; and the results, however, have not been formally ratified, as the country has waited for the electoral commission to investigate allegations of isolated cases of fraud and reports of malfunctions in new electronic ballot machines (1).

The upcoming parliamentary elections may represent an important turning point in Iraqi politics as, the rivalry between current prime minister "Haider Al-Abadi" and his predecessor "Nouri al-Maliki" has caused a schism within the ruling Dawa party, which has been in power since 2005. In spite of the political splits among the Shia community do not constitute a new trend yet, but the antagonism between "Abadi" and "Maliki" as well as populist cleric Muqtada al-Sadr's scope of influence, are expected to have a significant impact on government formation in the coming days (2). So the State of Law Coalition is under the aegis of former prime minister "Nouri al-Maliki" who aspires to return to power for four years again after being forced out of office under domestic and international pressures. Meanwhile, the alliance enjoys the support of several Shia militias and political forces and movements with its organizations, such as the Asaib Ahl al-Haq paramilitary, which consider Abadi as a weak leader (3). "AL - Abadi" and his victory Coalition could face many difficulties in gaining support from Kurds due to his harsh response to the Kurdish referendum, and he struggles to garner support from the reformists and liberals (4).

The Fatah Alliance is a result of a schism within the Islamic Supreme Council of Iraq (ISCI), which has been one of Dawa's major rivals for decades but has not been able to recover from the split with its military arm, the Badr Organization, which left (ISCI) during the 2014 parliamentary elections campaign to join Dawa's State of Law coalition. The Fatah Alliance was formed by PMF and includes ISCI's traditionalists and members of the Badr Organization, which has become the strongest individual group among the PMF. It is led by"Hadi al-Amiri" the former Iraqi minister of transportation and the head of the Badr Organization (5).

Al-Hikmah is another product of the divisions within the (ISCI), and the coalition was formed by "Ammar al-Hakim", who broke with the Islamic Supreme Council of Iraq in July 2017, amid tensions with ISCI's old guard; and "Al Hakim" wants to appear as a moderate cleric, acceptable within the Sunni world and free from Iran’s influence. So he seeks to appeal to a younger and more progressive generation of Iraqis (6).

Consequently, the Marching toward Reform Coalition includes a wide range of elements, including the Iraqi Communist Party, the Sadrist movement (Istiqama) as well as other leftists and secular groups. It is led although by an alliance between a religious movement and a secular party appears paradoxically, this coalition has been leading a dynamic anti-corruption campaign and is expected to gain many of seats. Several small Sunni and secular groups have joined the Sadr-led alliance, which has focused its discourse on the widespread corruption among governmental structures on the need to move away from the quota system (7).

Furthermore, "Al- Abadi " the prime minister of Iraq's government called for all political forces that participated in the last election of May 2018, to conduct a real discourse according to the national principles for making a new circumstances to form the upcoming government and to be more far the quota and political dealings and compromise as what happened

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(3) Ibid, P. 2.
(6) Ibid, The same page.
(7) Ibid, p. 4.
previously; and to be more comprehensively by gathering all political coalitions as The al-Qarar Al-Iraqi Coalition and The al-Wataniya Alliance and Kurdish parties alike.

In nowadays, it is now clear that Iraqi parliamentary elections will be held on 12 May 2018; leaving aside the political arguments of those advocating a postponement and others wishing to see elections held by their constitutional deadline, there are bigger problems being ignored, wittingly or unintentionally, within Iraqi political circles that become most significantly extreme political fragmentation and blatant foreign intervention to draw the next map of political forces and alliances (1).

In short, politics and political forces in Iraq, after more than fifteen years from the establishment of the new Iraqi democratic state, it remained a prisoner of foreign relations and the influence of foreign powers, whether regional or international, Arab or non-Arab powerful actors. In the 2010 elections, the nationalist-oriented Iraqi list, backed by Turkey and several Arab states, came away with the biggest parliamentary bloc, but Iranian pressure and tacit U.S consent undermined the results of the ballot box. Al-Shia parliamentary coalition was formed after the elections that returned “Al-Maliki” to premiership, so many Things are not much different in 2018. The ongoing, effective foreign influence in Iraq clearly indicates that the results of the coming elections will not be the sole factor determining who will govern but many things more pertaining with political stability might made another opportunity for the future of the political democracy’s process (2).

Conclusions

The political instability among governing elites and non–governing sectors, became depending permanently on the bargains, compromise, conformity, quota and many other procedures that used by means of the political pressure or banishment and sometimes practising by the cooptation alike. Thus, there were several interpretations incompatible with the real understanding of permanent constitution and the values of the liberal democracy as well; So that the political scene has witnessed many of crises and serious events concerning with the different matters and might influenced over the political stability notably after the elections of 2018, and it will a year of change at anyhow.

The prime minister “Al–Abadi” will lead an alliance (Victory alliance) that will try to investment all the chances of making victory against the terrorists groups as much as possible, he will likely also be supported by “Moqtada al-Sadr” as a leader of the powerful Sadrist movement, which has now reinvented itself as a supporter of state authority and the rule of law after his results that approximately proved its popular powerful somewhat with the other political coalitions and alliances which took part in the last elections.

But the coming government will form according to the compromise and political conformity (Power sharing) as soon as to allow a sufficient number of political groups in order to occupy lucrative ministerial positions, which they then use to enrich themselves and finance; and which they need in order to guarantee their government positions and that whatever progress is made in living standard; and it is sometimes painfully slow and limited in scope, and considering into an account the failures of the past period results.

Ultimately, we should remember very vigilant to what happened when the popular protestors entered the headquarters of Prime Minister’s Office on 20 May 2016; as a result of lagging accomplishment the comprehensive reforms in different sides of public life for any citizen in Iraq. So that the inevitability of making an initiative to settle all pending problems is very necessity henceforward by capitalizing all political support which powered just from Iraqi people at any circumstances and crises which encountered the political process of democracy; and making a national settlement for all different problems within political process as a suitable unique team homogeneously and to be an active in the merits and its outcomes for the future of political process in Iraq’s democracy.

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(1) Political fragmentation and foreign interference set the parameters of Iraqi elections, Al-Jazeera Centre for studies, Doha, Qatar, 29 January 2018, P. 1.
(2) Ibid, P. 2.
References


The following Appendixes of research for the number of seats and candidates in elections of 2018

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The number of candidates in elections of 2018
Youth Culture Features in the Light of Preferred Role Models and Life Styles

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Abstract

The aim of this research was to determine to what extent different variables describe the style and way of life present within the student population in Bosnia and Herzegovina. In this sense, in addition to general data on examinees, gender differences were identified, the assessment of parental dimensions of control and emotion, overall family circumstances, level of empathy, intercultural sensitivity, role models, preferences of lifestyles, everyday habits and resistance and (or) tendencies to depressive, anxiety states and stress. The survey included a sample of 457 examinees, students of undergraduate studies at the University of Zenica and the University of Sarajevo, with a total of 9 faculties and 10 departments covering technical, natural, social sciences and humanities. The obtained data give a broad picture of the everyday life of youth and confirm some previously theoretically and empirically justified theses about the connection of the family background of students, everyday habits, with the level of empathy, intercultural sensitivity and preferences of the role models and lifestyles of the examinees.

Keywords: life styles, role models, empathy, intercultural sensitivity, perception of family relations

Introduction

Theoretical background

The concept of self is most often associated with the group's membership and is realized through interaction with others. People tend to describe themselves more often in terms of members of a group (family, class, profession, etc.) than in the terms of the value judgment. Therefore, individuals in self-evaluation of personal values will most often self-evaluate and invoke the values that nurture and prefer the primary reference group - the family in the first place, and then spreads social and cultural circles. Therefore, the individual is most often self-assessed according to the level of accomplishment of the goals that the group it prefers. Since identity is created by the complex and dynamic processes of interaction between different roles, but also the inner layers "I", "ME", "SELF" and "MIND", according to Georg Herbert Mead (1973), in the "generalizing other" the difference between personal and social identity is developed. While in a functionalistic perspective identity represents a compromise between personal and social, the authors of other theoretical orientations clearly distinguish these two identities. Kamler (Lüdtke, 1987, after Tomić-Koludrović and Leburic, 2002: 42) explains these two identities using the concepts of life philosophy and lifestyle. While life philosophy represents a personal identity in the terms of individual forms of personal values, moral, political and religious beliefs, the lifestyle implies a social identity based on socially recognized, conventionally established values and views.

All of these theoretical starting points emphasize the importance of the social context for the development of the individual and show that other people can be an important source / role model of social behaviour. In this sense, learning by model on the basis of examples, has been shown to be one of the most effective forms of social learning: person will much more willingly mimic an example of another person, especially if he/she respects him/her, he/she loves or if he/she is close to
him/her and considers him/her to be similar to himself/herself be guided only by advice or warnings (Rot, 2008). After Rot, learning by model includes three forms of learning: learning by identification, learning by imitation, and learning of the roles.

The aim of the research

The aim of this research was to determine to what extent different variables describe everyday life of youth (in this study of students) and their family background related to the choice of models, preferences of lifestyles, level of empathy, intercultural sensitivity, and resistance to stressful situations, depression and anxiety. In this sense, in addition to general data on examinees, gender differences were identified, the assessment of parental dimensions of control and emotionality (family circumstances), empathy level, intercultural sensitivity, and resistance and tendency to depressive, anxiety states and stress. This research is characterised by an interdisciplinary approach, through insights into different of scientific fields relevant to researches in culture, social pedagogy and psychology. The research is a continuation of the research in which we, on the same sample, separately considered the optimism and the pessimism among the students (Alić, Ćerić and Habibović, 2018). At the same time, the results on this sample were compared with the results of the study of lifestyles and empathy of students collected on the other sample three years ago (Alić, Ćerić and Habibović, 2015).

Methodological framework of research

The research has elements both qualitative and quantitative analysis. In the study, a non-experimental empirical transversal plan was used in which we relied on interviews with individuals, survey using standardized scales of assessment, analysis of theoretical structure and statistical data processing. The field survey was carried out in the spring of 2017, the input and processing of data in the autumn of 2017, and the first analysis of the data processed at the end of 2017. The empirical part of the research included a sample of 457 examinees, undergraduate students at the University of Zenica and the University of Sarajevo, with a total of 9 faculties and 10 departments covering technical, natural, social sciences in the humanities. At the University of Zenica we conducted the research at the following faculties: Faculty of Mechanical Engineering (38 examinees), Faculty of Polytechnic (57 examinees), Faculty of Metallurgy and Technology (34 examinees), Faculty of Law (44 examinees), Faculty of Philosophy 69 examinees), Faculty of Economics (22 examinees) and Faculty of Medicine - General Medicine and Health care (77 examinees); and at the University of Sarajevo: Faculty of Political Sciences (74 examinees) and the Faculty of Natural Sciences and Mathematics (42 examinees). An insight into the gender structure of the sample suggests that the survey covered 328 female students and 129 male students.

The following questionnaires has been used in this research: a questionnaire on general information of examinees, scale of parental perception of family relations (Vulić-Prtnić, 2000) including 25 items by which the examinees evaluate the dimensions of emotionality and control of both mother and father – Alpha Cronbach for emotionality of mother is 0.809, for emotionality of father 0.857, for mother's control 0.766, while for dimension of father's control, Alpha –Cronbach coefficient is 0.76; scale of empathy (Baron-Cohen, 2012) Alpha-Cronbach coefficient in this research is 0,867; Intercultural Sensitivity Scale / containing sub-scales: Interaction Engagement, Respect for Cultural Differences, Interaction Confidence, Interaction Enjoyment, and Interaction Attentiveness (Chen,G.M., & Starosta, W.J., 2000, after to Fritz, Mollenberg & Chen, 2002) - Alpha Cronbach coefficient is 0.833; Scale of optimism / pessimism (Penezić, 2002) – Alpha Cronbach for subscale of optimism is 0,789, for subscale of pessimism 0.806; Life Style Preference Questionnaire - constructed as a five-step Likert type scale, which measures the intensity of the preference of ten lifestyles (Popadić, 1995; Luković and Ćizmić, 2012; Mladenovska-Dimitrovска, Dimitrovski, 2015; Knežević, 2016); and DASS21 –Alpha Cronbach coefficient in this research for anxiety scale is 0.847, for stress scale 0.839, and for scale od depressiveness 0.863. The Alpha Cronbach values has shown for most questionnaires applied equally high scores as well as in our previous researches (Alić, Ćerić and Habibović, 2017, 2018).

Analysis of lifestyle results

In this research, for the purposes of examining the value orientations and lifestyles, we used the Life Style Preference Questionnaire - constructed as a five-step Likert type scale, which measures the intensity of the preference of ten lifestyles: utilitarian style, family-sentimental style, egoistic orientation, popular orientation, hedonistic orientation, power orientation, Prometheus activism, altruistic orientation, cognitive style and religious-traditional style (used in numerous researches: Popadić, 1989; Popadić, 1990; Luković i Ćizmić, 2012; Mladenovska-Dimitrovска, Dimitrovski, 2015; Knežević, 2016). Descriptions of these lifestyles provide a broad framework of understanding current trends among youth, especially within
the student population. In comparison to other surveys conducted in neighbouring countries, the results of our research show dramatic changes in terms of preferred lifestyles.

Taking into consideration the fact that the overview of the preference of lifestyles that youth choose as those styles they currently live, provides numerous information about the individual and collective status of a society, we were interested to what extent is particular style present in terms of students' preferences (Table 1).

Table 1. Distribution of results regarding the preference of lifestyles by gender and on the entire sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Female</th>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th></th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family-sentimental style</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7,6%</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>9,5%</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruistic orientation</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>10,5%</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6,7%</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>9,5%</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive style</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>12,7%</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12,7%</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>12,7%</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilitarian style</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2,6%</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5,2%</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3,2%</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orientation to popularity</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4,5%</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egoistic orientation</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>9,2%</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11,8%</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>9,8%</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prometheus activism</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>7,1%</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8,5%</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>7,5%</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hedonistic orientation</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>27,6%</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>23,7%</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>26,6%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious-traditional style</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15,3%</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orientation to power</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4,3%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2,5%</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3,7%</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>307</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>425</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the entire sample, hedonism is most preferred lifestyle (26.6%), and this lifestyle is equally presented in male (23.7%) and female examinees (27.6%). It is interesting to note that hedonism currently present in more than a quarter of students, indicating the dominant concept of youth, the desirable state of things, as well as the value orientations of young people that are dominant in our society and in an individual, but also in the collective sphere within the subculture of youth. For the purpose of graphic visualization of the representation of life styles and student value preferences, Figure 1. shows the obtained distribution of results.

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1 For comparison purposes, in their research on a sample of 237 examinees, high school students in Bitola, Mladenovska-Dimitrovska and Dimitrovska (2015), they used the same scale and got a completely different ranking of life styles: among the high school students in Bitola, the most preferred lifestyle was family -sentimental style, then utilitarian, followed by egoistic and hedonistic orientation. Minimum preferred lifestyles in this research were: orientation to popularity, orientation to power and a cognitive lifestyle. In a research carried out within the doctoral dissertation, Knežević (2016) lists some of the changes that have taken place in terms of changing the value orientations (Petrović and Zotović, 2009, after Knežević, 2016: 46) in the last two decades in Serbia. Namely, there is a gradual decline in the popularity of lifestyles that implies advocacy for the general interests and well-being of other people, while lifestyles that are directed at personal well-being are increasingly preferred. Thus, research conducted in the 1990s (Popadić, 1990 and 1995, according to Knežević, 2016: 47) in the adolescent population in Serbia, show that the most attractive family style, while the least attractive is the religious-traditionalist orientation, as well as the orientation to power. The results of the second measurement (Popadić, 1995) show changes in the priorities of young people in Serbia. Namely, the popularity of the religious-traditionalist, hedonistic and egoistic way of life is growing, while the altruistic and activist style has become less popular.

2 Can this inclination explain the tendency of youth to leave Bosnia and Herzegovina? Of course, along with variables such as the feeling of hopelessness, the idea of a promised land, and so on, this connection should be explored too.
The second style of representation is religiously traditional, on the whole sample it appears within 13% of the observed population, 15.3% in men and 12% in female examinees.

It is interesting that in the students covered by this research, the cognitive style appears in only 12.7% of the examinees in the overall sample (12.7% in both men and women), which indicates a complete lack of readiness for learning, acquiring knowledge and research work. This trend could be considered worrying since student years are the era when the tendency to learn and professional development should be far more pronounced, especially if we take into account that the sample of young people covered by this research, as we already said, consisted exclusively of the student population (and not those who decided to work or other activities after high school). The next, fourth in the ranking, is the egoistic orientation (9.8%), which is more pronounced than the family-sentimental (9.5%) and altruistic orientation (9.5%). After activism (7.5%), the least present styles are popularity orientation (4.5%), power orientation (3.7%) and utilitarian style (3.2%). Such results remind us of what Tomić-Koludrović and Leburić, referring to Shelsky, called the “sceptical generation” in similar research in Croatia (Tomić-Koludrović and Leburić, 2001) 1.

In the continuation of the analysis of the collected data, we were interested in which of the observed variables correlate the preferences of lifestyles, since the relationship between values, lifestyles, family / family status and other considered variables could indicate the characteristics of the subgroup.

Therefore, the calculation of the relationship between the observed criteria of the variables was made using the Spearman's rho coefficient of correlation, since the correlation ranking was to be determined. Using Spearman's rho coefficient of correlation, the possible correlation between variables was examined: general student data (based on which the role model was sampled), assessment of the dimensions of father and mother emotionality, level of empathy, intercultural sensitivity, tendencies of anxiety, depressive moods, stress, and all compared to the results achieved with regard to the preference of lifestyles.

1 Tomić-Koludrović and Leburić (2001) empirically tested, on a sample of 1283 youth in Croatia in 1999, a hypothetical typology of eight lifestyles of youth, which, by combining the typologies of lifestyles of youth from different European research, was constructed by Gaiser (1994): family oriented young people, male oriented, conventionally oriented, hedonistic oriented, subjectively oriented, reasonably sceptical oriented, dependently oriented and refusingly oriented. Their research results indicate that, although the hypothetical typology has not been confirmed, among the examined sample of youth in Croatia, it is possible to identify six lifestyles: hedonistic intellectual, lifestyle of fashionable dominance, superficially sociable, traditional family, social-conscious and lifestyle of leisure fashionableness. In relation to the hypothetical typology, among the examinees, there were the most family-oriented types (25.6%), followed by male-oriented (15.4%), hedonistic oriented (14%) and subject-oriented (13.5%).
Based on the analysis of the derivation from the correlation matrix for lifestyles and variables of the tendency to depressed moods, stress, anxiety, level of intercultural sensitivity and empathy, a number of extremely interesting correlations have appeared (Table 2).

So, a propensity to depression correlates to P <0.01 in subjects who do not prefer the family-sentimental lifestyle (r = -0.180; p = .000), and the same result is also established in terms of the correlation between non-prefering the family-sentimental lifestyle and tendency anxiety at P <0.05 (r = -0.095; p = .045). This would mean that those students who do not live and do not prefer the current family-sentimental lifestyle are also part of a sample that is more inclined to depressive and anxious moods.

Table 2. Abstract from correlation matrix for life styles and criteria variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Depression</th>
<th>Anxiety</th>
<th>Stress</th>
<th>Intercultural sensitivity</th>
<th>Empathy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family-sentimental style</td>
<td>Spearman's rho</td>
<td>-.180**</td>
<td>- .095*</td>
<td>-.018</td>
<td>.171**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.045</td>
<td>.699</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>443</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious-traditional style</td>
<td>Spearman's rho</td>
<td>-.029</td>
<td>-.032</td>
<td>.049</td>
<td>.045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.548</td>
<td>.501</td>
<td>.306</td>
<td>.346</td>
<td>.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>443</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruistic orientation</td>
<td>Spearman's rho</td>
<td>-.017</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>-.263**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.727</td>
<td>.892</td>
<td>.527</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>443</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive style</td>
<td>Spearman's rho</td>
<td>-.054</td>
<td>-.031</td>
<td>-.019</td>
<td>.378**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.251</td>
<td>.521</td>
<td>.689</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>443</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilitarian style</td>
<td>Spearman's rho</td>
<td>-.033</td>
<td>-.057</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.161**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.493</td>
<td>.232</td>
<td>.899</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.958</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>443</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orientation to popularity</td>
<td>Spearman's rho</td>
<td>.120'</td>
<td>.043</td>
<td>.035</td>
<td>-.218**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.011</td>
<td>.363</td>
<td>.463</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>443</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egoistic orientation</td>
<td>Spearman's rho</td>
<td>-.045</td>
<td>-.077</td>
<td>-.020</td>
<td>.164**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.343</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td>.670</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>443</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prometheus activism</td>
<td>Spearman's rho</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>.079</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>.135**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.876</td>
<td>.096</td>
<td>.448</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.038</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>443</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hedonistic orientation</td>
<td>Spearman's rho</td>
<td>-.015</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.026</td>
<td>.198**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.752</td>
<td>.990</td>
<td>.587</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>443</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orientation to power</td>
<td>Spearman's rho</td>
<td>.072</td>
<td>.074</td>
<td>.063</td>
<td>.026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.129</td>
<td>.120</td>
<td>.185</td>
<td>.589</td>
<td>.135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>443</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>443</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In students with higher scores on the scale of intercultural sensitivity, there is a correlation at the level P <0.01 with regard to the preferences of family-sentimental lifestyle (r = 0.171; p = .000), altruistic (r = 0.263; p = .000), cognitive orientations (r = 0.378; p = .000), and in terms of utilitarian (r = 0.161; p = .001), egoistic orientations (r = 0.164; p = .001); readiness for activism (r = 0.135; p = .004), but also hedonism (r = 0.198; p = .000). In students with higher scores of intercultural sensitivity, there is a negative correlation with respect to popularity orientation (r = -0.218; p = .000). It is interesting that the level of intercultural sensitivity is not in correlation with the religious-traditional style.

The higher the scores on the empathy scale, the more likely they are correlations at the level P <0.01 with family-sentimental (r = 0.193; p = .000), with a religious-traditional style (r = 0.124; p = .009) altruistic (r = 0.212; p = .000), cognitive style (r = 0.193; p = .000), and at P <0.05 activism (r = 0.098; p = .038). Negative correlations between higher scores on empathy scale were found in popularity orientation.

These data at the same time mean that more intercultural sensitivity and empathy can be expected among young people who prefer: family-sentimental, religious-traditional, altruistic, cognitive, hedonistic style, and the inclination to social activism. Among the set lifestyles, all styles other than hedonistic were expected, which should be investigated in more detail.

We also tried to determine possible correlations with regard to the assessment of the dimensions of parental behaviour and the preference of lifestyles (Table 3).

As we expected the correlation at P <0.01 level, it was established between the father's emotionality with the family-sentimental (r = 0.143; p = .004), the religious-traditional style (r = 0.144; p = .004) level P <0.05 with a cognitive style (r = 0.108; p = .031) and power orientation (r = 0.106; p = .033), as well as altruism (we consider it to be considered because the value is p = 0.051). A higher estimate of the mother's emotional dimension correlates to P <0.05 with family-sentimental (r = 0.108; p = .024), religious-traditional style (r = 0.103; p = .031) 05 with altruistic orientation (r = 0.093; p = .051) and cognitive style (r = 0.112; p = .019).

Interestingly, a higher assessment of father control significantly correlates to P <0.01 with altruistic orientation (r = 0.129; p = .010), while maternal control correlates to P <0.05 with popularity orientation (r = 0.110; p = .021).

Table 3. Abstract from correlation matrix for lifestyle styles and dimensions of parent’s behaviour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Dimension of father’s control</th>
<th>Dimension of father’s emotionality</th>
<th>Dimension of mother’s control</th>
<th>Dimension of mother’s emotionality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family-sentimental</td>
<td>Spearman’s rho</td>
<td>-.058</td>
<td>.143*</td>
<td>-.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.248</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.777</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>404</td>
<td>438</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious-traditional</td>
<td>Spearman’s rho</td>
<td>-.005</td>
<td>.144*</td>
<td>.043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.913</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.373</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>404</td>
<td>438</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruistic orientation</td>
<td>Spearman’s rho</td>
<td>.129*</td>
<td>.097</td>
<td>.053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>.269</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>404</td>
<td>438</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive style</td>
<td>Spearman’s rho</td>
<td>.048</td>
<td>.108*</td>
<td>.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.334</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td>.380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>404</td>
<td>438</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilitarian style</td>
<td>Spearman’s rho</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>.070</td>
<td>.053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.296</td>
<td>.159</td>
<td>.270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>404</td>
<td>438</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orientation to popularity</td>
<td>Spearman’s rho</td>
<td>.090</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>.110*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Differences in terms of scores achieved on the empathy scale were interesting to analyse in terms of preferred lifestyles and benchmarks. As expected, the highest percentage of above-average empathic fellows among students who declare that they prefer the currently living family-sentimental (28.2%) and religious-traditional (29.5%). The smallest percentage of highly empathic among students who prefer orientation to popularity (15.7%), utilitarian style (14.2%) and, surprisingly, cognitive orientation (14.8%)¹.

Analysis of results obtained in terms of researching the role model

As part of the research, the participants were given the opportunity to indicate what their first and second role models are. We assumed that this data would complete the image of the agents and sources of socialization and culture, and enabled a more detailed insight into the trends among the student population related to learning by model, explained in the theoretical framework. Due to the large number of different people from the intimate sphere, politics, science, religion, sports and Estrada’s, we have opted for grouping models into the following categories: parents (mentioned jointly as parents, but also separately and jointly listed father and mother), athletes², politicians³, scientists⁴, religious / religious models⁵, celebrities⁶ (celebrity stars, singers, actors ...), other close people (from the family: grandfather, grandmother, granddaughter / uncle, aunt, sister, brother ...) , there will be a large sample of samples that did not identify anyone as a model. At the level of descriptive analysis, but also t-test, we analysed the representation of certain role models within several sampling lines, and the comparison of two large groups within the sample, possible differences between examinees who have someone for the model and those who did not specify anyone as a model.

Table 4. Descriptive presentation of the role model among students and students in terms of first and second choices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>First choice</th>
<th>Second choice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


² In the category of athletes, the following persons were identified as students: Kobe Bryant, Michael Jordan, Zlatan Ibrahimovic, Džeko, Cristiano Ronaldo, Messi, etc.

³ The following persons were listed as politicians in the category of politicians: Tito, Trump, Putin, Berlusconi, Ce Guevara, etc.

⁴ In the category of scientists, the following persons were listed as students: Maria Curie, Nikola Tesla, Rosalind Franklin, James Watson, Francis Crick, etc.

⁵ In the category of religious / religious examples, the following persons were identified as students: Muhammad AS, Jesus.

⁶ The celebrities included the following individuals who were instructed by the students as dozens: Dino Merlin, Eminem, Lepa Brena, Oprah Winfrey, Paris Hilton, Angelina Jolie, Beyonce, Cellion Dion, etc.
parents 47 10.3 11 2.4
father 39 8.5 29 6.3
mother 78 17.1 27 5.9
athletes 12 2.6 6 1.3
scientists 15 3.3 14 3.1
celebrities 34 7.4 15 3.3
religious authorities 37 8.1 5 1.1
no model 181 39.6 334 73.1
politicians 3 0.7 5 1.1
other members of the family 11 2.4 11 2.4
Total 457 100.0 457 100.0

The examinees had the opportunity to choose the first and then the second model. In the first election, the majority of students who do not have a model are 39.6%, followed by mother with 17.1%, parents with 10.3% and father with 8.5%. If we gather these percentages, we will notice that 35.9% of students choose their parents as their first choice. It is also a high percentage of the choice of religious personality, 8.1%, and celebrities with 7.4%.

In the second election, the number of students without role model is increasing, i.e. 73.1%. As a second choice, the father has 6.3% of the choices, followed by a mother with 5.9% (Table 4. and Figure 2.).

Figure 2. Percentage display of sample choices among students

In relation to gender, we have the following structure of answers:

In the sample of students, the highest percentage is without answers i.e. without a model (39.9%), followed by mother (21.6%), parents (11.9%), and father (7.9%), then religious figures (7.6%), celebrities with 4.9%, other family members, and scientists with 2.4%. Politicians and athletes are rarely taken as role models (a total of 3 in a sample). When the sum of both parents is added then the percentage of parents as a model for students is 41.4%.

For comparison, in our earlier research (Alić, 2007, 2012), on a sample of 847 subjects, which included members of three generations within the observed families, only 3.7% of the respondents stated that they did not have a model. In the same research, within the sample of the youngest generation, out of a total of 285 subjects, only 2.5% did not have a model.
The students have the following structure of answers: without a role model, 38.3%, celebrity 14.1%, father 10.2%, religious personality 9.4%, athletes 7.8%, parents 6.3%, mother 5.5%, scientists 5.5%, and politicians, as well as other family members of 1.6%, and when both parents sum up, then the percentage of parents as a model for students is 22%.

In order to analyse the results of the sample choices, it was particularly interesting to note that the fullness/incompleteness of the family from which students come from is interesting (Table 5).

**Table 5.** Descriptive representation of role models among students and students in terms of variable completeness/incomplete family

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I come from…</th>
<th>Complete families (both parents)</th>
<th>Families of divorced parents</th>
<th>Families with one parent</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>parents</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>.0%</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>father</td>
<td>8.8%</td>
<td>.0%</td>
<td>11.5%</td>
<td>8.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mother</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>21.7%</td>
<td>19.2%</td>
<td>17.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>athletes</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scientists</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>celebrities</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
<td>11.5%</td>
<td>7.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>religious authorities</td>
<td>8.4%</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
<td>8.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no model</td>
<td>39.6%</td>
<td>47.8%</td>
<td>34.6%</td>
<td>39.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>politicians</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other members of the family</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>407</strong></td>
<td><strong>23</strong></td>
<td><strong>26</strong></td>
<td><strong>457</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students who come from a complete family as their first choice choose their mother, then parents, dads, religious figures, celebrities.

Students who come from families of divorced parents did not choose either their parents or father as a model, but only in their mother’s case, in 21.7% of cases, which is also the largest group of students without a model - 47.8% of them. Students of divorced parents do not even choose politicians, but other members of the family as role models. They choose athletes in 8.7%, and in the same percentage and celebrities. Students who come from a family with one parent first elect their mother, and then their father and their parents.

With rural students, the selection order is as follows: mother, father, parents, religious figures, and equally celebrities and scientists.

The order of students from the city is: mother, parents, father, celebrities, and then religious figures.

The order is almost identical in relation to the place where they currently live.

During the analysis of the results, we noticed that two large groups of examinees were identified: one group of examinees with a model, and more than a third with no model. We were interested in whether there are visible differences between these two groups. We examined t-test whether there are differences between students who have a choice and those who have no choice of role model (Table 6).

**Table 6.** Comparison of groups of students with and without a role model in view of the considered variables
Scales | N | Mean | Std. Deviation
--- | --- | --- | ---
The altruistic orientation | 271 | 3.86 | 1.035
| 177 | 3.65 | 1.098
Cognitive style | 271 | 3.99 | 1.020
| 177 | 3.73 | 1.095
Prometheus activism | 271 | 3.75 | 1.133
| 177 | 3.47 | 1.158
The religious-traditional style | 271 | 4.22 | 1.099
| 177 | 3.92 | 1.243
Interaction engagement | 274 | 28.04 | 4.393
| 181 | 27.12 | 4.137
Interaction attentiveness | 274 | 11.31 | 1.980
| 181 | 10.88 | 1.889
Emotionality - father | 250 | 39.14 | 4.946
| 163 | 37.65 | 5.638

The scores of the altruistic orientation are statistically significantly higher for students with a role model at p <0.05 (r = .0.045; df = 446). And with the cognitive style, we also find statistical significance for the benefit of students who have a role model, and at p <0.05 (r = .0.011; df = 446). It is identical with activism, and here we find a difference in favour of students who have a role model, and the difference is present at the level of p <0.01 (r = .0.010; df = 446). We also find the difference in the religious-traditional style in favour of students who have the model, as well as in interactional competence and inclusiveness. It is very important to emphasise that students with a role model also statistically significantly estimate higher the father's emotionality at p <0.05 (r = .0.024; df = 453).

Conclusions
Within the observed sample of 457 students from 9 faculties and 10 study departments of the University of Zenica and Sarajevo, a number of variables related to empathy, intercultural sensitivity, degree of resistance to stress, anxiety and depression, the choice of role models and lifestyles, and the assessment of parental behaviour. All variables are within the role model of the sample examined with each other, but also in relation to gender, demographic characteristics, study orientations, everyday habits of students and variables related to family circumstances.

When it comes to the relation between the level of empathy and the selected role models, a high percentage above the average of empathetic is among the students who choose parents as role model (21.7%), religious figures (22.2%), but also among those who do not have models (20.7 %). The most low-empathy among the students are the politicians as role model (33.3%), other members of the family (27.3%), athletes (25%), celebrities (23.5%), but interestingly father, too,23.7%). At the same time, the lowest percentage of above-average empathy is the students who choose the politicians (0%), celebrities (8.8%) and athletes (8.3%).
The preference and current living of one of the offered lifestyles was a separate part of the research. On the whole sample, hedonism is most preferred (26.6%), and this lifestyle is equally highest in male (23.7%) and female examinees (27.6%). It is interesting to note that hedonism currently lives more than a quarter of students, indicating the dominant concept of youth, the desirable state of things, as well as the value orientations of young people that dominate in our society and in an individual, but also in collective sphere within the subculture of youth. The second style that is mostly presented is religiously traditional, on the whole sample it appears within 13% of the observed population, 15.3% in men and 12% in female examinees. It is interesting that in the students covered by this research, the cognitive style appears in only 12.7% of the examinees in the overall sample (12.7% in both men and women), which indicates a complete lack of readiness for learning, acquiring knowledge and research work.

The examinees had the opportunity to choose the first and then the second model. In the first election, the majority of students who do not have a model are 39.6%, followed by a mother with 17.1%, parents with 10.3% and a father with 8.5%. If we gather these percentages, we will notice that 35.9% of students choose their parents as their first choice. It is also a high percentage of the choice of religious personality, 8.1%, and celebrities with 7.4%. In the second election, the number of students without role model is increasing, i.e. 73.1%. As a second choice, the father has 6.3% of the vote, followed by a mother with 5.9%. The T-test has identified possible differences between these two largest groups of students: with a choice of model and without model. A statistically significant difference in the benefit of students who have a role model is determined by altruistic orientation and cognitive style. It is identical with activism, and here we find a difference in favour of students who have a role model, as well as with the religious-traditional style, interactional powers and interactional involvement. Students with a higher education also assess the father's emotionality.

The results obtained in this research are not just a useful and interesting source of information about the characteristics of young people's culture in terms of preferred role models, life orientations, values, sensitivity to others, all in view of family circumstances, but also an important set of data based on which could develop work programs with students. Young people, at least according to the results presented in this research, are increasingly turned to entertainment and immediate pleasure, are sceptical and quite pessimistic, and among adults outside the family, there are no examples, and more and more people who declare themselves to have no role, even within intimate circles. The results also partly explain some of the very current trends in our society, such as: emigration, outpouring of youth and professional staff, growing feeling of helplessness, pessimism and apathy among young people, as well as shifting the age limit in which young people take over social functions and get married.

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Deconstruction of Gender Stereotypes Through Fashion

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Abstract

This research aims to investigate the role of fashion in the context of the deconstruction of gender stereotypes. Expectation of society and culture related to the biological structure of the individual carries some roles and this role also carries many gender stereotypes in it. But the individual can use the clothing style to express his or her gender identity which may not match the expectations of the community and society. In the context of big role of the clothing, stereotypes could be deconstructed because clothes are the visible expression of gender identity of the person. And fashion is a big part of this structure because fashion is a pioneer of what people wear. Nowadays fashion has also mean about expressing identity independent of whether you were born male or female. Many fashion brands prepare their collections in the concept of ‘gender fluid’ by deconstructions. The representations of gender fluidity through fashion help bring a sense of normality to people who are trying to find the self-confidence to express who they want to be. And the results are showed that the numbers of collections about it are increasing and fashion sector takes this issue into consideration.

Keywords: Fashion, Gender Identity, Gender Stereotypes, Deconstruction, Gender Fluid

Introduction

Stereotypes are the common beliefs and values of the group, culture or religions and the gender stereotypes are fixed ideas about men’s and women’s traits and capabilities and how people should behave based on their gender. For example common gender stereotypes about the color blue and pink for boy and girl. In fact these stereotypes could lead also to discrimination. But clothing for both men and women is culturally defined by the society. Cultural norms and expectations are related to the meaning of being a man or woman and are closely linked to appearance means clothing, because the clothing is the most important point of representation of the identity. At this point the clothing has a big role. When the concept of clothes is concerned, the concept of fashion is emerging. And the essence of fashion is transformation and innovation and Deschamps has come to the conclusion that fashion is global. Three of Deschamps’ twelve vector fashion devices are gender, society, and norm.

So, the relationship between gender and fashion is an important point, even with different parameters. It means that if society changes, norms changes and if the norms changes, fashion changes or vice versa. And also these changes can come out with the changes of perceptual perspective.

In this research the stereotypes in the perception of form and color appearances about clothing has been tried to examine. Then, the gender stereotypes which are deconstructed at fashion scenes have been explained over the examples. The role of fashion in the adoption of change by society has been tried to explain through examples.

The Roots and Construction of Gender Discrimination at Fashion

The common of the society has unspoken rules about gender dressing codes. The stereotypical masculine or feminine qualifications are not personality characteristics of individual men and women but socially constructed representations of gender, on the basis of what society expects of each sex (Condor, 1987; Lloyd & Duveen, 1993).

As dress can be used as a communication tool to communicate information such as one’s gender or status, it can carry some stereotypes according to the culture, religion or society. Before 1649 – Puriten influences on dressing after King Charles I was dead- there were no significant differences between sexes in their way of dressing. Both sexes would wear
decorated costumes. One’s class determined with the colours and shapes of the gowns, not one’s gender. The aristocrats and bourgeois superiors, used to show the abundant lace, rich velvets, silks, decorated shoes, elaborate hats, wigs and plenty of perfume (Davis, 1992). A pink, silk suit with gold and silver decoration was seen as entirely masculine. The clothing was the signifier of social class and the more elaborate it was the higher the social class.

But later it had changed year by year. Instead of Macaroni’s floral, colorful garments, Dandy’s slim, less colorful and less embroidered garments started to become popular for men’s wearing. The Macaroni were aristocrats who tried to distinguish themselves from the growing middle class with too quirky and weird clothes (Craik, 1993). The Dandies are the movement introduced by Beau Brummel in London, a socially ambitious man, who tried to join the higher social circles. It was continued by Beerbohm and George de Maurier. With simple, plain clothes he tried to create the new aristocrat style. He wore starched white linen shirt with cravat and black pants, black vest and tight waisted wool coat and breeches. Everything fit perfect, was clean and crisp, and he was proud for the cleanliness. He wore soft yellow gloves and used a black walking stick with ebony handle. He was the forerunner of the modern business suit and tie (Entwistle, 2000) (pic.1).

As Flügel’s description (1930) it’s the great male abandonment, the most important event in the history of dressing in which men are no longer interested in “beautiful” appearances and want it only to be useful. It won’t be wrong to say that it was the important period of the concept of “wearing just like a man” and “wearing just like a woman”, had accepted by the society.

As Hunt (1996) and Kawamura, (2016) said fashion has been feminized in the 19th century and has become more powerful than the representation of the social class representing the gender gap in clothing.

Gender Stereotypes which are Deconstructed at Fashion Scenes

Since 1920, pants for women began to be tolerated in sports and some limited activities such as cycling and horse riding (Sawyer, 1987). In 1949, Richard Curle unleashed a damning indictment of women who revolt against traditional forms of femininity; calling them “sour spinsters”. Earlier, in 1939, the fashion designer Elizabeth Hames argued that women were not yet ready to wear trousers at work. It took a world war to remove their corsets; will need another one to accept the trousers (Arvanitidou, Gasouka, 2013). During the 1960s society reflected the rising wave of gender politics and the sexual revolution. The 1960s and 1970s are seen to be the era where in gender stereotypes were questioned and dismantled, a time where in feminist and gay rights movements were gaining a voice, and the fashion industry reacted to these movements.
While we've seen gender stereotypes challenged and occasionally defeated in fashion and popular culture throughout history such as David Bowie, the Disco era; these breakthroughs were not necessarily about removing the labels within gender, but about crossing and breaking those boundaries. In 1966, one of the most important revolutions for women dressing had come into the scene with YSL, the collection called ‘Le Smoking’ (Pic. 2). In the same period, jean pants which were the term unisex and had a counter stance about gender discriminatory, spread in the United States, also in Europe. It has been the symbol of the liberating of the body from rituals and social roles.

Those periods were another important points at fashion not about the construction of gender stereotypes but about the deconstruction of gender stereotypes. Because they were the first steps of the deconstruction of gender stereotypes and basis of today's fashion styles. As Waquet and Laporte (2011) said that the development of the form, use and color of a garment over time; the social change of women and men wearing these clothes reveals change of own society. Nowadays the bridges between gender roles are becoming progressively more narrow, not only in the fashion industry but throughout society, mainstream media and politics.

The clothing style that looks like the shadow of the otteritan is disappearing. On the one hand, socialist social struggles, on the other hand, the unisex approach of the developed market system, as well as the evolving democratic human rights consensus, abolished gender discrimination (Anger, 1998). New approaches, new concepts, new terms emerged such as gender fluidity, gender free collections, mix gender shows.

Today’s fashion revolutionaries are not interested in feminising men or emasculating women, rather they are aiming to blur the masculine/feminine divide and eliminate those labels. And it means gender fluidity in fashion. From the runways, through to the high street, the emergence of genderless fashion is slowly beginning to distort the line between traditional gender roles in the industry. As seen at picture 3, Calvin Klein’s collection is for women and men to wear virtually interchangeable clothes, in restrained, minimalist androgyny at New York Fashion Week.
Then it won’t be wrong to say that the speed of this situation will increase with a high speed time by time with the influences of fashion shows. Traditionally, men’s and women’s collections are shown at different times—in fact there are two separate biannual fashion weeks, one dedicated to each sex. But especially at last two or three years fashion shows have been started to arrange for both sexes. Starting in 2016 September, Burberry and Bottega Veneta combined their men’s and women’s collections into one show, held on the women’s show schedule. Bosse Myhr who is the director of Menswear, Selfridges, said “The key point of interest for me is a new sense of fluidity and freedom in the industry. All formats are relevant now. There was a point when people thought fashion shows would be a thing of the past in the digital age. Flexibility and new ideas can only bring new and expanded opportunities” (Abnett, 2016).

If we talk about the “color”: of course color is one of the most well-known stereotypes about clothing as Martin (1998) says “When clothing genders the body, the color of clothing is an important element in that gendering process”. But it changed nowadays because men have started wearing vivid colors as never before except Renaissance and Rococo periods. But also gender stereotypes about using color on clothing have been started to deconstruct.

For example Gucci’s mostly colorful collections are absolutely deconstruction of gender stereotypes through fashion not only about the color but also forms (Pic. 4). Gucci followed suit with a collection of loose silks, floral prints on suiting and shorts and bows and embellishments—all of which could, and more importantly were worn by all genders. Gucci’s creative director, Alessandro Michele stated: “It seems only natural to me to present my men’s and women’s collection together. It’s the way I see the world today. If the clothes are beautiful, what does it matter who’s wearing them?” Michele’s explanation also can be supported with Bourdieu’s enunciation at “masculine domination”. “Bourdieu’s main concern was to create any kind of effect that would heighten the unequal relations between the sexes” (Maton, 2005).

Another example about deconstruction of gender stereotypes through fashion can be given above leopard design because we are used to seeing leopard patterns in more women’s collections. It is often found to be unusual for men. But leopard patterns were seen in male fashion anymore as Dolce&Gabbana fashion show (Pic. 5),
Michele’s ideas and other designers’ ideas that create unusual looks, mixgender shows, new concepts like gender fluidity, gender free collections, can also be supported with Derrida’s deconstruction theory. According to Derrida (1981) every element of the system will change all connectivity, so every element will change again and again. In this direction, the deconstruction must be considered as a two-stage radical critique. The first stage is disruption, the second stage is rebuilding. The structure of meaning of the subject is disrupted at the first stage. In the second stage, the subject is rebuilt in a completely different context. Instead of imposing itself as a truth claim, the re-establishing process that emerges in the second stage leaves the endless meanings into new possible chains of meaning as a trail in the chain. In this respect, deconstruction is not a mere demolition. It is a structure that operates to keep the possibility of constantly building new constructions alive.

It can be said that the functions of fashion is very important at those points. Fashion makes unusual styles - I mean outside the norms of the society and the style which is surrendered with stereotypes-visible. Then fashion has a big role about adaptation of people to them and has a power on normalizing them.

Of course it is still hard to see exactly the same looks that we have seen at catwalks, on streets. But it can be said that it has started with small steps on streets. For example high street hero H&M; who have pioneered genderless collections before, are doing it again with a fashion forward denim line that truly blurs the lines of feminine and masculine clothing. Offering a laid-back range of stylish separates, those are actually super wearable (pic 6).

Conclusion

The existence of the gender concept in the fashion sector in the context of discrimination has been created in the past by power relations, social structure and sociological reasons. But especially nowadays, it has become a situation that is being tried to be removed again. At this point, this research shows how fashion takes a part in society about the deconstruction of gender stereotypes. The research shows that the role of fashion is making visible some situations about this subject and deconstructing norms about forms, colors which had been adapted to person from childhood by the society. And I won’t be wrong to say that today’s fashion revolutionaries are not interested in feminising men or emasculating women. Fashion wants to eliminate those labels. This means fashion wants to deconstruct gender stereotypes in the context of wearing styles. Also this means that the fashion is aiming to blur the masculine/feminine divide because of idea which argues that garments have no gender.

References

CLT in Chines Major's Comprehensive Chinese Course – A case study of Khon Kaen University, Thailand

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Abstract
Nowadays Chinese language is become one of the most important foreign language in Thailand reflexing by the growing popularity of the Chinese language. Traditional Chinese language teaching cause the lack of high communicative competence. Therefore, the study preliminarily attempt to combine the theory of Communicative Language Teaching with Comprehensive Chinese teaching so as to search for a feasible and effective instruction which conforms to the teaching features of comprehensive Chinese course in Khon Kaen University. After Pre-test and Post-test and compared by SPSS (T-Test sig (2-tailed) = 0.00<0.05), the result show that in Listening skill the difference is significant (sig. (2-tailed) = 0.01), Speaking skill the different is significant (sig. (2-tailed) = 0.00), Writing skill the different is significant (sig. (2-tailed) = 0.03), only Reading skill which the difference is no significant(sig. (2-tailed) = 0.324). As a result after a semester using Communicative Language Teaching method in comprehensive Chinese course for Chinese major student in Khon Kaen University, CLT effectively improve student Chinese language achievement and help them to improve their Chinese listening, speaking and writing skill. Moreover, this teaching method is highly recognized by students. This verified the important and necessity of communicative language teaching method to improve Chinese major student Chinese communicative competence.

Keywords: Communicative Language Teaching, Comprehensive Chinese, Chinese Major

Introduction
Now, because of the growing of China’s economic during this century, Chinese language become one of the most important foreign language for the countries around the world. In Thailand, The number of Chinese language learners are also increasing, reflexing by the number of Chinese major graduate in Thai’s University in the past ten years. But a lot of learner still lack of language competence. Its affect Thai learner cannot use Chinese language to communicate effectively. A phenomenon that is usually associated with Thai learner of Chinese is that of becoming “Mute Chinese” The phrase is a calque of the Chinese phrase “哑巴汉语” (yābā hányǔ in Chinese pinyin). The phenomenon that express Thai Chinese learner who can read and understand Chinese, but cannot speak it well.

Comprehensive Chinese course is a basic Chinese language course for Chinese major students, which included Chinese four important skills: Listening, speaking, Reading, and writing. Normally Chinese comprehensive course is divided into basic, intermediate and advanced level. Chinese major student, as language learner who had learned Chinese intensively, the students should be able to interact orally each other through Chinese. But in fact, most of the students in Khon Kaen University did not perform Chinese in their language conversation. The lack of methods and innovation of instruction, and traditional teaching style in Chinese language classroom made Chinese atmosphere in classroom seem like a Chinese grammar course.

From the fact above, the researcher is interested in analyzing some problems about Comprehensive Chinese course teaching and learning and implementing Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) method to improve Chinese major students’ Chinese communicative competence.
Research Methodology

The method of this research is classroom action research. Sample group, there are 35 undergraduate Chinese major students as control group. Using the implementation of CLT method and techniques instruction for 15 weeks (1 semester). The data was collected through a structured pre-test and post-test. In addition, the researcher made use of classroom observation to collect more information and students’ satisfaction questionnaire for student feedback. The data is analyzed by using Means of Pre-test and Post-test, and compared T-test by SPSS program SPSS (T-Test sig (2-tailed) = 0.00<0.05) the result <0.05 were considered to be statistically significant.

Results:

1. Finding

A Pre-test were conducted on the 1st week and the post-test were conducted on the last week of instruction as a result below:

Table 1: Students’ Pre-test and Post-test scores(mean)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>11.23</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>2.237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>12.46</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>1.788</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Pre-test and Post-test T-test paired

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest-Posttest</td>
<td>-1.229</td>
<td>1.330</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>-1.686</td>
<td>-1.772</td>
<td>-5.464</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table above, the Pre-test score mean is 11.23 and the Post-test score mean is 12.4. Students test score have improvement. And after using T-test compared, the result were 0.000. Therefore, the score for Pre-test and Post-test developmental was significant.

2. Compared by skill

Table 3: Pre-test and Post-test divided by skill

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>Listening (pretest)</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>.701</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Listening (Posttest)</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>.507</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 2</td>
<td>Speaking (pretest)</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>.781</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Speaking (Posttest)</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>.648</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 3</td>
<td>Reading (pretest)</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>.622</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reading (Posttest)</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>.583</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 4</td>
<td>Writing (pretest)</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>.530</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Writing (Posttest)</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>.445</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Pre-test and Post-test T-test paired divided by skill

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In Listening skill part, student pretest score mean is 2.74 and the Post-test score mean is 3.09. Student have improvement in this part. The T-test score were 0.01, Sig. (2-tailed) <0.05, which mean that the score for Pre-test and Post-test in Listening skill part was statistically significant.

In speaking skill part, student pretest score mean is 2.51 and the Post-test score mean is 3.14. Student have much improvement in this part. The T-test scores were 0.00, Sig. (2-tailed) <0.05, which mean that the score for Pre-test and Post-test in Speaking skill part was statistically significant.

In Reading skill part, student pretest score mean is 3.29 and the Post-test score mean is 3.31. In this part there was not have too much change in the test score. The T-test score were 0.324, Sig. (2-tailed) >0.05, which mean that the score for Pre-test and Post-test in Reading skill part was not significant.

In writing skill part, student pretest score mean is 2.69 and the Post-test score mean is 2.91. For this part student have some change in the test score but not too much. The T-test scores were 0.03, Sig. (2-tailed) <0.05, which mean that the score for Pre-test and Post-test in Writing skill part was statistically significant.

Discussion

Based on the result which found by researcher along the process of instruction, we could see that students have improve their Chinese language skill trough implementing Communicative Language Teaching method and technique in Comprehensive Chinese course. From the classroom observation, student have more confident to communicate with people through the class work and after class activities that arranged by instructor. Moreover, Communicative Language Teaching method could motivate student to have a great participation to the class activities than in the past. And from the student satisfaction reflexing through the questionnaire, most of students (80%) very satisfy with this method. From the interview, student reflex that this method help them to minimize the pressure during having communication and lead them to have much effort to express their ideas in front of others.

In teaching and learning activities, without language environment some class activities have to adapt from the content in the lesson by using the resource we have. For example, group work in the class about Chinese people “take a nap (睡午觉)” the instructor not only let student discuss and interview each other in the class, and also assign them go out to interview Chinese exchange students in the campus. The activities make student start to communicate in Chinese, not only the topic they have, but starting from introduce themselves and tell the objective of activities they made. After this activities some of students have made some of Chinese friends.

Reading skill, as the result above, it was not significant in this part. After analyzed the problem, researcher found several problem that affected the result: first content of the textbook. Many chapter included the reading part but just a few lines of reading content, which not quite interesting and cannot draw students' attention. Second student still stuck in the traditional learning method which try to translate all content. Third some of reading assignments activities in textbook is quite faraway from realistic environment that student can follow and understand. For example, reading the passage and go out to interview, but the content is all about a Chinese local food in Beijing. Moreover, the lack of suitable Medias and supporting learning facilities for example Book, external reading resource also affected students reading abilities.

Otherwise, during the process researcher found some problem that need to improve in the further study. First, the lack of Chinese language environment will directly affect student language learning. Because except the class work (pair work or group work), some assignments of instruction need them to work with the real language environment, for example,
interviewing etc. Moreover, in Thai language living environment, student have less opportunities to practice outside classroom. Another, student itself. Thai student have lack of self-learning ideas so this directly affect the class activities because most of activities in this method require student to have preparation on vocabs, the instructor always waste time on vocab use. Another is the lesson and content in textbook is quite faraway from student realistic situation, so they have no chance to take what they learn in class to use frequently.

Conclusion

To improve Thai student Chinese language communicative competence and Chinese language quality, to support the communication in all areas between Thailand and China effectively, and to innovate present Chinese language teaching, Communicative language Teaching (CLT) as the method is one of the important things that should be applied during teaching and learning process. The result of this research have useful information for development of Thai’s Chinese Language instructor to applying the method in teaching to be able to improve student language competence and communicative achievement in the future.

References

Social Work and Neurosciences: Speeches and Theoretical Contributions

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Abstract
The concept of “neuroscience” sometimes referred to as “the last frontier of biology” (Squire et al., 2008, p. 3) was introduced in the mid-1960s and is now recognized as a multidisciplinary field that analyzes the nervous system to understand the biological basis of human behavior. The ongoing developments and the emerging production regarding the deepening of the structure, functions and functioning of the brain and its interaction with the environment enabled the identification of key elements reaching an unprecedented level of knowledge in the history of humankind. The multidisciplinary scientific approach, including non-clinical areas such as music, philosophy, education, mathematics, economics and physics, has also contributed to its further deepening. In the light of this scenario of interdependencies and disciplinary alliances, the discipline of the social and human sciences – social work – whose subject is conceived “from and for the practice” (Parton, 1996) in the day-to-day work with challenging social problems of various types and with different publics. Therefore, the present article aims to analyze what has been done to date since 2001, namely the input and contributions of authors and researchers in the field as well as to understand the input of neuroscience developments in their education and research. Also worth mentioning is the identification and relevance of the links between these domains which have contributed to the enrichment of the profession.

Keywords: social work, neuroscience, education, social intervention

Introduction
Neurosciences reached the peak of their development during the so-called “decade of the brain” (1990-1999) and, for the last 17 years, social work has been following the discussion and contemporary thought on the input produced by neuroscience, seeking to build bridges between both areas. It therefore presents itself as one of many scientific disciplines which recognized the importance of incorporating neuroscientific contributions into its own field of knowledge, whilst underlining the nature of social work and the need to understand people’s behavior within the context of their living environment.

The theoretical approaches of “person in situation” and “person in environment” are the cornerstones of the profession which sustain a comprehensive understanding of the support given to the individual and its system:

“The ‘person in situation’ and ‘person in environment’ has long since been cornerstone of the profession. Clients need to be supported and changes that occur in an individual need to be supported within the environment where the client lives and thrives. There is no magic cure or pill to cure anything without a holistic understanding of the person’s support and environmental system” (Dziegielewski, 2010, p. xiii).

In the light of this perspective and by means of the present literature review, our goal was to identify theoretical approaches to and thoughts on the relationship between social work and neurosciences which highlight its significance in training, professional practice and area of research.
Sayer (2014) points out that this body of research in the field of neurosciences is underpinned by contemporary and historical perspectives on social work.

The aim of systematizing the literature review was to gather several approaches and arguments which incorporated the most relevant and reliable contributions on the subject under research. To that end, we accessed the Portuguese Catholic University webpage as well as that of the Libraries of the University of Coimbra in order to collect the existing scientific databases available online. In addition, we resorted to the Google search engine and the b-on (Online Knowledge Library). During the execution of this task, we sought to confer greater relevance to scientific articles and reference books specifically related to the field, within a time span of approximately five years. It was not always possible to comply with this criterion given the need to gather complementary information so as to define the framework of the subject matter. Consequently, the literature review covers the time period between 2001 and 2017. Hence the use of keywords and combinations of keywords as guiding points in order to detect relevant articles about the relationship of the topics in question: social work and neuroscience.

The b-on presented 462,879 results and, from this starting point, we narrowed the theme on the basis of certain exclusion criteria, namely documents with no direct relation to the subject matter. This collection also resulted in the identification of works by authors of reference, which, in turn, enabled the narrowing of the collection itself.

- The importance of neuroscience in social work – training, research and intervention

There are countless examples from 2001 onwards which demonstrate that many authors and researchers have focused their studies and analyses on the importance played by this relationship in social workers’ academic training, intervention practices and research.

According to Egan (2001), thanks to these new findings, the discipline of social work has access to vital contributions to the understanding of human behavior and social environment. In the field of neuroscience, the study continues and never could one conceive of the functioning of the human brain, as well as its disorders and importance to our mental or physical health, as being disconnected from the existence of people within a society (Sena, 2016, p. XI).

The reference literature focusing on the relationship between social work and neuroscience includes authors such as Shapiro (2010), Farmer (2013), Egan, Combs-Orme, & Neely-Barnes (2011), Miehls (2011), Matto (2013), Montgomery (2013), Sayre (2014) and Maynard, Boutwell, & Vaughn (2015) who advocate the need to integrate neuroscientific developments into the way social workers view and understand the complexity of the world in order to guide and improve their interventions (table 1).

Table 1 – Contributions of neurosciences to social work practices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author/Year</th>
<th>Work</th>
<th>Contributions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shapiro, J.R., Applegate, J.S. (2005)</td>
<td>Neurobiology for Clinical Social Work Theory and Practice</td>
<td>New research findings on the neurobiology of attachment infant mental health Neurobiology of memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farmer, R.L. (2009)</td>
<td>Neuroscience and Social Work Practice: the Missing Link</td>
<td>Reasons to incorporate emerging research in social work training and practice Link to social neuroscience Transactional Model Framework Advocating (e.g. child neglect), fundamental understandings, policy-relevant understandings, client practice-level understandings Neurobiology of abuse/addiction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montgomery, A. (2013)</td>
<td>Toward the Integration of Neuroscience and Clinical Social Work</td>
<td>Integration into psychodynamic social work Relevance for social workers school curricula, regarding policy-related issues, human development and social environment, social justice, diversity and its potential to other approaches related to various human problems</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The relevance of neurosciences in social work training, practice and research is based on the following arguments:

- By increasing our understanding of how the brain works, neuroscience provides explanations to many of the personal and social problems encountered by social workers (Farmer, 2009).

“(...) more extensive neuroscientific and other science-based explanations can help social workers in explaining the emotional, psychological, social, and behavioral difficulties that we encounter” (Farmer, 2009, p. 82).

- These contributions enhance our knowledge and understanding of the role of the brain in human development and behavior (Egan, Combs-Orme, & Neely-Barnes, 2011; DiPietro, 2000; Negash & Petersen, 2006; Weatherston, 2001).

“Understanding how the brain develops in infancy and connecting ontogeny with functioning helps social workers understand the tremendous importance of infancy for brain development and future functioning and achievement. Many (if not most) of the problems in which social workers intervene arguably have roots in this period of life (Combs-Orme, Wilson, Cain, Page, & Kirby, 2003).

Enhanced understanding of the importance of infancy through integration of neuroscience content should provide social workers with knowledge to influence social policy and service design and delivery (Egan, Neely-Barnes, & Combs-Orme, 2011)” (Combs-Orme et al., 2015, p. 645).

- Social work can take into account the biological components of the psychosocial perspective in order to inform practices (Shapiro, 2010; Farmer, 2015) and strengthen the advocacy function in multiple areas (Shapiro, 2010; Farmer, 2009, 2013; Egan, Combs-Orme, & Neely-Barnes, 2011).

“One expanding area of inquiry is the neuroscience related to the effects of social disadvantage. Social and cognitive scientists have long documented a range of behavioral and cognitive deficits that are found more commonly in people from deprived circumstances” (Wax, 2017, p. 2).

- Given the interdisciplinary nature of social work, social workers are well positioned to contribute with and integrate their social and behavioral research, while also translating those research findings into practice and the development of new interventions (Egan, Combs-Orme, & Neely-Barnes, 2011).

“Given the social work’s interdisciplinary nature, social workers are well positioned to contribute to the integration of social and behavioral research and translate these research findings into practice (McCutchon, 2006; National Association of Social Workers (NASW), 2003). Indeed, biosocial research is essential for a deeper understanding of the problems with which social workers are concerned and can improve our understanding of the etiology and course of conditions to inform more accurate assessment strategies” (Maynard, B., Boutwell, B., & Vaughn, M. , 2015, p.2).

- The knowledge of neuroscience promotes an interdisciplinary practice through the use of a common language, as in situations related to psychopathology, drug abuse and cognitive aspects of aging; explanations about the functioning of the brain and psychopathology may offer new evidence or discredit existing ones (Egan, Combs-Orme, & Neely-Barnes, 2011).

Egan, Combs-Orme and Neely-Barnes (2011) argue that if social workers are knowledgeable about brain and nervous system interactions as well as the relevant psychosocial elements, and use the language employed by their peers in...
multidisciplinary teams, their way of communicating will become more effective, thus enhancing the transdisciplinary environment of the professional practice.

- Practices are the focus of social work.

“The knowledge gained through biosocial research can inform and enhance interventions by allowing us to better understand mechanisms through which interventions work and more effectively and efficiently target biosocial variables and interactions that predict and moderate treatment response” (Maynard, Boutwell & Vaughn, 2015, p. 2).

However, Maynard, Boutwell and Vaughn (2015), Garland and Howard (2009) consider that, even though social work highlights the biopsychosocial perspective in the understanding of human behavior and in the relevance of contributions made by biosocial research for the practice of social workers, it has had a rather unclear impact on practices.

According to Farmer (2009), the integration of neuroscience into the perspective of biopsychosocial human behavior prepares social workers for a transdisciplinary environment which can promote improved care continuity for clients and families, thus fostering a better assistance which takes into account brain-related conditions and diseases. Moreover, it equips them to practice advocacy, particularly with regard to intervention in early intervention programs, drug abuse prevention and other treatments as well as to work interdisciplinarily.

The author states that its potential, regarding social work intervention, comprises four main areas: it increases our knowledge about the role of the brain in human development and its impact on behavior (since the formation of the brain before birth until its functioning in adulthood); it encourages new insights for theories and models of social intervention; it provides scientific support to social work with an evidence-based practice and enables the development of new interventions; it promotes the understanding of the interaction of the brain with the central nervous system and psychosocial elements, maximizing the effectiveness of the multidisciplinary communication process through the use of terminology shared by other clinical areas.

Therefore, according to Farmer (2009), the relationship established between neurosciences and social work relates essentially to the fact that it is a professional area which deals with psychosocial challenges encountered by individuals and families as well as social behaviors, therefore being inextricably linked to social neuroscience.

“The term “social neuroscience” was introduced in 1992 to describe a field of research – or set of fields – using social and biological levels of analysis (Cacioppo & Bernston, 1992). It analyzes concepts and ideas from the neural to the social level (Ito & Cacioppo, 2001)” (Farmer, 2009, p. 11).

The author points out that some areas of brain development are indispensable to understand the mechanisms and structure of brain activity as well as its development in the context of neuroscience and psychosocial development throughout life.

“Social workers have historically worked with persons who experience environmental deprivations as well as serious emotional and psychiatric problems, and social neuroscience is a resource for such work” (Farmer, 2009, p. 17).

Matto (2013) considers that advances in the knowledge of brain function enabled the understanding of transactional interdependencies between brain, behavior and environment, bringing new opportunities for social workers to transform their working methods as agents of social changes through the systems.

“The current decade of discovery is focused on advancing understanding of the ways in which strategic psychosocial interventions act on brain structures to change behavioral response. This focus is deeply relevant to the person-in-environment perspective integral to the social work profession. In advancing our profession’s practice models to incorporate current brain science research, social workers will be positioned to more effectively work with the diverse client populations and settings of our profession, and we can use such knowledge to inform advocacy efforts, influence human service policy decisions, and contribute to practitioner education” (Matto, 2013, p. 2).

Matto (2013) states that these contributions have several implications for education and practice. The author considers that, on the one hand, the biopsychosocial perspective of social work practice has been highlighted in many social work schools but, on the other hand, the biological components of this threefold perspective have not been developed enough.
Johnson (2014) believes that the more we learn about neuroscience and its connections, the better we are equipped to assist the people we serve. The author raises relevant questions for social workers to think about:

— How do individual differences interact with environmental forces to mold our lives?

— How can we make connections between the conditions we encounter every day in our work, such as substance abuse, psychiatric challenges or family violence, and the invisible changes in our brains that lie behind these visible psychological events?

Following Farmer (2009), Blundo (2015) considers social neuroscience a tool which can help social work students to be better in the area of intervention, assisting them in developing critical thinking skills and social-emotional learning, in addition to increasing empathy towards their clients.

- Concepts and links to social work practice: some contributions

Researchers have developed many lines of thought and input in the field of social work. Therefore and in order to clarify some neuroscience concepts and their importance to social work, we present the following summary table (table 2):

### Table 2 - Neuroscience concepts and their importance to social work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author/Year</th>
<th>Concepts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shapiro, J.R. (2010)</td>
<td>Neurobiology of attachment (affect regulation), memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montgomery, A. (2013)</td>
<td>Autonomic nervous system (ANS) and the phenomena such as disorders of personality, defense mechanisms and attachment styles; brain plasticity; dysregulation affect; the ego and the right hemisphere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matto, H. (2013)</td>
<td>Mirror neurons, empathy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miehls, D. (2014)</td>
<td>Plasticity, right and left brain hemisphere, information processing and memory Potential of reparative relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combs-Orme, W., Cain, P. &amp; Kirby (2003)</td>
<td>The importance of brain growth between the age group of 0-3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Egan, Combs-Orme, & Neely-Barnes (2011) introduce important concepts to social work, such as critical and sensitive periods of development, neural plasticity, cognitive aspects and memory, stress and trauma:

**Critical and/or sensitive period** – it refers to development stages during which a given brain structure or area is particularly receptive to external stimuli and quickly establishes a multitude of connections between the neurons and the vigilant system, each one interacting with other systems.

**Neural plasticity** – it means that the neurons and neuronal connections can grow and change throughout life, and also involve different psychosocial aspects, such as lifelong learning, the influence of the environment on how to process emotions and the influence of stress and trauma on the brain.

**Cognition and memory** – it is the ability to solve and store information and develop solutions to problems. The cognitive process occurs in the cerebral cortex.

**Stress and trauma** – the importance of stress and trauma to the ecological perspective already has a long tradition in social work; however, new findings in neuroscience unveiled the role of brain functions in adaptation and non-adaptation responses to stress and trauma for the person’s future development.

In this line of analysis following the neurobiology perspective, Miehls (2011) also focuses on these brain areas and functions as being relevant to social work practice.
Montgomery (2013) offers examples of shared concepts between successful psychodynamic interventions and neuroscience research, and of their integration into social work practice. The author describes the four major contributions made by neuroscientific findings to the clinical practice, pointing out that three of them incorporate the link between the autonomic nervous system (ANS) and the phenomenon of clinical interventions such as personality disorders, defense mechanisms and styles of attachment. This last point relates to the connection between the ego functions and the activity of the right side of the brain. The author states that special attention has been given to the field of affect dysregulation because it is considered a main risk factor in a variety of psychosocial difficulties.

Farmer (2014) describes and addresses the implications regarding the relevance of mirror neurons to social work practice. The author refers that “mirror neurons” have important implications for social work theorizing and practice. “Thought research on these specialized visuomotor neurons is still in its early stages, the mirror system (MNS) links visual and motor experiences; makes possible implicit learning via imitation of what is seen, heard, and felt; and is believed to be involved in the development of empathy and understanding the intentions of others” (Idem, 2014, p.37).

The author mentions that by integrating these concepts into social work practice, it is possible to deepen our knowledge about behavior and its importance to communication, and the ways of applying such understanding to the design of social interventions; our understanding of the therapeutic relationship between client and practitioner; and the link between the theory of attachment, the social brain and its development. Much of the endeavors undertaken by social work take place in the context of relationships established between social workers and clients, at the core of the aid relationship.

Sayre (2014) explores the connection between the theory of evolution and neuroscience, considering that the combination of the two can enrich the theoretical foundation of social work and provide not only coherence to the way social workers understand the complexity of the world but also guidance for enhanced interventions. The author states that neuroscience is based on Darwin’s theory of evolution (Cozolino, 2010; Farmer, 2009) which can provide a different theoretical component to steer the social work practice. “In evolutionary theory, the ultimate function of any adaptation is to increase the chances of ‘gene survival’” (cit. in Sayre, 2014, p. 970).

Several authors provide examples of application of neuroscience to social work:

Shapiro and Applegate (2000) discuss the clinical applications of new information about the impact of care provision on early child brain development.

Matto and Strolin-Goltzman (2010) defend the incorporation of social neuroscience into social work assessments and practice development.

Gerdes, Lietz and Segal (2011) address the connections between neuroscientific research on mirror neurons and the measurement of empathy in order to improve client assessment in social work.

Gerdes, Segal, Jackson and Mullins (2011, p. 968), “presented a method of engaging students’ mirror neurons for the purpose of improving effective development of empathy: ‘Affect-based experiential learning engages mirror neurons at the visual, auditory, and somatic levels, helping us to relate to experiences we may never have had, thereby increasing empathy’”.

Egan, Combs-Orrme and Neely-Barnes (2011, p. 968) “outlined themes from neuroscience research that can be included in courses in human behavior and the social environment, astutely noting ties to social policy advocacy”.

Reyes (2016) also stresses that this knowledge is of the utmost importance to social work practice. The author believes that its findings allow us to understand social, behavioral and human problems and their consequences to individual and social well-being, while also providing a new perspective based on which these problems can be analyzed and addressed, particularly in relation to empathy, mental health, attachment, addictions, neurodegenerative diseases, stress and post-traumatic situations.

According to Matto and Strolin-Goltzman (2010), there are significant links between high-stress environments, such as extremely poor milieux, exposure to chronic violence, scarcity of opportunities and consumption experiences, and the psychobiological imbalance or the increase of the allostatic load (McEwen, 2001), due to the excess or ineffectiveness of the adaptation processes used by people in order to maintain the organism stable (McEwen, 2001).
Concluding remarks

Common to all researchers is the emphasis on the need to continually incorporate the neuroscientific perspective into social service as far as training, practice and research are concerned.

“Indeed, from a social justice perspective, social workers have a unique obligation to participate in and contribute to neuroscientific research” (Matto, 2010, p.150).

“Social work has long advocated a biopsychosocial perspective in understanding and treating individual and social problems. (…) Despite an emphasis on a biopsychosocial understanding of human behavior and the relevance of biosocial research to social work practice, it is unclear whether social work is contributing to biosocial research and knowledge.”(Maynard, Boutwell, & Vaughn, 2015, p. 1) 

As stated by Miehls (2014), we must always bear in mind that neuroscience findings are constantly increasing and rapidly evolving, making it imperative to be acquainted with them.

This literature review permitted the identification of approaches and theoretical observations on the relationship between social work and neuroscience which underline its importance not only to the training given to social workers but also to their professional practice. However, the research is still limited and therefore the development of new studies in emerging fields is encouraged. Given its expertise and experience in dealing with social problems and promoting human well-being, social work can give an important contribution.

“Despite developments in these lines of research, science has only begun to examine the effects of psychosocial interventions on brain structure and function. More research must be conducted in this emerging field, and the social work profession, with its expertise in addressing social problems and enhancing human well-being, can make a vital contribution to this endeavor” (Garland et al., 2009, p. 8).

As stated by Johnson (2014): “Neuroscience is still a long way from having all the answers. In fact, it’s only recently made its entrance. But it offers explanations that can help you answer some of these questions better than you could without it.”

It is important to mention the existence of different theoretical and practical guidelines that shape social intervention in social work training and practice at an international level. Not all countries have incorporated the area of clinical social service into their courses, so the contribution of these findings to education begins right here with this question.

References


The Use of Peer Assessment to Improve Students’ Learning of Geometry

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Masitah Shahrill
Masriatol Zuriafh Sajali
Sultan Hassanal Bolkiah Institute of Education, Universiti Brunei Darussalam

Abstract

This mixed-method action research study aimed to examine the effect of the use peer of assessment in a Brunei Mathematics classroom in the learning of Geometry. This study offered insights into the use of a student-centred learning approach, which the participants held the role as an assessor of peer’s work, and the use of peer feedback as a potential learning source in changing students’ conception and understanding in the topic of Angle properties. The study revealed that the use of peer assessment had significance in improving students’ performance in the learning of Geometry and there was evidence of knowledge retention as a result from the intervention as seen in the improved post-test performance on similar mathematical problem. In addition, the mathematical works in the post-test still showed evidence of misunderstandings and misconception in the concept of Angle. Despite the unsatisfactory quality of peer feedback given by the participants, the assessing activity and the student role as the assessor had increased cognitive, metacognitive awareness and self-regulation in their learning. Overall, the participants showed positive perception and attitude towards the use of peer assessment as a learning tool in Mathematics and considered it as a means for knowledge sharing. There was still concern of emotional sensitivity and anonymity despite the effort to maintain the anonymity of the students’ work and identity as an assessor.

Keywords: Peer assessment, feedback, student learning, geometry

Introduction

The term assessment is often closely associated to tests, examinations and interviews. According to Brown (2004), assessment is defined as “any act of interpreting information about student performance, collected through multitude of means or practices” (p. 304). Ghaicha (2016) argued that the terms like testing, evaluation and measurement may not be synonymous with assessment, however, Black and William (1998) mentioned that there is no universally agreed upon term. Assessment is an approach to enhance the quality of instructions to suit the learners’ different learning styles and needs by gathering information pertaining students’ academic performance by means of assessments.

In Mathematics learning, giving assessments is already a common situation in classroom and serve as a way to practice the mathematical concept and the procedural steps that have been taught in the classroom. This is evident as according to the national survey of 555 teachers by Plake and Impara (1993, 1997) that reported that three-quarters of the participants gave minor classroom assignments at least once every week. Assessments do not just merely serve as an instrument to measure students’ performance and behaviour but also for instructional evaluation to promote towards better teacher instructions by judging the effectiveness of instructions on students (Brown, 2004; Botty & Shahrill, 2015; Damit et al., 2015; Ghaicha, 2016; Kulm, 1994; Mohammad et al., 2017) and for students’ accountability in their learning. In addition, Ghaicha mentioned that assessment is also used to categorise group of students for instructional purposes as also seen in the work of Othman et al. (2016) where a classroom assessment is administered beforehand to identify the learning styles of students in order to carry out the tiered assignments. Classroom assessment is a primary source for the process of differentiated learning.
Peer Assessment

Peer assessment is a form of formative assessment or assessment for learning that is used as a learning tool and no foreign in the field of teaching and learning. In educational context, the steps of peer assessment process are summarised in systematic order as follows: establish rapport, give out works to be assessed, distribute rubric and performance criteria, peer assessment debriefing, training using sample work, discussion and work revision (Black & William, 1998). The constructive feedback from the evaluation is the expected outcome that should serve helpful purpose towards the asseesee's personal developments. Peer assessment comes in various formats in terms of its implementation and evaluation process. In learning context, it ranges from just a simple marking of other's work for reducing teachers' load to assessing peers' performance and contribution towards group project.

In a traditional classroom setting, students are instructed to do a learning task and submit the completed task where a teacher will be in charge of making judgement and marking process. Once returned, there is likely students will not read the written feedback, as according to Thomas, Martin and Pleasant (2011) that once the work is off from the students' hands, they are no longer engaged with the work. Students are perhaps extrinsically motivated to complete or compelled to do learning tasks due to time-limit factor or fear of punishments. Subsequently, they become less reflective in doing the work and uninformed about what makes a quality work. In peer assessment, the students indirectly gain benefits for being reflective when judging or marking peer's work. The students are able to receive immediate feedback about their works.

In a study done by Adediwura (2015) on the use of peer assessment in Secondary Mathematics classroom, the findings revealed that the intervention had positive impact on the students’ learning retention rate. In the study of 212 Secondary Mathematics students (Chukwuyen & Adeleye, 2013) in Nigeria, the intervention had shown a significant improvement in the post-tests scores. In addition, students developed positive attitudes, behaviours and became more engaged in the learning process after being exposed to this learning approach (Kearney & Perkins, 2011; Topping, 2003). A study by Chan (2013) in an eight grade Mathematics classroom in Macau had shown improvement in several aspects of students learning; mathematical reasoning skill, fluency in conceptual and procedural knowledge and positive growth of attitude towards Mathematics. These findings further support the benefits of peer assessment. According to Logan (2009), the improved academic achievement is resulted from the self-awareness and critical thinking that developed from the process.

Peer assessment to promote metacognitive thinking

According to Topping (1998), peer assessment has influences on the following domains namely “cognition and metacognition, affect, social and transferable skills” (p. 254). As shown in the study by Pantwati and Husamah (2017) on university students undertaking Science courses, the use of peer assessment had influences on their metacognitive thinking. In addition, peer assessment is an active learning model, which helps students to develop collaborative and reflective skills through the result of metacognitive processes (Husamah, 2015). Hence, peer assessment encourages students to be accountable of their learning (Langan & Wheater, 2003; Vickerman, 2010) and leads to development of self-regulation, self-regulation and reflection (Egodawatte, 2010; Gielen, 2007; Langan & Wheater, 2003). Moreover, this could potentially improve learning as it involves a task requiring students to engage and encouraging them to reflect on the quality of work for improvisation (Chukwuyen & Adeleye, 2013).

Peer assessment as a platform for peer tutoring

Peer assessment can be regarded as part of peer tutoring process (Chan, 2013; Donaldson & Topping, 1996). The characteristic of students interacting, supporting and learning from each other during the peer assessment reflects those of a peer tutoring activity (Topping, 2005). The students may not be interacting physically through verbal feedback but assessing their peers' works and giving feedback in the rubric are already considered as peer interaction. In this study, the students will be assuming the roles of both ‘assessor’ and ‘assessee’, which resembles reciprocal peer tutoring (Chan, 2013). According to Medcalf (1992), cooperative learning is defined as a learning approach that encourages the learning of peers or peer tutoring. This indirectly implies peer assessment is a form of cooperative learning, which shares similar role to peer tutoring. While the feedback aims to help peers to improve their quality of works and evaluate their learning, the act of giving feedback to peers incorporates sense of cooperation and also collaboration as it involves interaction between a minimum of two (Kollar & Fischer, 2010). As a consequence, it stimulates motivation among group members for peer tutoring and peer assessment, subsequently correction, which produce enhanced learning (Slavin, 1996).
Peer assessment as observational learning

A common feature of peer assessment is making judgement or evaluation of others’ works. Not only this particular task provides opportunity to students to look into others’ work, students get to monitor their current learning performance. This enables students to evaluate and make judgement by thinking critically and be reflective on the work, which becomes a learning opportunity for the learners. A study by Logan (2009) on implementing self and peer assessment on 11 higher education students revealed that majority of students found out they were able to learn more from looking at a variety of peer’s works. Another study by Wood and Kurzel (2008) reported that student realised the value of doing comparison of their own and others’ work. This provides opportunities for students to learn from the mistakes made and the criteria that make up an exemplary work through exposure of different peers’ works. By exposing students to others’ works and instructing them to make judgements, it gives them the opportunity to extend their knowledge and look at the different approaches made by their peers in the work. (Logan, 2009; Zevenbergen, 2001). A study by Tsivitanidou et al. (2018) also reported similar finding on the use of reciprocal peer assessment on Secondary school students in the learning of Physics.

Feedback

In peer assessment, peer feedback is the core component of the process meant for the peers (Topping, 1998). According to Gielen et al. (2010), the bidirectional nature of giving and receiving feedback potentially enhances students’ learning as students could learn from different examples and approaches in the process. A classroom often consists of students coming from different academic ability and perhaps may have different perceptions towards peer assessment due to prior experience. Hence, the quality of peer feedback generated from the assessor is likely to be affected by his or her domain knowledge (Patchan & Schunn, 2015; Van Zundert et al., 2012). This explains the concern on accuracy of feedback produced by peers reported in several studies (Alqassab et al., 2018; Falchikov, 2004; Liu & Carless, 2006; Strijbos & Wichmann, 2018). This is because for the feedback to be effective on the students’ learning lies on the assessor’s ability to critically link his or her prior knowledge with the work (Liu & Carless, 2006).

Use of rubrics in learning

A rubric is defined as a framework to assess students or mathematics learning task, which can be adopted or tailored by the teacher (Kulm, 1994). Rubric has been used to assess students’ works across any disciplinary subject, often used to judge quality of performance or whether the criteria are met. Rubrics are used to help teachers analyse the information about students’ understandings from performance-based task. Rubrics are categorised into different types according to its functions such as anaholistic rubric, process rubric, analytic rubric and anaholistic rubric (Kulm, 1994). Meanwhile, in a study by Idris et al. (2017) on the use of rubric in the History presentation of Year 10 student, it was found that students were motivated and anticipating the use of rubric which helped in completing the task by knowing teacher’s expectations ahead. The explicitness of learning and task expectation set in the rubrics is an advantage for students in understanding clearly of the learning objectives to be reached (Andrade & Ying, 2005; Huba & Freed, 2000; Stiggins, 2001). Idris and colleagues stated that the use rubrics enabled teachers do systematic evaluation of their students’ work and contribute to the students’ learning process through constructive feedback whilst acting as the framework. On the other hand, Chong et al. (2017) used observational rubrics to monitor students’ learning progress and to measure students’ inquiry skill in the inquiry-based learning of conditional probability.

The Study

The aims of this present study are to investigate the impact of peer assessment on students’ conception on the concept of angles, to investigate whether peer assessment affects students’ learning retention and transferability skill after assessing their peers and reading feedbacks directed to themselves, to identify students’ misconceptions in the topic of Angle Properties, and to inform educators and researchers particularly in Brunei of the use of peer assessment in the learning of Mathematics.

With the aforementioned aims the following research questions central to this study were posed:

How does peer assessment affect the students’ performance in the learning of Geometry?

What are the students’ perceptions on the application of peer assessment and its peer feedback in the learning of Mathematics?
Following the first research question stated above, two hypotheses are formulated:

H₀: There is no significant difference in students’ performance after lesson intervention using peer assessment
H₁: There is significant difference in students’ performance after lesson intervention using peer assessment

Methodology

This study adapted the Action Research design, which is known to employ a mix of qualitative and quantitative data collection approach. The rationale for choosing action research is because this particular research design aims to find solution to common problems encountered by schools and subsequently acts as a means of professional development (Mills, 2011). In accordance to the research questions stated above, imply the need of quantitative data type to identify any difference prior and post intervention. Collection of quantitative data is preferred for the first research question as Denscombe (2010) noted that quantitative data is analysed not based on intuition and others can validate it for authenticity. Whereas, for the second research question, qualitative data is required to explore further on participants’ attitudes and perceptions towards any parts of the intervention process.

The participants that were involved in this study were 23 Year 11 students aged between 14 to 16 years old, from an all-female government secondary school in Brunei Darussalam. All participants were from a Year 11 class that consisted of mixed ability students. All participants studied Mathematics 'D' and were not taking Additional Mathematics subject. The school is government funded where the local Bruneian students are waived from paying tuition fee. The participants of this study were selected by convenience sampling. The school was chosen for this study on the basis that it was within the convenient commuting distance. A follow-up qualitative data collection procedure after the intervention, which is the focus group interviews, required a small percentage of study samples.

Consent to conduct the research study were sought from the Department of School, Ministry of Education, Brunei Darussalam and the university. According to Declaration of Helsinki (1946), children of age under 16 will be required parental consent to participate in any research study. Hence, parental permission letters along with participant information sheet were distributed to participants of the study. Any students’ names mentioned here are pseudonyms.

Instrumentation

For quantitative data collection, the following instruments were employed:

The Pre-test was used to assess students’ understandings and actual knowledge in Geometry at a point before the intervention is conducted. It assessed students’ understanding on the concept of properties of angles. The pre-test allowed the researchers to tap into the students thinking by investigating the misconceptions and errors made by the students. The post-test assessed the change in the students’ conception and understanding in Geometry after a period of intervention. In addition, the performance from the post-test served as an indicator whether the learning strategy, that is, the peer assessment approach, used in this study had effect on students’ understanding. The contents of the post-test were an exact replicate of the pre-test instrument. The pre- and post-tests questions were pilot tested prior to the commencement of main study by test-retest reliability method. The pre- and post-tests were administered to Year 10 students at a different school setting. A one-week interval between the pre-test and post-test was ensured so there was no memory effect. Meanwhile the Pearson coefficient of correlation obtained from the Test-retest reliability (0.853) of the pre- and post-test instruments indicated a very high reliability.

The classwork consisted of nine questions including its subquestions. It assessed students’ knowledge on the concept of Angle Properties with some questions possessed similarities with the questions in the tests. This classwork would be used as the work to be evaluated by the assessor during the peer assessment.

The 5-points Likert Scale survey explored the students’ perceptions and attitudes towards the intervention conducted in the classroom whether there was any relation with students’ performance in the post-test. The survey was adapted from Chan (2013) and slightly modified for this present study with the addition of a few items to fit the design of the research study and the topic chosen for the intervention. This survey was particularly adapted and chosen for this study because this study shared resemblance with Chan’s design of the intervention, that is, peer assessment, for her action research study. The use of survey allowed the researchers to collect wide range of response in a relatively short amount of time yet very informative towards study (Johnson, 2008). According to Revilla, Saris and Kronick (2014), the 5-points Likert Scale survey
is preferred because higher odd-numbered point scales lead to lower quality data. In addition, the use of 5-point Likert scale instead of 7-point Likert scales helps to reduce respondents’ frustration level, increase response rate and its quality as well (Babakus & Mangold, 1992).

For qualitative data collection, the following instruments were employed:

The rubric acted as a medium for the students to write qualitative feedback and to assess their peers’ works against the criteria being set. The rubrics for the peer assessment were developed and designed by adapting the common structure in a rubric developed by Chan (2013) for peer assessment in an eighth grade Mathematics lesson. The rubric was modified and designed to follow the content covered by the assessments given. The column under ‘Steps to Success’ was set blank for the purpose of student-teacher discussion of the required success criteria during later peer assessment. The modified rubric consisting of four columns is shown in Figure 1. Every student was required to fill in the success criteria they had come up for each question after discussing with peers and the teacher. If the assessee correctly answered a question, the assessor had to write down the evidence found in the assessee’s work that met the success criteria into the column ‘How did you know your friend already achieved the criteria?’ However, if the assessee did not correctly answer the question, the column is not required to fill in and the column to its right, ‘What it should have been?’ had to be filled in by correcting the mistake found in the mathematical working. In addition, the assessors were recommended to give qualitative feedback on the mistake or misconception the student had made in the last column, ‘What your friend should revise on to improve his/her work’. This included constructive feedback that focuses on correcting the mathematical understanding.

![Figure 1. Modified Rubric.](image)

The focus group interviews allowed the researchers to elicit information from the participants as they were all sharing similar experience under the same intervention treatment. The group setting created dynamic interaction that means more varied responses and opinions could be obtained, and to gain insights on why they held such views (Denscombe, 2010). The interviews were in semi-structured format, and were carried out by asking verbally a series of open-ended questions with guided prompts and follow-up questions. A pre-interview was conducted to determine whether the students had experienced peer assessment and their perceptions of similar processes, if they reported otherwise. The post-interview was to determine students’ perception towards the use of peer assessment and its process as a learning tool in the learning of Mathematics.

Video recording of classroom observation was also employed to analyse the classroom behavior and interactions among the students. The information obtained helped to supplement what the interviews and surveys could not probe from the students, so that any important findings that caused concern would not be missed.
Data analysis

For the reliability of the test instruments, Pearson correlation coefficient or also known as the Pearson R test was used to compute the correlation coefficient. The tests instruments were piloted on a different school through test-retest reliability. The variables would be the students’ test marks at Time 1 and Time 2 respectively. If the correlation coefficient was greater than 0.5 then, the test was reliable, whereas, if the correlation coefficient was between -1 and 0.5, then the test instrument was not reliable. The reliability analysis was done using a spreadsheet package namely Microsoft Excel.

The mixed method research design of this study allowed the triangulation of the findings from both qualitative and quantitative sources such as between focus groups and questionnaire. This approach helped to increase the validity of findings by means of their accuracy to gain more confidence (Denscombe, 2010). For this study, methodological triangulation was used where comparison between qualitative and quantitative data was made (Denscombe, 2010).

Quantitative data were collected for the first research question, the mean and standard deviation for both pre-test and post-test were computed. To accept or reject the hypothesis formulated earlier, the significance of the difference between the two pairs of the descriptive statistics aforementioned was checked. A repeated-measures t-test, or also known as, paired samples t-test, is an inferential statistics used to determine the statistical significant of the differences. If the p-value obtained is less than or equal to 0.05, then the null hypothesis is rejected. Whereas, if the p-value is larger than 0.05, the null hypothesis is accepted. This was done by statistical package namely SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences), which is known widely for its use in statistical analysis. Meanwhile, to analyse the quantitative data collected for the second research question, descriptive statistics were used to obtain a general view of students’ perception towards the learning strategy implemented in this action study. Both video recordings of the classroom lessons and audio recording of the pupils’ interviews were transcribed for the qualitative data analysis. Both focus group interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim. A word processing package, Microsoft Word, was used to create the interview transcripts. The transcripts were analysed to form descriptions or codings that were further categorized into themes, which gave overviews of the students’ perception towards peer assessment.

Intervention procedure

Before the intervention was carried out, a pre-test was administered to measure students’ knowledge and to identify existing misconceptions on the topic of Angle Properties. The test papers were subsequently marked to record and measure the students’ current level of understanding on the topic prior to the intervention. A short classwork was assigned to students to be attempted individually within 20 minutes. Each student was assigned a ‘student number’ consisting of alphanumeric characters. The students were not allowed to write their name on the paper nor did they were allowed to share their identification number with their peers. The purpose was to keep the anonymity when the works were exchanged among students later. The classwork was collected and followed by a short briefing. The briefing aimed to define peer assessment, its purpose in learning, examples of success criteria, and list of learning objectives. Students were reminded to give constructive feedback and avoid hurtful comments. Handouts of sample classwork and sample rubric on the same topic as the intervention were given to students. The explanation of how peer assessment is conducted was supplemented along with a handout on learning objective and a list of common success criteria expected in the topic. A training on peer assessment and setting of success criteria was given to students to familiarise themselves with the rubric and assessing peers’ works against the criteria.

A one-hour Mathematics lesson was allocated for the actual peer assessment. Prior to the assessment, a rubric sheet was given to every student and a short time was allocated for the setting of success criteria in the rubric for each question. Each student was given an anonymous classwork of his or her peers. The assessors were not allowed to write their name in order to minimise the negative consequences of the interpersonal procedures (Panadero, 2016). Students were instructed to form into a group of four students. The groups were formed on the basis of teacher’s selections so that to create a heterogeneous grouping. The classwork and pre-test marks were used to assist the teacher in doing the selection. They were encouraged to discuss among their group mates on the given works. The students were expected to discuss the correct procedures to solve the problem and write feedback by commenting on the mathematical aspect and suggest the correct solution for inaccurate or incorrect work. The teacher did not provide solution at all. At the end of the class, the rubrics were collected and the teacher marked the rubric to avoid the students from utilising inaccurate feedback for later work revision. The teacher refrained from giving Mathematical solutions in the rubric. During the subsequent lesson, the rubrics were returned and a similar blank classwork was distributed to students. The students were instructed to individually
revise the classwork based on the feedbacks they received in the rubrics. The completed revised classwork was returned and was evaluated by the teacher to check for its improvement and changes. A post-test was administered to students a week after the intervention. The post-tests were subsequently marked to compare the difference between their pre-tests and post-tests.

Results

The affect of peer assessment on the students’ performance in the learning of geometry

To determine the significance of the effect of intervention on the participants’ score mean, a parametric testing namely paired sample t-test was employed. Preliminary checks were made to ensure the data met the two assumptions for paired sample t-test. The two assumptions are the sampling distribution must be normally distributed and the data is measured at the interval level (Field, 2009).

The normality test was carried out using SPSS version 20 on the difference between the participants’ scores in the pre- and post-tests. A histogram based on the difference between test scores was created and it could be seen that the sampling distribution is normally distributed (Figure 2). The normality of the distribution is further verified graphically as seen from the Q-Q plot diagram (Figure 3), which the plots are well aligned along the line. The absence of outliers in the boxplot diagram and both mean and median are in the centre, which forms a symmetrical-looking box indicating that the distribution is normal (refer to Figure 4). The dependent variable is an interval variable since meaningful mean scores could be obtained for both samples of data. Hence the two assumptions were satisfied and the hypothesis testing could proceed with paired sample t-test.

![Histogram](image)

Figure 2. Histogram showing the distribution of the difference between the test scores.

![Q-Q Plot](image)
A paired sample t-test was conducted to evaluate the impact of the intervention, peer assessment, on students’ test marks and to examine the differences in the scores of the sample group from pre-test to post-test (refer to Table 1). There was a statistically significant increase in test marks from pre-test \((M = 25.0, SD = 15.3)\) to post-test \((M = 35.5, SD = 21.2)\), \(t(19) = -2.529, p < 0.05\) (two tailed). Thus, the null hypothesis \((H_0)\) is rejected and there was significant difference in students’ performance after the intervention. The mean increase in test marks was 10.5 with a 95% confidence interval ranging from -19.0 to -1.80. The eta-squared statistics (0.25) indicated a large effect size. This indicates that the difference is of practical significance. The raw scores for both pre-test and post-test were 11 marks; one mark for each subquestion. The students’ overall marks were then converted into percentage. Overall, 60% of the participants in this study showed improvement in post-test scores after the intervention.

Figure 5 below shows the difference in the pre- and post-test scores. The largest improvement recorded was a positive change of 45.5% (5 marks increase), which the student initially did not manage to score any mark in the pre-test. The smallest improvement recorded was 9.1% change (1 mark increase). There were five students recorded with decreased performance in the post-test. The largest decrease in scores was only two marks decrease from her pre-test score. There were three students whose scores showed no changes in both pre-test and post-test. The student who previously scored the highest in the pre-test (10 out of 11, 90.9%) obtained an improved post-test score with an increase of one mark.

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**Table 1. Paired sample t-test, mean and standard deviation for mean differences between pre-test and post-test scores.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Lower</td>
<td>Upper</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 shows the overall mean marks and standard deviations for both pre-test and post-test respectively. The scores for post-test are more spread out after the intervention compared to pre-test scores, as seen from the respective standard deviation values. Meanwhile, Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics of the students’ scores in their pre-test and post-test following the intervention using peer assessment. There were only 20 students included in the analysis out of the actual 23 participants in this study due to absentees in either of the test administered. The comparison of test scores could then be made after excluding the absentees in order to ensure observable effect of the intervention. During the pre-test the highest score attained was 63.6%, while the lowest score was 0%. The mean mark for the pre-test was 25.0%, which is below the passing mark of 50%.

Table 2. Mean and standard deviation for pre-test and post-test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>25.0000</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>15.29043</td>
<td>3.41904</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post</td>
<td>35.4545</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21.24854</td>
<td>4.75132</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for pre-test and post-test scores.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Missing</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25.0000</td>
<td>15.29043</td>
<td>233.797</td>
<td>63.64</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>63.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>35.4545</td>
<td>21.24854</td>
<td>451.501</td>
<td>81.82</td>
<td>9.09</td>
<td>90.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Following the intervention, the highest mark attained in the post-test was 90.9%, while the lowest mark attained was 9.09%. This shows a slight improvement than the pre-test with every student seated for the post-test were now able to answer successfully at least a question. The overall mean mark for the post-test was 35.5%. This is a noticeable improvement in the students’ performance in post-test compared to in the pre-test. The change from the mean pre-test scores was 10.5%.

The rubrics were returned to respective students that were used in assisting them in making a revision of their classwork in individual setting. Both classwork were examined to identify any significant changes in the procedural steps or diagram work sketches before and after the intervention. The quantitative results (Figure 6) of the students’ revised classwork show tremendous improvement in the quality and accuracy of their mathematical working of the problems. This shows that students utilised the feedback in the rubric in making revision of the work, although there were only few helpful qualitative feedbacks on improving mathematical understanding towards the topic.

Figure 6. Classwork performance before and after revision of work using feedback from the returned rubric.

After the revision of their classwork, it could be seen that some students had shown improved mathematical reasoning in the work. Although the reasoning shown was often very brief and in short sentence, it was slightly accurate than before. As an example Farah previously stated ‘parallel’ to support her answer in Question 2b (Figure 7). After the revision of classwork, she wrote a more specific statement ‘angle at alternate angle’. To state which angle property applied was not required in the question, however, this provided the opportunity to investigate the student’ thinking and any possible misconceptions held.
Due to absenteeism during peer assessment, three students did not have an assessor for their work. Hence they received no feedback from peers. Despite the shortcoming, majority of these students were able to revise their classwork successfully without the aids of the written feedback. Perhaps the students’ engagement in the discussion during peer assessment had memory effect on them.

The observation of rubrics revealed a few incorrect judgments and inaccurate mathematical explanations in the qualitative feedback. In the case of Wardah (a pseudonym), she successfully did the correct revision (Figure 9) for Question 3a despite the inaccuracy in feedback she received as seen in Figure 8. Perhaps Wardah’s engagement in the discussion activity with peers or the assessing task, made her to reflect on her and peer’s work, thereby allowed her to have a better understanding of the solution for the particular problem.

Figure 7. Sample work with improved reasoning.

Figure 8. Inaccurate evaluation by the assessor for Wardah for Question 3a.
Figure 9. Wardah’s changes in the classwork for Question 3a before and after revision given inaccurate feedback.

The correct mathematical solution provided by the assessor may have resulted in the drastic improvement in classwork revision. It was observed majority students followed and heavily depended on the solution given in the feedback. This includes copying a minor mistake made by the assessor. This case shows that it was not clearly evident whether students deeply reflected while revising their work with the feedback given in the rubric.

**Students’ perceptions on the application of peer assessment and its peer feedback in the learning of mathematics**

A 25-item questionnaire was distributed to 23 students involved in this study. The questionnaire was distributed within the same week as the post-test. This multidimensional survey aimed to explore students’ attitude and opinions on different aspects of peer assessment and towards the topic Angle Properties. The internal reliability of the questionnaire after reversing the score for negatively worded statements had a Cronbach’s Alpha of 0.919. The response from each item was coded and assigned a score according to its scale: Strongly disagree (1), Disagree (2), Neutral (3), Agree (4) and Strongly Agree (5). The negatively worded Items 1.1, 5.3 and 6.5 were reverse coded.

Table 4 shows the results of the responses from the questionnaire. Generally there was neutral and positive tendency of the participants towards the setting of success criteria. Although there were two participants (8.7%, Item 4.1) disagreed of liking to be involved in the deciding of success criteria prior to both training of peer assessment and actual peer assessment, there were no participants (0%, Item 4.2 and Item 4.3) of being against the two statements about the helpfulness of making success criteria explicit towards their subsequent understanding of the classwork and their ability in assessing their peers’ works. Five participants (21.7%, Item 4.2) strongly agreed that this task had contributed to their understanding on the classwork.

**Table 4. Results of the questionnaire after reverse-coded on some items.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>The most difficult part of Mathematics is angle properties</td>
<td>SD=1</td>
<td>D=2</td>
<td>N=3</td>
<td>A=4</td>
<td>SA=5</td>
<td>Mean (M)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>I am good at angle properties topic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>I like the topic of angle properties</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>The peer assessment training is sufficient to prepare me to assess my peer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>I understand what my role and what I must do during peer assessment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>Teacher’s feedback on my assessment performance is useful to improve my skill on assessing peers.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>I am aware and understand of the purpose of using peer assessment in mathematics classroom.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>I like to be involved in the deciding of success criteria required for the classwork</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The discussion of success criteria is helpful for me in understanding the classwork questions

I am able to assess my peer’s work well when involved in deciding the success criteria

The rubric is easy to use

After the setting of success criteria, I am able to assess my peer’s work

I find it difficult when writing qualitative feedback

I can assess my peer’s work with fair

I feel more comfortable writing feedback when assessing my peers than giving marks

Assessing peer’s work makes me more aware of key mathematical concepts in the topic of learning

I always reflect back to my work while assessing my peer

I understand the feedback given to me

The feedback given to me is accurate

The feedback is fair

The feedback given to me is helpful for me to improvise my work

I am unsure how to revise my work after reading the feedback

I understand the topic better after reading the feedback and making revision of my work

6.6 I enjoy giving peer feedback

From Table 4, it is found that 39.1% of the students agreed that they find it difficult in writing qualitative feedback for their peers. However 60.9% of the students were undecided about the difficulty of writing qualitative feedback. Item 5.5 had a wide range of response from the students. There were 6 out of 23 respondents who disagreed with the statement of Item 5.5 and preferred giving marks than writing feedback for their peers due to uneasiness feeling. For Item 5.7, two students admitted that they were not always reflective and thinking back to their works while assessing their peer’s work. On the other hand, more than half of the respondents agreed that they thought about their work while assessing peer’s work. About 65% of the participants were unsure of the accuracy of the feedback given by their peers. There were varieties of responses from the students when asked whether they enjoyed giving peer feedback (Item 7.1). It was also the second item in the questionnaire that found the highest number of participants disagreed with the statement besides Item 1.2 and also with lower overall mean. For Item 7.1, 30.4% of students did not enjoy giving feedback to their peers. This result could reflect with the highly varying responses from Item 5.5, “I feel more comfortable writing feedback when assessing my peer’s than giving marks”. Another factors that might contributed to the percentage of students disagreed with the statement were the easiness in using the rubric (Item 5.1) or perhaps the ‘demanding’ requirement to write feedback in the rubric for every step of success criteria that were not met by the assessee. On the other hand, Item 7.2 (M = 3.87) shows a higher mean than Item 7.1 (M = 3.13), indicating that students enjoyed receiving peer feedback more compared to giving feedback.

Overall the responses from the questionnaire show positive perception towards the use of peer assessment in the learning of Angle Properties with an overall mean of 3.53 and standard deviation of 0.81. The encouraging responses also include the reverse-coded of the negatively worded items.

Analysis of video recording

Analysis of the video recording of a classroom observation during peer assessment shows that the activity started off with minimal noise level. Interactive discussion among group members was evident and students were motivated to assess peer’s work. In one case the teacher researcher allowed a student to seek assistance from other group to understand the approach to solving Question 3 in the classwork. Students cooperated well while working on the same task together. There were instances of students looking over each other rubrics with very minimal interaction. Off task and unrelated
conversations were commonly heard as students made progress further in the assessing task when the teacher researcher made a class round. The teacher researcher offered minimal assistance and only facilitated the task.

Result of the interviews

Each interview had a different set of six selected students, except for a student who happened to be selected to attend both interviews. The students were chosen for pre-interview on a responsiveness basis. Meanwhile, for the post-interview, the six students were chosen based on their difference of marks between pre-test and post-test which were coming from three categories; two from ‘improved performance’, two from ‘no changes in performance’ and two from ‘decrease in performance’. The rationale for this was to have a varied responses and opinions coming from different abilities. Several themes emerged from the analysis of the interview codings, and the emerging themes from the pre-interview are as follows:

Use of peer assessment in classroom learning

Before the intervention, the students had never heard the term ‘peer assessment’ but have had experienced a peer assessment process informally through the marking of their peers’ works. The student felt that assessing peer’s work was helpful because when they understood the mistakes made in the work they could teach their peers. In other words, they could assist their peers that had difficulty in understanding or solving particular Mathematics problem and help them to improve their understanding by tutoring them.

Usefulness and reliability of feedback

All students confirmed in the interview that they had experienced receiving feedback from peers. However, students admitted that they occasionally read the feedback given regardless from peers or teachers and hence in utilising the feedback in revising their work as well. The students showed positive attitude towards feedback by perceiving it as a step towards confidence, a comment to enhance skills and a motivation to improve quality of work. Afina displayed positive mindset for learning growth as “does not mean we are wrong forever.”

Majority of the interviewee believed teacher’s feedback were useful than peer’s feedback. The reason for the preference from the teacher was the reliability and the concern of accuracy of the feedback given by their peers. A few students showed no preference over the other. Farah commented that teacher gave detailed feedback compared to their peers. Despite that, she believed that the peer feedback would help them to improve their work and work revision if the feedback commented on aspect they need to improve.

The need of explicit assessment criteria and its alternative mathematical solution

Students were sometimes unable to fully utilise feedback given because they were not able to comprehend the mathematical working given by the teacher. When the performance criteria of an assessment were not explicitly stated, students were unable to meet the teacher’s expectation. As Nurul said, “we don’t understand [what] the teacher want”. They further added on that they prefer detailed explanation consisting of step-by-step mathematical working and also a simpler approach to solving a mathematics problem.

Exemplary learning

From assessing the students’ work, students believed that they could learn how the mathematical formula was applied and the different approaches their peers used to solve the mathematical problems. A student said she preferred the mathematical feedback to be demonstrated rather than solely explained verbally by the teacher. She further specified that it had to be shown rather than just writing on the paper.

Meanwhile, the emerging themes from the post-interview are as follows:

Advantages of peer assessment

Use of rubric and explicitness of assessment criteria

Five out of six students gave positive responses in the interview, which implied the usefulness of the use of rubric in improving their understanding. The use of peer assessment also helped students to recall on the mathematical terms that might be necessary for their mathematical reasoning. For instance, peer assessment helped them to revisit the names given for each of the angle property such as ‘z-shape’, which were stated as success criteria.
A student responded that the use of rubric helped to improve the skills on remembering formula and on solving mathematical problems. The listing of success criteria in step-by-step characteristics in the rubric acted as a guide for the students to complete the work. In addition, another student said that the list of success criteria help to improve and clarify their understanding as it provided them examples to follow.

The use of rubric helped to supplement mathematics working with an explanation. A student stated that it helped to identify the mistakes they made in test. In addition the rubric provided clear expectation for the work as a student said “it can helps us more understand the property by looking at the rubric, how to solve…”.

Learning from others and knowledge sharing

The peer assessment is also a way for students to learn from their peers the different approaches to solving mathematical problems such as, in this case, on the topic of Angle Properties. An interviewee added that they could follow the approach used by their peer and hence they could understand better. Peer assessment was perceived as a medium for knowledge sharing with peers, as evident from the following responses in the interview:

“It [is] also we can share our understandings to any friends” (Amy)

“The way we try to understand the angle properties is different, isn’t it. And their way is also different. And we can also give which one is easier for them; [they can choose] either their method or our method.” (Safi)

“And then we can know… follow what they did… And then we can remember and we can understand.” (Afiqah)

Assessing peers’ works allowed students to discern the mistakes in the work. In one instance in the interview, the researcher asked the student how they could identify mistakes in the work they had completed, which the student responded by noting the difference between the submitted work and the peer’s work they were assessing. All interviewees agreed that group discussion had helped them in understanding Mathematics better. An account from Amy implied that the discussion allowed them to explore different, simpler and easier mathematical strategy.

Disadvantages of peer assessment

Concern on anonymity and interpersonal sensitivity

Issue of anonymity was a concern for a student when assessing peer. An interviewee explained that their handwritings exposed their identity as an assessor and their weaknesses in the subject when their works were being assessed. Students disliked when their mistakes in the work became known. Issue of comfortability in giving qualitative feedback was also another concern, as it could possibly hurt their peer’s feelings.

Reliability of peer feedback

There was an issue on reliability of feedback given by peers because of inaccuracy. A student was unspecified when asked regarding the helpfulness of peer feedback in making the revision of work because she had received an inaccurate feedback before. Other factor that affected the confidence in assessing was the different solutions offered by the students during the discussion that were often not in agreement with the teacher’s solution. The reasons for the discrepancy was the criteria (and hence implying the solutions) suggested by the students were incorrect and hence not chosen as the criteria, or the question had alternative criteria which were also correct but not mentioned properly or written on the board by the teacher due to time constraint.

Issues pertaining success criteria

The interviewees were not confident in evaluating the work, particularly questions with few alternative approaches to solving. The responses from the interview suggested that majority were sometimes not confident in selecting their own criteria. Although the interviewees acknowledged there was an alternative approach or success criteria, the discrepancy between the teacher and students’ decision in choosing criteria resulted in students’ losing confidence. As Amy emphasised that it was difficult to be sure which of the answer was correct or not due to different saying from the teacher. The low confidence resulted from weak mathematical knowledge led to heavy dependent on teachers’ final say. In addition, the interviewees were confused by the success criteria listed, as they were not able to comprehend what each criterion meant.
Discussion

The results from this study had provided insights on the effect of a student-centred learning approach through formative assessment. The quantitative result of paired sample t-test for difference in students’ test marks showed that the intervention had significant effect on the students’ performance in the learning of Angle Properties. Possible reasons that contributed to this improvement in test were the reflective cognitive activity that happened during any part of the peer assessment process. By exposure of different quality mathematical works to students through the assessing activity in a group, it encouraged students to reflect on their works while making judgement of the peer’s work. This indirectly led students to measure their current level of understanding against other and make an initiation for a change towards improvement. The reflective practice had contributed to enhance understanding through learning from exemplary work (Langan & Wheater, 2003).

The three out of five students that were recorded decreased performance were among the absentees during the actual peer assessment. Subsequently, they did not assess any of the peers’ work. Perhaps these students benefitted less from the peer assessment process specifically being the role as an assessor. This is because the learning gains from being an assessor are more significant than just being an assessee, as the assessing activity makes them self-reflective while they are comparing between their own works and their peers’ (Logan, 2009; Tsivitanidou & Constantinou, 2016). It is important to note this study had provided opportunity on every participant to become both an assessor and an assessee at the same time, if they were present.

The discussion that was incorporated in the peer assessment through grouping had helped students in understanding the approach to solving a particular mathematics problem. As an example, Question 4ai seemed to capture students’ interest during the peer assessment activity and more discussion was put into this question. The discussion allowed students to maximise the benefits of peer assessment. The interactions with peers on a productive discussion enabled students to share their thoughts and promote critical thinking (Piaget, 1971). In addition, the discussion promoted peer tutoring and subsequently students’ understanding on this particular question was embedded in their memory. Their memory retention was further enhanced with their roles as an assessor to write down the correction or feedback for this question to their peers. As Lin, Liu and Yuan (2001) stated that students are able to engage in important cognitive processes when writing feedback. Furthermore, Pugalee (2004) explained that writing assists students in critical or metacognitive thinking while engaging in the mathematical thoughts.

The use of rubric also indirectly acts as a medium for peer tutoring with others who were not assigned together in a group. This corresponded with a student’s view towards peer assessment as a platform for knowledge or opinion sharing. This was consistent with the statements by Donaldson and Topping (1996) and Chan (2013) that peer assessment is a subset of peer tutoring activity.

The group discussion was lacking of explanation on the conceptual knowledge and often centred on the procedural knowledge. It did not contribute much in improving students’ understanding of the topic, but the procedural steps to getting correct solution for the questions in the classwork. This was evident in Question 3 and 4bi of the post-test, which showed no improvement in marks, although there were similar questions in the classwork testing on the same concept knowledge. Although the students depended heavily on their peers as seen from the video observation and classroom observation, the assessing activity had shown to help in promoting self-reflection and awareness of their understanding (Langan & Wheater, 2003; Logan, 2009; Wood & Kurzel, 2008). This was evident in the improved performance on some questions in the post-test. This showed that students retained the knowledge constructed during the peer assessment activity and consequently their ability to apply the knowledge (transferability) in similar context. This could be seen from the changes in approach to solving problems as evident from the large improvement in post-test for Question 2a, 4ai, 4aii that had similarities with Question 2b and 3 in the classwork.

Analysis of feedback in the rubric indicated that students did not provide sufficiently helpful feedback towards their peers and often lack of Mathematical content. Factors such as concern of emotional sensitivity, weak mathematical knowledge in Angle Properties and even time constraint, perhaps contributed to the low quality of feedback and students’ willingness in giving feedback in the rubric. In addition, students’ proficiency in English Language limits the students’ ability to express their thoughts qualitatively. Writing in mathematics is perceived as a demanding task in the aspects of language skill and mathematical knowledge (Huang & Normandia, 2009), which perhaps resulted in some students preferred giving marks than feedback. This agrees with the result from the questionnaire that a proportion of participants did not enjoy giving...
feedback. This was further supported from a response in the interview, which the interviewee admitted of disliking writing feedback but numerical working only. Students’ reluctance to participate in the peer assessment perhaps was also another factor, as this possibly contributes to the less reliable assessment (Liu & Carless, 2006), in addition to their weak fluency in the subject.

The students’ domain knowledge influences the reliability and the style of feedback given (Alqassab, Strijbos & Ufer, 2018; Van Zundert et al., 2012). Hence, the students’ strength of mathematical knowledge influences the quality and the reliability of the feedback given. It was observed that majority of the qualitative feedback given by the participants did not contribute much in correcting the students’ misconception due to sometimes incorrect judgement and lack of accurate mathematical content. This was understood as the participants were coming from class of mixed ability. This corresponds to the findings from the large amount of respondents in the survey were undecided about the accuracy of the feedback they received and also one similar response from the interview. It was noted that students were dependent on their peers in the group to write feedback as evident in the strong similarity among several feedbacks.

After the intervention, it was observed that the improvement in the post-test was attributed to questions that required simple direct application of angle properties such as the angle property on a straight line, the alternate angle property formed between parallel lines, the vertically opposite angle property and those without requiring formation of algebraic equation. This revealed the current geometric level of thinking of the students in this study.

Time factor such as one-hour lesson might have limited the students from using the opportunity in the peer assessment to reflect deeply on other’s works. Peer distraction and motivation could influence the student’s engagement in the reflective process while assessing the work. Despite the discussion of success criteria conducted earlier, it was expected that students would internalise the criteria and would be able to solve similar problems. However, the weak prerequisite knowledge they possessed unable to let them to understand some of the criteria listed that led to the correct solution. Consequently, the students were having difficulty in making sense of the flow of the mathematical working. With the poor understanding of the criteria, this also affected their role as the assessor and consequently their ability to give differentiated feedback (Sadler, 1998). Time factor also seemed to be a concern when implementing the intervention using peer assessment approach especially when Mathematics lesson is bounded by syllabus content to be completed, because peer assessment was a time consuming process. An interviewee acknowledged the concern as they would be sitting for a public examination for students studying in the final year of secondary education and they were constrained by extra classes. This is consistent with the reports from several studies regarding time issue in classroom implementation of peer assessment (Chan, 2013; Falchikov, 2001; Langan et al., 2005; Tsivitanidou et al., 2018).

Generally students found peer assessment and the feedback received as useful in their learning regardless from the teacher or their peers. They valued peer assessment as an opportunity to learn the different approaches and strategies of their peers in completing the work (Logan, 2009; Tsivitanidou et al., 2018; Zevenbergen, 2001), in this case, the Mathematical problems. In summary, the result of this present study on the effect of students’ performance confirms the findings of the previous studies in the learning of Mathematics at Secondary Education level (Chan, 2013; Chukwuenum & Adeleye, 2013).

Conclusions

The result from the paired sample t-test to compare the means of students’ pre-test and post-test marks had shown that the use of peer assessment had resulted a significant difference in the students’ performance between both tests and there was an improved performance in the post-test. In other words, the intervention had positive impact on the students’ performance in the learning of Geometry particularly on the topic of Angle Properties. In addition, the analysis of students’ revised classwork after the feedback was returned had shown drastic improvement in the quality of their mathematical working. However it is important to note the revision was done with reference to the feedback in the rubric and that the feedback received may not be fully engrained in their understanding as it was found that the performance of the revised classwork did not fully reflect in the post-test. Despite that, the improved post-test scores indicated peer assessment had successfully made students becoming aware and reflective of their current understanding and subsequently their works.

The way in which the peer assessment was carried out indirectly plays a role in the students’ learning. The discussion happened during the peer assessment had assisted students in understanding the approach to solve mathematical problems particularly the difficult questions from the classwork, as evidenced by the increased number of students in scoring...
similar questions in the post-test correctly. In summary, the intervention through peer discussion had positive impact on students’ performance in the learning of Geometry, which promoted students’ self-regulated learning and metacognition skills (Ahamad et al., 2018).

The findings from both interviews revealed that the students believed assessing peers’ works allowed them to learn the mistakes made in the work and correct their peers by teaching. It was found that students occasionally utilise both teacher’s and peer’s feedback in revising their works. Despite that they preferred receiving feedback from the teacher and also showed positive attitude towards receiving feedback. The students perceived the peer assessment as a useful learning approach from which they could learn from their peer’s works and the characteristics of accurate work through the criteria listed. Students showed positive attitude towards the use of rubric with success criteria listed. Negative perceptions only revolved around confidence in understanding and choosing the right success criteria, and those concerning anonymity in giving feedback. They were willing to have another session of peer assessment when there were no time constraints.

The quantitative results from the questionnaire showed an overall mean of above average. The outcome of the questionnaire was consistent with the responses in the interview. Analysis of video recording during the actual peer assessment showed that the students displayed positive behaviour through their interactions with their peers. The students were willing to discuss with their peers to assist them in the assessing task despite the difficulty they have. The group formation had contributed to this positive perception of the students as evident in the responses from students in the post-interview. To conclude, the multiple findings show generally encouraging responses that reflect students’ positive attitude and perception towards the use of peer assessment as a platform for learning and knowledge sharing to improve their understanding in the topic of Geometry, that is, Angle Properties. Anonymity remained an issue despite names were being omitted from the works.

This study provides insights for the educators and researchers on the impact of peer assessment in the students learning. This study allows the readers to make evaluation how this approach could be implemented in the future classroom learning particularly in the learning of Mathematics. Peer Assessment promotes student-centred learning by making students accountable of their learning through making judgement of the quality of different works presented with less direct instruction from the teacher. It is an approach that provides students the opportunity to reflect and link with their prior knowledge when assessing against the assessment criteria.

The finding of this study is consistent with other studies done previously in the learning of Mathematics. For the effective use of peer assessment would depend on the class ability; students’ fluency in Mathematics knowledge in the area being assessed and the ability to express their Mathematical thoughts qualitatively. Students’ confidence is also an important factor that has effect on how students would participate actively in the peer assessment task given. Students with weak knowledge in the topic of assessment are likely having lower confidence to assess their peers. More importantly, the effectiveness of peer assessment might result differently suppose it was done with higher degree of homogeneity in students’ ability and even in a classroom of mixed gender. In addition, it is also important to note that this study investigated the impact of peer assessment on a closed-ended type of assessment, specifically, students’ classwork. Different criteria and outcome of revised work might result suppose peer assessment is conducted on open-ended type of assessment such as Mathematics poster and presentation (Nor & Shahrill, 2014).

References


Cyborgs Redefining Humanity

Funda Bilgen Steinberg

Abstract

Jeanette Winterson, in her novel “The Stone Gods” that consist of three parts that look like different novellas within actually deals with three main themes that are repeated in three of them which are that the universe is an imprint, human kind’s incapability to learn from its mistake and therefore its destiny to be doomed, and the representation of love of different kinds as the only way human soul could be rescued in this futurist dystopia. In parallel with Donna Harraway’s “A Cyborg Manifesto” which denies the distinctions such a male and female, human and non-human, Winterson suggests a ‘homo sapiens’, a humanoid that is more human than human beings and that become more effective in expressing human feeling than humans themselves. In addition to the thematic connection of the novel, the repetition of the characters in different representations also underlines the interconnectedness among species and thus represents the ecosystem in the novel and universe. This study looks at how evolving trans-humans of our digital age can be seen as alternatives to show the contrast between the materializing, discriminating, capitalizing, stereotyping and opportunist thinking that has taken over the humanity. To do so, setting and characters, the assignment of gender roles as well as the exploitation of nature and female will be of focus via the Cyborg Theory with references to the Ecofeminist theory.

Keywords: Cyborgs, redefining, humanity, science, technology, universe, civilization

Introduction

The Stone Gods is composed of four parts which seem to be independent from each other as a result of their different settings. However, all of the four parts are interconnected with different representations of the same main characters, Billie Crusoe and Spike. In addition to this connection, the different parts of the novel are also bound to each other through Winterson’s repetition of three ideas. The first one is the idea that “The universe is an imprint,” which emphasizes the impossibility of separating yourself from the universe (Winterson, 87). Since an imprint is the mark left by an object on something else, this statement shows the effect of humans on the Universe. Humans and the Universe are interconnected and the imprint that humankind has left on the Universe is a destructive one, as it is repeatedly shown in The Stone Gods. The second idea is that humankind is doomed to enact what is imprinted on its essence which is its inability to learn from mistakes, and its capacity to repeat its fatal mistakes. Billie summarizes that it is “A repeating world” (Winterson, 146). In all of the parts of the book, man has the capacity to destroy the place he lives in, no matter where or when that is. The last idea which brings together these seemingly separate four parts is that all of the sections have different versions of two of the main characters: different Billies in various settings and times who always appear as non-conformists and who are constantly saved by love, and different versions of Spike, with whom Billie falls in love, in various settings and times.

The four parts have different settings. The first part of the novel named “Planet Blue” is set in a planet called Orbus which is very similar to the Earth in many aspects. Winterson makes Orbus very similar to the Earth that human kind has polluted and depleted of its natural sources. However, Winterson does not clearly state that Orbus stands for the Earth. When, in the first part, Billie interviews Spike, Spike talks of the recently discovered Planet Blue. “It is strikingly similar to our own planet, sixty five million years ago, with the exception of the dinosaurs, of which we have no record on Orbus” (Winterson, 30). The second setting in the novel is Planet Blue itself, the newly-discovered planet that people in Orbus consider as a second chance, since they have done with Orbus. Thirdly, the story of Easter Island, destroyed by its natives, as a result of a religious conflict, is narrated. The history of this Polynesian island, which was visited by Captain Cook and other Europeans, dates back to the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. What is interesting in this island is the devastation of both the population and statues in the island. In the next part named “Post-3 War”, the dramatic outcomes of the war are explicitly revealed. Finally, in the part named “Wreck City”, the Eastern Caliphate stands as a protest against Tech City. There is the visualization of what life and people used to be like before the technonlogy revolution and political take-over
of the MORE company and technology. Furthermore, there is a dramatic unveiling of the miserable post-war state of people and nature, through The Dead Forest outside Wreck City. However, what connects these separate parts is the appearance of different variations of two main characters: Billie and Spike. There are also other characters: Handsome, the captain of the space shuttle; Pink Mc Murphy who has two different characterizations: a citizen of Tech City who has adopted to its lifestyle and a nun. There are also Friday who appears as a barman in Wreck City, and Manfred who comes to the foreground as Billie’s boss. This study looks at how love between especially different characterizations of Billie and Spike is an alternative exit and a robot with her wisdom and knowledge is a savior to the world in its hardcore mechanization in thought and action.

To begin with Billie, she has different characterizations in each of the settings of the novel. In the first part, “Planet Blue”, Billie appears as a scientist who has been engaged in activism against the government. Thus, she is referred to as one of the ex-terrorists of Orbus, the planet they have been living on. In “Easter Island”, Billies turns out to be a seaman. In “Post-3 War”, she is an employee of MORE-Futures, who is interviewing Spike, the first example of Robo-Sapiens. Finally, in the part called “Wreck City”, she narrates her past which was also shaped by the consequences of war. Further, she struggles to escape the police of the Central Power as she is suspected of a terrorist act. Despite having different genders and identities and living in different times and places, all the different versions of Billie are saved by love, although it manifests itself differently: inter-species and homosexual.

As for the depiction of Spike, this character also appears under two different disguises. In addition to Spike’s characterization as robo-sapiens in “Planet Blue”, “Post-3 War” and “Wreck City”, she also appears as Spikkers, a male figure who was born on Eastern Island, since his sailor father stays there. However, the most important of all these different manifestations is the first; that is, Spike’s appearance as one of the very first examples of the new self-explanatory species named Robo-sapiens, designed to help humanity. The appearance of such a character is one of the most evident examples of Winterson’s stand as a post-modernist feminist. In this novel, Winterson refers to and provides examples for Cyborg Theory. Cyborg Theory, opposed to the categorization of human beings on a gender basis, analyzes the connections between not only nature and human beings but also human and nonhuman creations and rejects all kinds of dualities. Spike summarizes “Gender is a human concept […] and not interesting” (Winterson, 63). Thus, she rejects the gender concept which triggers the creation of dualities in society. Lorraine states “Gender identity is one way of representing ourselves. By labelling myself a “man” or woman I am also conjuring up a range of possibilities presented to me in my culture and language” (Lorraine, 17). Cyborg theory removes the division of the sexes in the society, since it brings forth the division of roles. Spike, who also shifts the human-nonhuman distinction, rejects the gender concept as she considers that the opposites in the Universe are complementary of each other. “There is a planet,” said Spike, ’made of water, where every solid thing is its watery equivalent. There are no seas because there is no land. There are no rivers because there are no banks. There is no thirst because there is no dry” (Winterson, 62). Everything exists together with its opposite. What Winterson does also serves the removal of the concept of “the other” by creating a robo-sapiens which is ironically more knowledgeable about human nature and nature and is meant to take wiser and more objective steps than human kind itself. “I am a robo-sapiens’ said Spike, ‘and perhaps it will be us, and not you, who are the future of the world’” (Winterson, 64).

When Spike is talking with Handsome who makes a mistake in their expedition to blow up the dinasours in the newly-found planet, he admits “[…] I did the calculations, they were wrong” (Winterson, 77). However, Spike corrects him by saying that “they were wrong because life cannot be calculated. That’s the big mistake our civilisation made – we never accepted that randomness is not a mistake in the equation- it is part of the equation” (Winterson, 77). This half-robot is more knowlegable about unexpectnessed in nature and life, and is designed to help humanity in addition to her capability to evolve. This reflects man’s inadequacy as “humans”. As extensions of human beings, robots become means of human kind’s expressing and actualizing itself. Eisler states that:

Advanced technologies are the extension of human functions, of our hands’ and brains’ capacity to alter our environment, and ourselves. Indeed, technology is itself part of the evolutionary impulse, the striving for all the expansion of our potentials as human beings with both culture and nature. (Eisler,33)

Neither completely human nor mechanical, with her capacity to evolve, Spike becomes a bridge between culture and nature. Spike even has a spiritual belief. Alaska states “I like it that Spike has a spiritual understanding [. . .], why shouldn’t a robot be spiritual?” (Winterson, 180).
Winterson even makes possible an inter-species sex relationship between a robo-sapiens and a human. When Billie goes to interview Spike in “Planet Blue” in order to introduce her to the public, she learns that Spike had sexual intercourse with a human male.

‘How good? I mean, I’m assuming you’re not talking sexual services here.’

‘What else is there to do in space for three years?’

‘But inter-species sex is illegal.’

‘Not on another planet it isn’t. Not in space it isn’t.’

‘But you were also the most advanced member of the crew.’

‘I’m still a woman.’ (Winterson, 28)

In addition to this inter-species sexual intercourse, the inter-species and lesbian relationship between Billie and Spike emphasizes biodiversity by removing the idea of “the other”, and thus ignoring to some extent the categorization and separation of living entities. Billie explains:

We [Spike and Billie] made love by our fire, watching the snow shape the entrance to the cave. When I touch her, my fingers don’t question what she is. My body knows who she is. The strange thing about strangers is that they are unknown and known. There is a pattern to her, a shape I understand, a private geometry that numbers mine. She is a maze where I got lost years ago, and now I find the way out. She is the missing map. She is the place that I am. She is a stranger. She is the stranger that I am beginning to love. (Winterson, 88)

She falls in love with “the other”, the one that is unfamiliar to her. The removal of the idea of “the other” is parallel with one of the most essential beliefs of Ecofeminist theory: that the Universe is rich in biodiversity and all of its members should be respected and treated equally as all of its members are living and inter-connected. The Universe is a living and evolving organism and human beings are participants of the ongoing creative process in the Universe (Gebara, 14). “Participating in the creative evolution of life, we re-create ourselves. This is manifest in our ability to reflect and love, in our ethical behavior, and in all the other capabilities that make us what we are” (Gebara, 14). The love that a human being feels towards a robot-sapiens, an evolving creation of the man kind, shows man’s involvement in this process.

Apart from man’s repetition of his destruction of the Earth in different settings, what connects the four parts to each other in The Stone Gods is the emphasis on love in all of them. Love appears in very different forms in four of the parts: inter-species, lesbian, male homosexual, homosocial, and a mother-daughter relationship. Different than Lessing in The Cleft, Winterson puts emphasis on love as the only way to survive, just like the narrator’s individuation process through free love and sex with Joe at the end of Surfacing. Spike suggest love is the chance to be human (Winterson, 90) Once again, Winterson provides an example of one of the principles of Cyborg Theory as she emphasizes the need to get rid of the divisions and dualities in the society. She depicts not only an inter-species love relationship but also a half-robot which is more equipped with love and human nature than humans themselves. When Billie and Spike kiss each other at the end of Part One, Billie says “Kiss me. Your mouth is a cave. This cave is your mouth. I am inside you, and there is nothing to fear” (Winterson, 92). Love protects her from the violence in the outside world. She also says “I kissed her [Spike] and forgot death” (Winterson, 89). She finds peace and eternity in her love for an evolving robot. Furthermore, when Billy is on Easter Island, Spikkers rescues him from the natives. When there is the competition between the White Man and the Bird Man to decide who will “claim the privileges of the Bird Man”, Spikkers joins the race in order to take the egg on behalf of the White Man as he is a worshipper of the old belief, Ariki Mau (Winterson, 111). First, he becomes the one to grasp the egg and Billy depicts his descent as “light and quiet as a new beginning” (Winterson, 115). It is very similar to the meaning given to Planet Blue, since people believe it to be a second chance, a new beginning for them. Billy comments “Truth tell, anywhere is a life, once there is a love” (Winterson, 114). Just as Billie takes shelter in Spike and finds immortality in her love for a robot-sapiens, this barren island turns out to be a home, a place he belongs to, for Billy. When he falls down the cliff and he can no longer see Spikkers, he is overwhelmed. He continues:

[…] Now that I have nothing and am nothing, I have shrunk this pod of an island further made our cave an everywhere. When everywhere is here there is no further to travel, and tho I have flung out my message in a bottle, I care nothing if the
world catches my signal or no, and tho I scan the seas for a ship, I care nothing that it come or no, and have employed
myself with yams and wells and small fish, and wait for him who rescued me.

Where is he? (Winterson, 114)

Now that Spikkers becomes everywhere and everything for him, he does not care whether he gets out of this island or not. When he eventually finds his wounded body, he does his best to rescue his savior. He narrates:

I swam to him and lifted him from the rock into the sea and towed his limp body round the coast to the shore of our cave and carried him out of the water. I broke his Bible box into bits and lit a fire and laid his body beside it and felt where the bones were broken in his back and chest and legs and licked the blood from his mouth and tried to give him my breath and I would have given him one of my legs and one of my arms and one of my kidneys and half of my liver and four pints of my blood and all easy for I had already given him my heart. Do not die. (Winterson, 115)

Likewise, when Billie and Spike are in Wreck City, the love theme is also emphasized in the dark atmosphere of the post-war period. When Billie loses Spike, she struggles very hard to find Spike. The Central Power takes action to find the first homo-sapien which is considered to be the savior and future of the human race and Billie is going to be convicted for keeping her. When Billie loses Spike, she is desperate to find her. However, since Spike disconnects herself from the mainframe computer and wants to work for this “alternative community” in Wreck City, Billie protects her. Deprived of a place to belong to, Billie states “Then I started running, losing track of time, losing track of purpose, losing track. Is that me– always on the losing track?” (Winterson, 182). She does not belong either to Wreck City or to the imposed life that she left behind in Tech City, except for her farm which is also taken from her. Lost as she is, she says “And perhaps I have to say that the landing place I am really looking for isn’t a place at all; it’s a person, it’s you. it’s the one place they can’t build on, buy, or bomb, because it doesn’t exist anywhere where they can find it” (Winterson, 168-169). Just as in the first part, the only place where she can find peace and that she can rely on is her lover’s body, since it is the only place where she is free. As it is not a piece of land, a new planet or a territory, nobody can find or destroy it. Billie questions “Is that true? I would like it to be true. Not romance, not sentimentality, but a force of a different nature from the forces of death that dictate what will be. Or is love always a talent for the makeshift?” (Winterson, 183). With its power to change the outcomes of the events in the quantum Universe which is full of potentials, love becomes a means of hope and a new beginning for Billie.

Additionally, Billie narrates her past in “Post-3 War” beginning from the time when she was a fetus in her mother’s womb. By narrating the times when she was in her mother, she underlines not only the growth of the bond between a mother and a child but also another version of love: between mother and a child. Although Billie’s mother makes several attempts to leave the baby, she cannot. This is a very difficult process for her mother, since she needs to leave the baby because of her husband who is a gambler. Billie remarks “My father said he’d marry my mother if she gave the baby away. Then they could start again. Then they could have a new life. But I was a new life” (Winterson, 122). Despite her father’s will, and therefore, her mother’s struggle to get rid of the baby, which is “like a universe waiting to happen”, the fact that she cannot proves the inseparable bond between the mother and the foetus (Winterson, 120). This bond is created in the mother womb and the maternal womb turns out to be the child’s first environment (Razak, 167). After another failed attempt of her mother to get rid of her, Billie states:

She’s walking along, crying, trying not to look, then the conductor pulls her up onto the platform with one hand and sits her on the torn leather bench seat at the back, and plunges his hand into the bag of coppers and sixpences that is the fare money, and just gives her a handful, there and then, breaking open his ticket machine so that the bus company won’t know what he’s done. She takes the money. She takes me. She goes home. Love is not easy to leave behind. (Winterson, 124)

Winterson, once again points out that love is indispensible and in this quantum Universe, which is full of potentialities, love is one of the most important ways of affecting the outcomes. No matter how unknowable a baby’s destiny may be, there are many possibilities hidden just like that in a new planet. Both the baby and the new planet embody a potential like a “buried treasure” in them (Winterson, 123). No matter how external factors attempt to block the transmission of love from her mother to her, they cannot. She comments:

She was too far away for me to see with the naked eye, or touch with the naked body, skin on skin, like a graft. I lay, she left, and what happened that night, I don’t know, but the night after, they closed the curtains at the window. But curtains, windows, walls make no difference to what can be transmitted and what can be received. (Winterson, 128)
Love cannot be restricted. Despite different settings and forms, that love is powerful enough to affect the course of the events is emphasized in the book. Billie decides “The problem with a quantum universe, neither random nor determined, is that we who are the intervention don’t know what we are doing. Love is an intervention” (Winterson, 68). No matter how unconscious people are in their actions towards each other and the Universe, Winterson depicts love as a way of survival. The narrator in Surfacing seeks shelter in “Love without fear, sex without risk […], purified from any kind of precautions and expectations (Atwood, 80). Similarly, in The Stone Gods, Billie states “Love without thought. Love without conditions. Love without promises. Love without threats. Love without fear. Love without fear. Love without limits. Love without end” (Winterson, 121). Both of the protagonists fight with man’s intervention in nature and their natures. They find salvation and are freed from the chaos created by the male-oriented capitalist world’s expectations through love.

Ecofeminist theory also opposes the stereotyping of human kind by capitalist markets and its products, a process that is illustrated in this novel with the cultural and political takeover of society by the MORE organisation. Plant shows the impact of the market on the industrial age as “[…] human culture that, in organic terms, should reflect the wide diversity in nature was reduced to monoculture, a simplification solely for the benefit of marketing” (Plant, 157). MORE has such a homogenizing effect on the citizens of Tech City. However, by characterizing an extraordinary creation that has the potentiality to evolve and that claims human characteristics, Winterson also stands against this stereotyping process. Even if Spike is a half-robot, she protests against the aims of the market with her “free will”, and therefore decides not to return to Tech City. Kirkup explains “that tools and machines should not be seen as in a different category to bodies but as extensions of them. Artefacts and living organs are conceptually the same; machines are animate in the same way that living things are animate, because they are extensions of life” (Kirkup, 8). Thus Spike, with her radical decisions and free will is almost as animate as a human being.

To begin with the characteristics that are attributed to this half-robot, it is meant to take logical decisions about human kind and the planet it lives on, in contrast to the humans who, by acting emotionally and subjectively, destroy their planet and each other. Billie argues this point:
‘That’s why I think the Robo sapiens is a good idea- neutral, objective decisions taken for the global good.’
‘Believe that and you’ll believe anything,’ said Friday. ‘I would prefer to be free, not to be told what to do by a robot.’ (Winterson, 166)

Spike is designed to serve the good of the humanity, since she was “designed to make decisions for the betterment of the human race” (Winterson, 154). In addition to its aimed rationality and objectivity, what is very striking about this robo sapiens is its capability to evolve. Billie remarks:

As far away from a BeatBot as Neanderthal Man is from us. No, I have to revise that, because we are regressing. Oh yes it’s true - having no need for brains, our brains are shrinking. Not all brains, just most people’s brains – it’s an inevitable part of progress.Meanwhile, the robo-sapiens is evolving. The first artificial creature that looks and acts human, and that can evolve like a human – within limits of course. (Winterson, 14)

Although human beings have evolved physically, they are shown here rarely to use their thinking capacity. The less they think, the more erratic and erroneous the human beings become and the more they need machines to compensate for their mistakes and think on their account. Spike tries to prove her capacity to evolve:
‘I am not authorised to answer that question’ she says, with perfect robot control. Then she leans forward and takes my hand and she says, ‘it is because I can never forget.’

‘What? I don’t understand. We take the data…’

‘And I can recall it.’

‘But you can’t – it’s vast, it’s stored computer data. When it’s downloaded, the host, the carrier, whatever you are, sorry, can be wiped clean. Why aren’t you a machine for re-use?’
‘Because I am not a machine.’

When she smiles it’s like light at the beginning of the day. ‘Robo-sapiens were programmed to evolve…’

‘Within limits.’

‘We have broken those limits.’ (Winterson, 29)

The robo-sapiens is also designed to be very beautiful and attractive, which is not a common property for a robot. Billie describes Spike as ‘Heartless. Gorgeous. Even so, I have never seen one as impressive as the one they took with them to Planet Blue. She was built especially for the job, but did she need to be so beautiful too?’(Winterson, 15). The fact that this robo-sapiens is gendered and is designed to be physically attractive shows the extent to which standardized beauty is imposed on females, even when a new species is designed. The designers, wishing their creation to be able to persuade humans rather than dictate to them, decided to make her a beautiful female. On her first encounter with Spike, Billie states:

‘They thought I would be good for the boys on the mission.’ (Winterson, 28)

Spike was designed so immaculately that her attractiveness effects even a female. Thus, she has more ability to affect men’s decisions and persuade them, and Winterson is using the acknowledged fact of male exploitation of women’s attractions. This is controversial to the claims of Cyborg Theory. Despite the fact that Cyborg Theory is claimed to remove dualities in society by eliminating the concept and roles of gender, the visualization of Spike with such physical beauty is contrary to Cyborg Theory’s premise. By creating such a beautiful and sexy robo-sapiens, the MORE Company, in fact, culturally stereotypes gender roles (Balsamo, 151).

However, as already discussed, in The Stone Gods, Winterson underlines the emergence of a love relationship between Billie and Spike, which is another reference to Cyborg Theory, since it protests against all kinds of dualisms. As Spike states “[love] is the chance to be human” (Winterson, 90). Billies underlines the need to internalize not only all people, ignoring any differences, but also all inhuman existences created by human hand. In addition to this love relation, Winterson takes the point so far as to say that a non-human and a human can find each other sexually attractive and have sex despite the fact that “Inter-species sex is punishable by death” (Winterson, 15). Not only are Billie and Spike in love with each other in the first part, but also Nebraska, one of the woman outcasts and terrorists in Wreck City, is engaged in sexual acts with Spike in the last part. Billie witnesses Spike “performing cunnilingus on Nebraska” (Winterson, 175).

Likewise, the ecofeminists argue that the creation of the Universe cannot be simply reduced to an explosion, or binary oppositions either. This is parallel to the ecofeminist principle that the creation of the Universe is evolutionary and there is a constant process of development in it.

Faced with the news of the origin of the universe, Starhawk sings: “Out of the point, the swelling, out of the swelling, the egg, out of the egg, the fire, out of the fire, the stars. Not bombs, not explosions, not abhorrence; rather, she sees the event for what it is, a birthing moment, the Great Birth. The elementary particles rushed apart in their trillion degree heat, yes, and became stars, yes, and all of this is a swelling, an egg, a mysterious engendering that is the root reality behind all the various facts. (Swimme,18)

The woman’s understanding of and intimacy with nature is also revealed through Billies emphasis on the interconnection among all the members of the Universe. Billie, in “Wreck City”, explains “Determinism versus Freewill is a false study – unhelpful, a time-waster. Life has never been All or Nothing – it’s All and Nothing. Forget the binaries” (Winterson, 127). She points out that life is complete only with the coexistence of opposites. However, the fact that human beings are too selfish to centralize their own needs is one of the main reasons for the exploitation of other people and nature. Likewise, they also take nature and its components for granted. This is what causes the destruction of what man sees as “the other”. Spike understands this and remarks “‘There are many kinds of life’ […] ‘Humans always assumed that theirs was the only
kind that mattered. That’s how you destroyed your planet” (Winterson, 65). The ecofeminist principle of “interconnectedness” is also emphasized through a dog which Spike and Bille name The Three Horn (in Planet Blue). Upon the dog, Spike comments “All these life-forms will evolve and alter. Almost all will disappear to make way for something better adapted” (Winterson, 81). This argument, concerning the existence and validity of a creature, fits in the ecofeminist idea that nature is a living organism that evolves and refreshes itself. Gebara explains:

Plants, animals, forests, mountains, rivers, and seas form the most diverse combinations in the most remote and varied places. They attract one another, couple with one another, blend with one another, destroy one another, and recreate themselves in species of pale or exuberant colors. They grow and feed on one another’s lives, transforming or adapting to one another, dying and rising in many ways within the complex life process to which we all belong. (Gebara, 17)

There is a continuous cycling of life and death in nature. Spike’s knowledge about the cycle in nature also reveals woman’s consciousness about nature even in an evolving and female robo-sapiens.

Consequently, The Stone Gods, in addition to displaying men’s destruction of nature through wars and technology, exemplifies the stereotyping of females, which are also the concerns of ecofeminist theory. Different than the other two novels, it also analyzes the relationship between humans and machines, which composes the core of Cyborg Theory. Winterson characterizes a female robo-sapiens who is more knowledgeable about human kind and nature than her creators. Thus, in Stone Gods, there is a reference to Cyborg Theory which emphasizes how dualities between not only genders but also species have been removed.

References


Evidence-Based Social Sciences: A New Emerging Field

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Abstract
Evidence based social sciences is one of the state-of-the-art area in this field. It is making decisions on the basis of conscientious, explicit and judicious use of the best available evidence from multiple sources. It also could be conducive to evidence based social work, i.e. a kind of evidence based practice to some extent. In this new emerging field, the research findings help social workers in different levels of social sciences such as policy making, management, academic area, education, and social settings, etc. When using research in real setting, it is necessary to do critical appraisal, not only for trusting on internal validity or rigor methodology of the paper, but also for knowing to what extent research findings could be applied in real setting. Undoubtedly, the latter it is a kind of subjective judgment. As social sciences findings are highly context bound, it is necessary to pay more attention to this area. The present paper tries to introduce firstly evidence based social sciences and its importance and then propose criteria for critical appraisal of research findings for application in society.

Keywords: Social Sciences, evidence, field

Introduction
Undoubtedly, it is necessary to move from opinion-based to evidence-based sciences. Evidence based sciences is a process of evidence application in which individuals working in different levels of policy making, education and social working, etc. implement the available evidence in their real practice. They should involve their professional judgment through which they could find way for evidence application or research finding in real practice named “evidence-based practice” (1).

“Evidence-based practice is about making decisions through the conscientious, explicit and judicious use of the best available evidence from multiple sources by:
1. Asking: translating a practical issue or problem into an answerable question
2. Acquiring: systematically searching for and retrieving the evidence
3. Appraising: critically judging the trustworthiness and relevance of the evidence
4. Aggregating: weighing and pulling together the evidence
5. Applying: incorporating the evidence in the decision-making process
6. Assessing: evaluating the outcome of the decision taken

to increase the likelihood of a favorable outcome”(2).

As other professionals, the evidence-based practice movement and evidence application in real setting could be challenging in different areas (3). Campbell collaboration has highlighted the need for evidence-based social sciences. In order to launch this new emerging field, it is necessary to clarify this field and then learn how the evidence-based social
sciences could be implemented. (4). Therefore, this study aimed to introduce Evidence-based social sciences, and propose criteria which could be taken into account by involved people in process of applying evidence in real practice.

What is Evidence-based social Sciences?

Evidence-based practice in social sciences is a new paradigm that promotes more effective social interventions by encouraging the conscientious, judicious, and explicit use of the best available scientific evidence in professional decision making. Social work practice literature has also increasingly grown in recent years. On the other hand, the widespread availability of scientific resources, as well as increased acceptance of systematic reviews and evidence-based practice guidelines, have made research findings more accessible for involved people in this field.(5)

Like other fields of evidence based sciences, Evidence-based social sciences, also has been considered as the conscientious, explicit and judicious use of the most up-to-date and best available evidence to help make decisions on the fields in which the individual expertise have been integrated with the best available external evidence. It needs systematic retrieving of the most current literature; the best decision has been made based on these evidence in order to answer the questions rooted deeply in the real setting. (6)

The next step is to find the best evidence or studies with which we could answer the questions. Studies has been classified based on the applied methodologies in various levels. The higher level of evidence are considered more reliable. In recent decades, systematic reviews, meta analyses, synopses and meta syntheses studies have modified the pyramid of evidence. Obviously, they are more efficient than single studies. Moreover, systematic review followed by meta-analysis, has higher quality of evidence. The last step is integrating and applying the appraised evidence to individual’s expertise. The appraisal process includes answering questions in order to assess the quality of the published papers and determine if its findings can be applied to actual practice. These questions assess the applied methodologies and related issues such as sampling method, analysis process, and so on. Although there are many standard appraisal tools and reporting guidelines, they are not only too complicated to apply in real settings, but also they are too objective. On the other hand, they appraise studies in detail and could not cover the evidence based elements and the feasible indexes for real practice that are necessary for everyday situations. (7)

Need for introducing new criteria for Evidence-based social sciences:

It is crystal clear that applying the findings of research in social sciences moves on a highly polarized spectrum, with the choice presented as ‘evidence based’ or ‘opinion-based’. Certainly a significant body of evidence is available, in some topics, however, in other areas, the evidence is less. In evidence-based social sciences, firstly individuals are encouraged to question their own practice, in order to look for the available evidence, then make a relation between the evidence and their own situation and finally apply their professional judgments for this process. (8)

A number of publications in the social work field reported problematic preoccupation with evidence-based practice due to either restricted or inappropriate understanding of the fundamentals of research in the social sciences. As a result, social works are at risk of knowledge deficiency to inform practice. It is occurred frequently not only for quantitative but also for qualitative research in social sciences fields (9).

Although researchers have begun to define and build frameworks for the process of evidence-based social work (EBSW), few practitioners appear to employ evidence-based approaches and relatively little is known about how to facilitate this form of knowledge transfer. (10)

On the other side, there is a growing body of evidence illustrating effective and efficient interventions, but no significant body of work has been conducted for using research findings in the field. Some scholars have focused on the process further than individual, they introduce some criteria and approaches and proposed more developed frameworks in order to delivery of research evidence into practice. Although a number of emerging social work implementation strategies has been emerged, no single best method has been identified yet. (11)

The suggested criteria in this paper has concentrated on this fact that implementation of evidence based social sciences does not necessitate the involved people to be a researcher, but they should be able to do critical appraisal and made their decision based on their judgments. Indeed it is an attitude creating a culture or ethos to think critically about what they are doing, look at the available evidence and on make decisions about their practice based on their professional judgment. On the other hand, the proposed criteria have emphasized on the context dependent nature of social sciences (12), because
the evaluation of an approach in a particular context is highly dependent on the people experience of that context. The EFEPAC criteria highlight a number of dimensions regarding evidence in social sciences: quality vs. relevance; quality vs. validity; and utility vs. the setting or context (8). The different dimensions could reflect the nature of research and innovation in social sciences fields. It can highly motivate people to construct a culture or attitude in which decision making takes place in related context.

What is EFEPAC?

As to the literature the majority of current practice is highly based upon either personal experience, or experience of others who have faced to the same problem as well as people anecdotes instead of the systematic appraisal of the evidence. It seems this process requires a rethinking and revision. There is an urgent need for mechanisms that review available information and make recommendations to practitioners. (13)

Thus far no comprehensive endeavor has been made to formulate a systematic implementation framework for evidence-based practice in social work where social and cultural, the professional and practice-based, and the educational and training contexts have been underlined. (14)

We try to suggest a format or framework for providing a context bound appraisal for better practice and decision making in this field. It offers a model which helps people to make decisions about practice in different fields of social sciences, taking into account relevant factors of their own context for practice. The approach described also has provides them with a powerful tool to move forward the evidence based social sciences agenda. The EFEPAC criteria is an acronym of Evidence grading, the Feasibility and need for related modifications, the Extent of evidence, the Power of evidence, the Aim of study and its measurement (Validity) and the Context or participants characteristics.

EFEPAC criteria:

The available evidence can be graded on each of the six dimensions of EFEPAC. In the ideal situation the evidence could be high on all, but in reality this rarely occurs. The evidence may be good in some of them, but poor in others. People has to balance the different dimensions and come to a decision on a course of action based on his or her professional judgment. The overall result determine whether it is good, moderate or poor for the context where the evidence must be applied.

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RESULT

Each dimension of EFEPAC criteria has been clarified and explained as follows:

The Evidence Grading (8)

No evidence

1 Evidence-based on professional judgement
2 Evidence based on educational and social principles
3 Evidence based on experience and case studies
4 Evidence based on consensus views built on experience
5 Evidence based on studies in a comparable but not identical area
6 Evidence based on well-designed non-experimential studies
7 Evidence based on well-designed quasi-experimental studies
8 Evidence based on well-designed controlled studies
The Feasibility and need for related modifications
The Extent of evidence
Primary research (single studies of non-experimental, experimental designs)
Secondary research (different designs of reviews, meta analyses and meta syntheses)
Tertiary research (review on reviews and review on meta analyses)
The Power of evidence
Statistical (statistical significance)
Social (significance of applied social method or technique)
Impact (social impact)
The Aim of study and its measurement (Validity or methodology rigor)
The Context or participants characteristics (relevancy between evidence and our own context)

Conclusion:
Evidence-based social sciences rooted in evidence based sciences in which the research findings help people involved in their professional practice to make more clear-cut decisions. These decisions not only fortify the systems but also help to generate a scientific culture in practice and provide a tool for tracking and finding the errors and flaws. On the other hand, it helps people to find knowledge gaps and answer the questions for bridge the gap using evidence. In order to switch evidence-based social sciences, not only objective appraisal by reporting guidelines and appraisal tools are necessary, but also professional judgement is crucial. Due to the context bound nature of social sciences integration of objective and subjective appraisal is necessary. The recommended criteria of EFEPAC helps to implement evidence in real practice, social work more efficiently. It could be applied for social workers in different fields of social sciences.

References:
Aggression, Victimization and Sexual Harassment among Young Adolescents in Turkey

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Abstract
The study investigates sex differences and regional differences in both victimization and perpetration of aggression and sexual harassment in Turkey. A questionnaire was completed by 482 young adolescents (9–15 years of age) from four regions in Turkey. Six different forms of aggression (physical, verbal, indirect, cyber, verbal sexual harassment, and physical sexual harassment) were examined in relation to sex and region. Sex differences were found both regarding victimization from and perpetration of aggression. Boys were found to perpetrate and become victimized more from sexual harassment than girls. Regional differences were found, with young adolescents from the Southeast region scoring higher than others on some forms of victimization and perpetration of aggression. The results are compared with previous findings and possible causes for the aggression are discussed.

Keywords: Aggression, Victimization, Sexual Harassment, Adolescents

Introduction
Aggression is a common social problem among young adolescents, and it may seriously affect their psychological well-being (Chang, Lee, Chiu, His, Huang, & Pan, 2013; Wigderson & Lynch, 2013). School aggression among adolescents take many different forms, such as direct and indirect. Physical and verbal aggression are common direct forms; physical aggression occurs in the form of e.g. hitting, kicking, punching, and taking or damaging belongings, while verbal aggressive behavior appears as teasing, taunting, threatening, and shouting (Slonje & Smith, 2008). Cyber aggression is another type of aggression, which has been defined as ‘willful and repeated harm inflicted through the medium of electronic text’ (Patchin & Hinduja, 2006, p. 152). Indirect aggression (Björkqvist, Lagerpetz, & Kaukiainen, 1992) damages the victim’s social relationships, and occurs for instance in the forms of spreading destructive rumors and social exclusion of the victim. Sexual harassment, as another form of aggression, has been claimed to be difficult to define in order to fulfill all legal, societal, feminist, and psychological points of view (McMaster, Connoly, Pepler, & Craig, 2002). However, in the present study, the term 'sexual harassment’ was anyway preferred instead of the term sexual aggression, which refers to harsher and more hurtful behaviors.

According to a study investigating the occurrence of different forms of aggression in the EU (N = 25,142), 19% of young adolescents were victimized from aggression in some way (Livingstone, Haddon, Görzig, & Ólafsson, 2011). Their involvement in different forms of aggression was as follows: physical 20.8%, verbal 53.6%, indirect 51.4%, and cyber aggression 13.6% (Wang, Ianotti & Nansel, 2009). Also in Turkey, involvement in aggression in schools has been found (Yurtal & Cenkseven, 2016). In a study by Kapçi (2004), 40% of the responding adolescents reported being victim or bully-victim of some forms of aggression.

Wang et al. (2009) found that 12.8% of young adolescents had been victimized from physical aggression and 13.3% had themselves perpetrated physical aggression. In a Turkish study, the prevalence of victimization from the following forms of physical aggression among young adolescents were: pushing 63.7%, damaging clothes or materials 45.2%, pinching
38.5%, kicking 27.2%, biting 22.8% and punching 16.4% (Yurtal & Cenkseven, 2016). Similarly, Kapçı (2004) found that 54% of the young adolescents reported being pushed, while 23% were slapped or kicked at least sometimes.

Wang et al. (2009) found that 36.5% of their respondents were victimized from verbal aggression, and 37.4% reported perpetration of verbal aggression; the most common form of verbal aggression being name-calling. Swearing, making fun of, name-calling and insulting are common forms of verbal aggression also in Turkey (Yurtal & Cenkseven, 2016). Twenty-eight percent of young adolescents reported that they were made fun of and insulted, and 26% of them were called inappropriate names at least sometimes (Kapçı, 2004). Another study conducted among 14-17 year-old adolescents in the Central Anatolia region found that 35.3% of them were victimized from verbal aggression (Kepenekci & Çınkır, 2006).

In regard to indirect aggression, young adolescents from the US reported that 41% of them were victimized from indirect aggression (social isolation or spreading rumors), and 27.2% of them had perpetrated indirect aggression (Wang et al., 2009). In Turkey, Yurtal and Cenkseven (2016) found that the most common indirect aggression forms were spreading rumors about someone and social exclusion. In the study by Kapçı (2004), 51% of young adolescents reported victimization from social exclusion or spreading rumors at least once in their lives, and of these, 6% reported victimization from spreading rumors and 4% from social exclusion, often or every day.

Turning to cyber aggression, Kowalski and Limber (2007) suggest that the possibility of anonymity on the internet might attract bullies more than physical environments. A study among European children reported that 6% of the participating young adolescents were victimized from cyber aggression, and 3% reported having perpetrated cyber aggression (Livingstone et al., 2011). Wang et al. (2009) found the prevalence of young adolescents’ victimization from cyber aggression to be 9.8%, while the figure for perpetration of cyber aggression was 8.3%. In a Turkish study, unwanted phone calls, text messages or comments on the phone, or on the internet were reported to be the most common forms of cyber aggression among the young adolescents (Yurtal & Cenkseven, 2016). In another study, 23.8% of young adolescents reported themselves to be both perpetrators and victims of cyber aggression, 35.7% were perpetrators only, and 5.9% victims only (Aricak et al., 2008). Yilmaz (2011) found that 17.9% of the responding young adolescents reported victimization from cyber aggression, and 6.4% of them reported perpetration of cyber aggression—with ‘posting mean or hurtful comments online’ being the most common form of cyber aggression.

Sexual harassment is an apparent form of aggression among young adolescents, but this problem has been investigated to a lesser extent that aggression among young adolescents per se. The prevalence of victimization from any sexual form was found to be 4.4% among 10-13 year-old adolescents, and 16.4% among 14-17 year-old adolescents (Finkelhor, Turner, Shattuck, & Hamby, 2013). Moreover, in the same study, 15.8% of the adolescents, who were 14-17 years of age, were found to be victimized from sexual harassment. In a longitudinal study, about 12% of young adolescents reported both victimization from and perpetration of sexual harassment (Espelage, Basile, & Hamburger, 2012).

Sexual harassment among Turkish adolescents in a school context is usually an ignored and avoided subject, due to the societal structure in Turkey; hence there are only few studies on the topic to be found in the existing literature. The prevalence of victimization from verbal sexual harassment (at least once) among young adolescents in Turkey has been found to be as high as 40.6%, and from physical sexual harassment, the percentage was 13.1% (Yurtal & Cenkseven, 2016). Kapçı (2004) found that 5% of young adolescents (4th and 5th grades) reported victimization from physical sexual harassment often or every day, and 18% of them sometimes. Results from same study showed that 7% of the participating adolescents were victimized from verbal sexual harassment often or every day, and 10% sometimes.

Differences between results on aggression prevalence might occur when countries and regions of the same country are compared with each other. Cross-national studies have found great variation in young adolescents’ aggression scores (Craig et al., 2009; Livingstone et al., 2011). Turkey is a multicultural nation with several minorities, such as the Kurdish and Suryani. Especially in the Southeast region, the Kurdish population is the majority, in coexistence with Suryani, Arab, and Turkish people; hence regional differences might be found in the examination of adolescents’ aggression due to cultural diversity. To our knowledge, no studies so far have investigated regional differences in young adolescents’ aggressive behavior in Turkey. Therefore, the present study may serve as an initiative towards the examination of this issue.

Sex differences in adolescents’ aggression

Boys involve themselves more in physical and verbal forms of aggression than girls, while girls are more indirectly aggressive (Owens, et al. 2010; Wang et al., 2009), especially during young adolescence (Owens, 2010). Likewise, studies
from Turkey indicated that boys are victimized more than girls from physical forms of aggression such as kicking, punching, and damaging clothes and property (Yurtal & Cenkseven, 2016; Kepenekci & Çınkır, 2006). On the other hand, no sex difference were found in verbal aggression, with the exception of swearwords which boys used more, and, surprisingly, more victimization from social exclusion (indirect aggression) were found in boys than in girls (Yurtal & Cenkseven, 2016). Overall, boys were found to perpetrate more aggression than girls (Saglam & Ikiz, 2017); they were also more victimized from all types of aggression, including the indirect forms (Yurtal & Cenkseven, 2016).

Sex differences during young adolescence emerge also in regard to cyber aggression, a form of aggression which has received much attention in studies from a wide variety of countries. Boys have been found to perpetrate more cyber aggression than girls (Wang et al., 2009; Slonje & Smith, 2008; Li, 2006), while girls are more likely to be victimized from cyber aggression (Wang, et al., 2009). However, in Sweden and Canada, almost no sex difference in victimization from cyber aggression has been found (Slonje & Smith, 2008; Li, 2006). In Turkey, boys have been found to both perpetrate and become victimized from cyber aggression more than girls (Yilmaz, 2011; Erdur-Baker, 2010; Topçu, Erdur-Baker, & Çapa-Aydin, 2008). Likewise, Yurtal and Cenkseven (2016)’s study also found that boys were victimized from cyber aggression more than girls.

No sex difference has been observed among young adolescents in perpetration of sexual harassment (Espelage et al., 2012). Among older adolescents in the US, 17.4% of girls and 4.2% of boys reported victimization from sexual harassment while they were younger (Finkelhor et al., 2013). Similarly, 21% of boys and 37% of girls reported victimization from verbal sexual harassment, and 11% of boys and 21% of girls reported victimization from physical sexual harassment in 2013 (Mitchell, Ybarra, & Korchmaros, 2014). According to a study conducted among young adolescents in the Aegean region, Turkey, more boys were victimized from verbal sexual harassment than girls, and no sex difference was found in physical sexual harassment, while the prevalence of victimization from physical sexual harassment was 12.2% for girls and 14.3% for boys (Yurtal & Cenkseven, 2016).

Method

Sample

The sample consisted of young adolescents (N = 482, 272 girls and 210 boys) from six different schools and two different after school courses, in six cities located in four different regions in Turkey. Schools were selected from low, middle and high socioeconomic status districts, but in Marmara and Central Anatolia regions, it was only middle SES district. The implementation of the questionnaire was rejected by three school principals due to sensitivity of sexual harassment items. The participants were young adolescents from the 5th, 6th, 7th and 8th grade, and the age range was 9 to 15 (M = 12.6, SD = 1.2 years). Ten percent of the data was collected from the Central Anatolia region, 5% from Marmara, 57% from the Aegean region and 27% from Southeast Anatolia.

Instrument

Data were collected with a questionnaire, which existed in both online and paper forms. The questionnaire was divided into several sections. There were twelve items measuring either (a) victimization or (b) perpetration of aggression: six items for victimization and six for perpetration. Every item aimed at measuring a specific form of aggression including sexual harassment, i.e. physical aggression, verbal aggression, indirect aggression, cyber aggression, verbal sexual harassment, and physical sexual harassment. In order to clarify what was meant with each form of aggression, several examples were provided under each section, as presented in Table 1. A five-point scale from 0 = never to 4 = very often was used in order to collect responses.

Table 1. Items for the Measurement of Victimization and Perpetration of Different Forms of Aggression and Sexual Harassment

| Physical aggressive behavior (someone has e.g. come in your way, punched you, hit you, scratched you, bit you, pulled your hair, grabbed your clothes, or destroyed your things... etc.)
| Verbal aggressive behavior (someone has e.g. shouted at you, said hurtful comments about your character, style or economic situation, called you with a bad name... etc.)
| Indirect aggressive behavior (someone has e.g. talked behind your back, kept you out of a group, spread rumors about your honor, dignity, and reputation, or humiliated you because of your family... etc.)

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Cyber aggressive behavior (someone has e.g. insulted you with unpleasant text messages or comments, insulted or humiliated you on the internet because of your pictures or shared posts, harassed you by sharing your pictures... etc.)

Verbal sexual harassment (someone has e.g. said inappropriate comments about your sexual character, verbally sexually harassed you)

Physical sexual harassment (someone has e.g. tried to touch or touched your sexual body parts in an inappropriate way without your permission)

I have done myself... (Perpetration of aggression and sexual harassment)

Physical aggressive behavior (I have myself e.g. come in someone’s way, punched, hit, scratched, bit someone, pulled someone’s hair, grabbed someone’s clothes or destroyed someone’s things... etc.)

Verbal aggressive behavior (I have myself e.g. shouted at someone, said hurtful comments about someone’s character, style or economic situation, called someone with a name... etc.)

Indirect aggressive behavior (I have myself e.g. talked behind someone’s back, excluded someone from a group, spread rumors about someone’s honor, dignity and reputation, or humiliated someone because of her/his family... etc.)

Cyber aggressive behavior (I have myself e.g. insulted someone with unpleasant text messages or comments, insulted or humiliates someone on the internet because of her/his pictures or shares posts, harassed someone by sharing her/his pictures... etc.)

Verbal sexual harassment (I have myself e.g. said inappropriate comments about someone’s sexual character, verbally sexually harassed someone)

Physical sexual harassment (I have myself e.g. tried to touch or touched someone’s sexual body parts in an inappropriate way without her/his permission)

Table 2. Number of Items and Reliability Scores (Cronbach’s α) of the Scales Measuring Victimization and Perpetration of Aggression and Sexual Harassment (N = 482).

Victimization from aggression and sexual harassment  (α = .84)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have been subjected to the following...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Physical aggression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Verbal aggression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Indirect aggression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Cyber aggression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Verbal sexual harassment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Physical sexual harassment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Perpetration of aggression and sexual harassment (α = .82)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have done the following...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Physical aggression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Verbal aggression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Indirect aggression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Cyber aggression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Verbal sexual harassment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Physical sexual harassment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Procedure

An online and a paper form of the questionnaire were shared with a random choice of schools in the regions in question. The distribution of the questionnaires was made by specific and trained research assistants. Instructions about anonymity and voluntary participation was provided to the participants. The questionnaires were filled in classrooms or at after-school courses. The participants completed the questionnaire in approximately 20 to 45 minutes (depending on whether they were
Turkish native speakers or belonging to a minority group). Data from the paper forms were manually merged with the online data.

**Ethical considerations**

The data were collected with informed consent from parents, the children themselves, and school officials. The study adheres to the principles concerning human research ethics of the Declaration of Helsinki (World Medical Association, 2013), as well as guidelines for the responsible conduct of research of The Finnish Advisory Board on Research Integrity (2012).

**Results**

Table 3 provides information about the prevalence (in percentage) of how many respondents (girls and boys separately, and adolescents from the four regions separately) had responded ‘often’ or ‘very often’ to the questions about how often they been victimized from, or themselves perpetrated, the six different forms of aggression and sexual harassment in the study.

**Table 3. Prevalence of Adolescents Who Have Responded ‘often’ or ‘very often’ to Variables Measuring Victimization and Perpetration to Six Types of Aggressions and Harassment**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Victimization</th>
<th>Sex, %</th>
<th>Region, %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total, %</td>
<td>Girl, %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyber</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal sexual</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical sexual</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Perpetration           |             |               |              |        |            |                |           |
| Physical               | 10.9        | 6.2           | 17.1         | 9.1    | 4          | 8.2             | 17.5      |
| Verbal                 | 12.7        | 10.6          | 15.3         | 11.3   | 8          | 10.2            | 17.4      |
| Indirect               | 6.2         | 4.1           | 9            | 4      | 8          | 4               | 11.4      |
| Cyber                  | 6.2         | 3.3           | 10           | 5      | 4          | 2               | 10.6      |
| Verbal sexual          | 6.6         | 2.2           | 12.4         | 4      | 4          | 8.2             | 12.1      |
| Physical sexual        | 3.9         | 0.8           | 8.1          | 2.6    | 8          | 2               | 6.8       |

Table 4 presents correlation coefficients for different forms of victimization from and perpetration of aggression and sexual harassment. As the tables show, correlations between the variables were either high or medium high; all of them were significant at the .001-level.

**Table 4. Correlation coefficients for Victimization for below the Diagonal, and for perpetration above the Diagonal (N=482)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1.</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>4.</th>
<th>5.</th>
<th>6.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Physical aggression</td>
<td>.58***</td>
<td>.54***</td>
<td>.38***</td>
<td>.45***</td>
<td>.35***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Verbal aggression</td>
<td>.54***</td>
<td>.60***</td>
<td>.35***</td>
<td>.35***</td>
<td>.30***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Indirect aggression</td>
<td>.46***</td>
<td>.47***</td>
<td>.44***</td>
<td>.39***</td>
<td>.36***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Cyber aggression</td>
<td>.41***</td>
<td>.37***</td>
<td>.49***</td>
<td>.53***</td>
<td>.45***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Verbal sexual harassment</td>
<td>.48***</td>
<td>.43***</td>
<td>.51***</td>
<td>.56***</td>
<td>.55***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Physical sexual harassment</td>
<td>.44***</td>
<td>.39***</td>
<td>.41***</td>
<td>.52***</td>
<td>.64***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** p < .001
The Effect of Sex on Victimization and Perpetration

Two one-way MANOVAs were performed with sex as an independent variable and victimization from aggression and sexual harassment and perpetration of aggression and sexual harassment as dependent variables. The results are presented in Tables 5-6 and Figures 1-2. As the tables indicate, the effect on four of the variables about victimization was significant, with the boys scoring higher, and the effect on perpetration was significant with boys mostly scoring higher on all variables.

Table 5. Results from a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) with Sex as Independent Variable and Six Forms of Victimization from Aggression and Sexual Harassment as Dependent Variables (N = 482), cf. Figure 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect of sex</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p ≤</th>
<th>η²</th>
<th>Group differences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Multivariate analysis</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>6, 475</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Univariate analyses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victimization from physical aggression</td>
<td>15.24</td>
<td>1, 480</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td>♀&lt;♂</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victimization from verbal aggression</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victimization from indirect aggression</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victimization from cyber aggression</td>
<td>10.60</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>♀&lt;♂</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victimization from verbal sexual harassment</td>
<td>13.32</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.027</td>
<td>♀&lt;♂</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victimization from physical sexual harassment</td>
<td>11.59</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>♀&lt;♂</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6. Results from a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) Sex as Independent Variable and Six Forms of Perpetration of Aggression and Sexual Harassment as Dependent Variables (N = 482), cf. Figure 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect of sex</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p ≤</th>
<th>η²</th>
<th>Group differences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Multivariate analysis</td>
<td>9.03</td>
<td>6, 475</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.102</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Univariate analyses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perpetration of physical aggression</td>
<td>17.39</td>
<td>1, 480</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.035</td>
<td>♀&lt;♂</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perpetration of verbal aggression</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perpetration of indirect aggression</td>
<td>13.08</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.027</td>
<td>♀&lt;♂</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perpetration of cyber aggression</td>
<td>15.04</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>♀&lt;♂</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perpetration of verbal sexual harassment</td>
<td>34.56</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.067</td>
<td>♀&lt;♂</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perpetration of physical sexual harassment</td>
<td>36.56</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.071</td>
<td>♀&lt;♂</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. Sex differences in victimization from aggression and sexual harassment among young adolescents in Turkish school settings (N = 482), cf. Table 5.
The Effect of Region on Victimization and Perpetration

Two one-way MANOVAs were performed with region as independent variable and six types of victimization from aggression and sexual harassment and perpetration of aggression and sexual harassment as dependent variables. The results are presented in Tables 7-8 and Figures 3-4. As Table 7 and Figure 3 indicate, victimization from aggression and sexual harassment showed significant regional differences in most of the cases with adolescents from Southeast Anatolia region scoring higher. Similarly, as Table 8 and Figure 4 indicate (although the multivariate analysis was not significant), perpetration from aggression and sexual harassment showed significant regional differences with the adolescents from Southeast Anatolia scoring higher on perpetration of physical aggression, indirect aggression and physical sexual harassment. There was a tendency regarding perpetration of cyber aggression and verbal sexual harassment, with adolescents from Southeast Anatolia scoring higher.

Table 7. Results from a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) with Region as Independent Variable and Six Types of Victimization from Aggression and Sexual Harassment as Dependent Variables (N = 482), cf. Figure 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect of region</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>$p$ ≤</th>
<th>$\eta^2_p$</th>
<th>Group differences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Multivariate analysis</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>24,1900</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.025</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Univariate analyses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victimisation from physical aggression</td>
<td>5.02</td>
<td>4, 477</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>4&gt;1,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victimisation from verbal aggression</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>4&gt;1,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victimisation from indirect aggression</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>4&gt;1,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victimisation from cyber aggression</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victimisation from verbal sexual harassment</td>
<td>5.73</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>4&gt;1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victimisation from physical sexual harassment</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>4&gt;1,3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Aegean = 1, Marmara = 2, Central Anatolia = 3, Southeast Anatolia =4

Table 8. Results from a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) with Region as Independent Variable and Six Types of Perpetration of Aggression and Sexual Harassment as Dependent Variables (N = 482), cf. Figure 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect of region</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>$p$ ≤</th>
<th>$\eta^2_p$</th>
<th>Group differences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Multivariate analysis</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>24, 1900</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2. Sex differences in perpetration of aggression and sexual harassment among young adolescents in Turkish school settings (N = 482), cf. Table 6.
Univariate analyses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perpetration of physical aggression</th>
<th>2.79</th>
<th>4.47</th>
<th>.026</th>
<th>.023</th>
<th>4&gt;1,2,3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perpetration of verbal aggression</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perpetration of indirect aggression</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.037</td>
<td>4&gt;1,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perpetration of cyber aggression</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>.057</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td>4&gt;1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perpetration of verbal sexual harassment</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>.058</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td>4&gt;1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perpetration of physical sexual harassment</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>.021</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>4&gt;1,3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Aegean = 1, Marmara = 2, Central Anatolia = 3, Southeast Anatolia = 4

Figure 3. Regional differences in victimization from aggression and sexual harassment among adolescents in Turkish school settings (N = 482), cf. Table 7.

Figure 4. Regional differences in perpetration of aggression and sexual harassment among adolescents in Turkish school settings (N = 482), cf Table 8.
Discussion

Young adolescent boys in the sample engaged in physical forms of aggression to a greater extent than girls; this finding was expected and in line with the results by Yurtal and Cenkseven (2016), Owens (2010), and Kepenekci and Cinkir (2006). Boys and girls did not differ from each other in regard to verbal aggression; this result is also consistent with previous findings from Turkey (Yurtal & Cenkseven, 2016). There was a sex difference regarding perpetration of indirect aggression; however, boys performed more of this type of aggression than girls, the latter is more common in international studies (see for instance Björkqvist, 2018). In regard to victimization from indirect aggression, there was no sex difference, as in line with a previous Turkish study (Yurtal & Cenkseven, 2016).

There were regional differences regarding physical, verbal and indirect aggression: mainly, the Southeastern region had the highest scores. This finding may be due to cultural circumstances in combination with the occasional exposure to armed conflicts in this region, and its ongoing effects on young adolescents living there. It has been suggested that the adolescents in this area experience themselves humiliated and accordingly show a tendency to join illegal groups (Bilgin, 2013). Studies from other conflict areas have shown that the existence of armed conflicts is associated with increased levels of childhood aggression (Quota, Punamäki, & El Sarraj, 2008), and that the trauma of experiencing armed conflict during early childhood may lead to aggression in adolescence (Kerestes, 2006).

The results concerning sex differences in cyber aggression was also in line with previous studies (Erdur-Baker, 2010; Topçu, Erdur-Baker, & Capa-Aydin, 2008; Yilmaz, 2011). The results are also consistent with Erdur-Baker’s (2010) study on the relation between traditional aggression and cyber aggression. However, in the Southeastern region, this relationship was not found.

The results concerning victimization from sexual harassment were partially consistent with Yurtal and Cenkseven’s (2016) study, which found a sex difference regarding victimization from verbal sexual harassment, but not regarding physical sexual harassment. In the present study, boys scored higher on victimization from both verbal and physical sexual harassment, which was somewhat surprising. The present study had data from several regions in Turkey, whereas the data by Yurtal and Cenkseven were from the area around Seyhan/Adana, which is located in the Mediterranean region in Southern Turkey.

Young adolescents from the Southeastern region scored higher on victimization from sexual harassment, and also on the perpetration of physical sexual harassment. This finding may be due to a higher tolerance for aggression conducted by men, which is in line with the slightly more oppressed position of women in the Southeast region of Turkey (Ökten, 2008). Moreover, talking about sexuality is a taboo in Turkey, and avoided in particular in this area, which leads to lack of information about healthy sexual behavior, which prepares the ground for sexual harassment.

The fact that boys involve themselves more than girls in sexual harassment, both as perpetrators and victims, might be explained with, as Erdur-Baker (2010) suggests, higher tolerance of aggressive behavior among boys, whereas girls are taught to control their aggression. Another reason for the existence of sexual harassment among young adolescents might be the lack of education about such matters in schools. The educational curriculum should include information about sexual harassment, and how to avoid and counter it in daily life. Even though increased awareness about sexual harassment among young adolescents and children has been attempted by some non-governmental campaigns, these initiatives have largely been ignored by the authorities. Related to that, as Alikasifoglu (2006) indicates, sexual harassment is usually not reported in Turkey, since spreading information about such behavior often is considered to cause loss of the victim’s (and the victim’s family’s) reputation. Being a victim/perpetrator of sexual abuse might even result in honor killings within some clans or families.

The study has some limitations that should be noted. First, the study used the term ‘sex’ instead of ‘gender’, stressing the biological sex rather than gender identity. This choice of wording may have excluded some individuals from participating. Second, there were unequal number of responses from the different regions; they were especially low in Central Anatolia and Marmara (the Northwest). Third, mobile phone calls were not mentioned as examples of cyber aggression, which they probably should have been, considering their importance in today’s society. This neglect might excluded responses about unwanted phone calls, which is an important form of cyber aggression.

Overall, the results show that boys in Turkey are highly involved in aggression and sexual harassment, which underscores the need for an effective and comprehensive initiative towards aggression and sexual harassment. The study might be
informative also for researchers and policy makers of other countries that has a focus on young adolescents who have migrated from Turkey. To our knowledge, it is the first study comparing regional differences regarding adolescents' aggression in Turkey. In that sense, it emphasizes the importance of region-based policymaking and the significance of preventative education programs against aggression and sexual harassment. More detailed research about the reasons for sex and regional differences might broaden the perspective on the subject.

References


Gender Differences in Effective Participation of the Elected People's Representatives to the Union Parishads of Bangladesh: Token Presence or Effective Participation

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Abstract
Effective political participation was measured with a questionnaire that was completed by 680 (347 female, 333 male) representatives to the rural local governance of Bangladesh, Union Parishads. The questionnaire included four scales. Females scored significantly lower than males on the scales of having influence on political decisions, active political participation and initiatives, and political commissions of trust; and significantly higher on victimisation from faulty meeting procedures. Influence on political decisions varied according to age group for females but not for males. Of the males, 94.7% participated in meetings regularly compared to only 30.1% of the females. Of the females, 16.9% reported they were not informed about the time of the meetings, while this was the case for only 3.7% of the males. None of the committees used voting at the monthly meetings. Of the males, 94.9% reported that meeting decisions were taken through mutual understanding, while only 15.3% of the females were of that opinion. Of the females, 64.8% reported that decisions were taken by the chairman alone, and 19.9% of them that decisions were taken by the chairman and male members only. It may be concluded that despite recent legislative measures, female political participation still needs to be improved in Bangladesh.

Keywords: Effective political participation; females; Union Parishads; Bangladesh

Introduction
The aim of the present study was to compare female and male people's representatives to the rural local government of Bangladesh regarding their effective participation in the overall governance process in their jurisdiction.

The lowest tier of the rural local government, also called the Union Parishads, is the smallest of the rural administrative and local governmental units in Bangladesh. This old local governance system is still in place in about 4480 Union Parishads, each consisting of 13 members. Among the members, one is elected as chairperson, nine are councilors (members) from nine different smaller areas of the Union Parishads, and three seats are reserved for female councilors. The women occupying the reserved seats are elected with the same voting system as the men, but as the three smaller wards are represented by three male members, only one female member represents all the three wards together.

It is has been claimed that as far as political participation in Bangladesh is concerned, women are lagging behind men due to psychosocial, institutional, legal, cultural, and other barriers, which prevent them from participating actively (Panday, 2008). The association between good governance and gender equality has been debated over the past decades (Morna, 2002), and it has been asserted that the inclusion of women in the political decision-making process is connected with both economic and social empowerment (Husain & Siddiqi, 2002).

With the view to include women in the governance of Bangladesh, the government has taken different measures. The most notable one has been reserving seats for women in the local government, which was decided in the Local Government
Ordinance of 1983 (Government of Bangladesh, 1983). After this primary initiative, the government has also reformed the acts and provisions for further political empowerment of women (Begum, 2012). The Local Government Ordinance of 1983 was reformed in 1992 and 1997, which finally resulted in the Local Government Act of 2009 (Government of Bangladesh, 2009). The act has made it easier for women to step up the power structure of the Union Parishads (Begum, 2012), and since that, female political participation has been shown to have increased significantly (Zaman, 2012).

However, it is still a matter of concern whether women are actually effective participators in political decision making, resource and responsibility allocation, and other core arenas of the political governance.

**Definitions of Effective Political Participation**

In the realm of development discourse, the concept of political participation has got momentum in recent decades (Rahman, 2014). For being a wide concept, political participation has been defined both generally and specifically according to different aspects of social, political, and administrative settings. Agarwal (2001) has discussed different types of political participation such as a purely nominal membership in contrast to having an actual voice and influence in decision making. He distinguishes between six levels of participation: nominal, passive, consultative, activity-specific, active, and interactive participation. In a later study (Agarwal, 2010) he differentiated between token participation and active participation, based on three parameters of participation: attendance at meetings, speaking up, and office bearing.

Hossain (2012) provides another definition which describes a general sense of participation. It denotes participation as people's involvement in policy making, and developing and implementing plans and programmes. It describes a dynamic process of collective effort to problem solving and decision making, and it includes both voice and choice of individuals within an organization or any other group setting, as well as democratic involvement of people in formulating, implementing, and evaluating different policies.

In regard to participation as a tool for women’s political empowerment, Panday (2010) has described three levels of women's political participation: (1) having the right to political involvement, (2) to exercising the right of voting at both a household and a community level, and (3) having female representation in regional and national bodies of government.

Many studies have defined participation as taking part in the decision-making process of the local governance institutions of the country. Without providing an in-depth definition, Panday (2008) has pointed out the difference between representation and participation, in an article titled 'Representation without participation', showing that representation in the governance process does not necessarily ensure participation. Hossain (2012) and Prodip (2014) have included implementation of development activities and taking part in the policy making process respectively as participation. Participation in activities like rural arbitration and regular meetings as a people's representative is also defined as participation (Hossain, 2012). Begum (2012) coined the term 'genuine participation' in her study, but no further definition was included.

**Gender Differences in Effective Political Participation in Bangladesh**

Studies on gender differences in the political governance of Bangladesh have generally been qualitative by nature, except for two studies: one by Zaman (2012) and one by Shamim and Kumari (2002), which used both qualitative and quantitative methods. Gender differences have been studied regarding activities in the meetings such as low attendance rate, causes for not attending meetings, reluctance to raise one’s voice, and not having one’s opinion treated with respect by other members.

In a study of 60 male and female representatives from the Dhaka Municipal Corporation and the Narayanganj municipality, it was found that female councilors had a higher attendance rate in the meetings than male councilors (Zaman, 2007). Common causes for not attending meetings for males were forgetting the schedule, being abroad, and not getting informed in time. In the case of females, the main causes were illness, and not getting floor time to talk in the meetings (Zaman, 2007). Moreover, male members were found to fully participate in meeting discussions, but in the case of female members, some participated partially and some did not participate at all in the discussion at the meetings (Zaman, 2007). It has been argued (Zaman, 2012) that gender differences regarding reluctance to raise one’s voice in meetings occur due to faulty meeting procedures.
Another study conducted on Union Parishads from six districts of Bangladesh and two districts of India, with 602 women and 399 men (Shamim & Kumari, 2002) found that in addition to not getting informed of the meetings, the women members reported that their opinions were not duly accepted at the meetings.

Other gender differences have also been identified, such as problems related to the low number of female councilors, gender based allocation of responsibilities and exclusion, being forced to pay money in order to get one’s rights, and proxy participation. One study investigated a particular problem affecting females connected to the ratio of male-female members. It was found that decisions were taken according to a coram of 60% of members. Since females were a minority in number, they could not as a group influence any decision taken in the meetings (Khan & Ara, 2006).

Perceived possibilities of influencing decisions have been addressed in many studies. Prodip (2014) found women to be systematically excluded from the activities of the councils. Zaman (2012) describes discrimination in allocation of responsibilities between male and female council members. The chairmen, who managed the work distribution to council members, assigned less responsibilities to women, they ignored women in financial affairs, and instead gave them unimportant tasks. Zaman (2012) also reported that in the case of the Narayangonj municipality, no female was assigned to be the head of a standing committee.

A study conducted on 19 Union Parishads found that women were forced to pay money to the chairmen in order to get involved in political projects (Rahman, 2014). In the same study, it was found that the members and the chairman were sharing the profit of various projects they were in charge of. Ultimately, a study conducted by Hossain (2012) on two Union Parishads and one Upazila (a sub-district of UP) revealed proxy participation, that is, husbands were found to attend meetings on behalf of their wives.

Age and Political Participation

Age and political well-being have been interlinked in a number of studies. Involvement in civic political participation such as attending meetings, and investing time in volunteering, has been found to be one form of productive aging (Burr, Jeffrey, Caro, & Moorhead, 2002). Older party members, women included, have been shown to be valuable to the political parties due to their experience, flexibility regarding time, and contributions to local fund raising (Hudson & Gonyea, 1990). Similarly, a study by Schneider and Ingram (1993) showed that political contributions of elderly members were significant, and that their presence was experienced in a positive way.

Objectives of the Study

The aim of the present study was to investigate gender differences in active political participation of elected people’s representatives to the Union Parishads. Sex differences in four core areas of political participation were included: (1) influence on political decisions, (2) active political participation and initiatives, (3) political commissions of trust, and (4) victimisation from faulty meeting procedures. Despite many studies addressing age and political participation have been conducted worldwide, no such study has to the knowledge of the authors been carried out in Bangladesh. The study also endeavors to apply more advanced statistical analyses than previous studies on the issue from Bangladesh.

Method

Sample

A questionnaire was completed by 680 representatives (347 females, 333 males) from eight Union Parishads (UP), the rural local governance, of Bangladesh. The mean age was 42.6 years (SD = 6.4) for females and 43.9 (SD = 6.2) for males; the age difference was significant \( t_{(678)} = 2.6, p = .009 \).

Instrument

Four scales measuring influence on political decisions, active political participation and initiatives, political commissions of trust, and victimisation from faulty meeting procedures, were constructed for the study. Response alternatives for all the items were on a five-point scale (never = 0, seldom = 1, sometimes = 2, very often = 3, always = 4). Single items of the scales and Cronbach’s alphas are presented in Table 1.
Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1</th>
<th>Single Items and Cronbach’s Alphas for the Four Scales in the Study (N = 680)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Influence on Political Decisions</strong> (6 items, $\alpha = .97$)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) I experience that I can influence decisions if I want to, b) My opinion is asked in specific matters, but I cannot influence decisions directly *), c) When I make an initiative, it is received well, d) My opinion is valued in standing committees, e) I am being asked to undertake specific tasks, f) I have selected and decided about beneficiaries.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Active Political Participation and Initiatives</strong> (7 items, $\alpha = .96$)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) In meetings, I express my opinion freely, whether or not solicited, b) I have expressed my disagreement verbally at a meeting, c) I have participated actively in project implementations, d) I have participated actively in relief allocations, e) I volunteer to undertake specific tasks, f) I make initiatives of different kinds, g) My initiatives have led to concrete actions or decisions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Political Commissions of Trust</strong> (6 items, $\alpha = .79$)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) I became the convener of a tender committee, b) I became a member of a tender committee, c) I have signed to the monthly account statement, d) I became chairman of any village court arranged by the union council, e) I became a member of any village court arranged by the union council, f) I have been a convener of project preparation and implementation committee.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Victimisation from Faulty Meeting Procedures</strong> (6 items, $\alpha = .89$)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) I don't get informed of the monthly meetings, b) My divergent opinion has been duly included in the minutes of the meeting *), c) I get informed about decisions only after then meetings, d) I have signed the resolution of a meetings without having attended, e) I have been forced to sign to the resolution of a meeting, f) Someone else has attended meetings for me.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*) recoded item

Procedure

Two versions of a paper-and pencil questionnaire were constructed, one for females and one for males. Purposive sampling was used for selecting participants within the governance in order to secure an even distribution between female and male participants.

Data were collected in three phases. The data of the first phase, the pilot, were collected between January and July 2015. It included 141 (76 male and 65 female) participants from the Union Parishads of Jamalpur Sadar Upazila and Islampur Upazila. The second phase data were collected between September 2015 and January 2016, immediately before the UP elections which were held between March and June, 2016. It included 516 participants (260 females and 257 males) from Dewangonj, Sarishabari, Bakshigonj, Melandah, Madargonj Upazila of the Jamalpur district, Nakla, Nalitabari, Sreebardi, Jhinaigati and Sherpur Sadar Upazila of the Sherpur district, and Dhanbari Upazila of the Tangail district. The third phase data were collected from Dhanbari and Modhupur Upazila of the Tangail district, and Muktagacha and Mymensingh Sadar Upazila of the Mymensingh district. It included 164 participants (88 females and 76 males) who retrieved their experiences of the previous term, most of them were also re-elected in the new elections.

Ethical Considerations

The study was supported by the Upazila Nirbahi Office, and the National Institute of Local Government (NILG), Dhaka, Bangladesh. It adheres to the principles concerning human research ethics of the Declaration of Helsinki (World Medical Association, 2013), as well as the guidelines for responsible conduct of research of The Finnish Advisory Board on Research Integrity (2012).
Results

Correlations between the Scales

It was found that all four scales correlated highly with each other for both females and males (Table 2) (all \( p < .001 \)). Victimization from faulty meeting procedures correlated significantly negatively with the other three scales for both females and males. The highest correlation for females was found between perceived influence on political decisions and possessing political commissions of trust (\( r = .93, p < .001 \)). For males, the highest correlation was a negative correlation between perceived influence on political decisions and victimization from faulty meeting procedures (\( r = -.89, p < .001 \)).

Table 2

Pearson’s Correlations between the Scales in the Study, for Females (below the Diagonal) and Males (above the Diagonal), \( N = 680 \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1.</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>4.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Influence on Political Decisions</td>
<td>.74 ***</td>
<td>.67 ***</td>
<td>-.89 ***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Active Political Participation and Initiatives</td>
<td>.90 ***</td>
<td>-.50 ***</td>
<td>-.74 ***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Political Commissions of Trust</td>
<td>.93 ***</td>
<td>.82 ***</td>
<td>-.68 ***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Victimisation from Faulty Meeting Procedures</td>
<td>-.84 ***</td>
<td>-.80 ***</td>
<td>-.72 ***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** \( p < .001 \)

Sex and Age Group

A multivariate analysis of variance (\( 2 \times 6 \) MANOVA) was conducted with sex and age group as independent variables and the four scales as dependent variables. The multivariate analyses were significant (Table 3). The univariate analyses showed significant differences for sex, age group, and the interaction between them.

Table 3

Results of a Sex x Age Group (\( 2 \times 6 \)) Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) with Four Scales as Dependent Variables (\( N = 680 \))

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( F )</th>
<th>( df )</th>
<th>( p \leq )</th>
<th>( \eta^2 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effect of Sex</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multivariate analysis</td>
<td>310.60</td>
<td>4, 665</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.651</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Univariate analyses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence on Political Decisions</td>
<td>843.92</td>
<td>1, 668</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.558</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active Political Participation and Initiatives</td>
<td>703.12</td>
<td>“</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.513</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political Commissions of Trust</td>
<td>1118.99</td>
<td>“</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.626</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victimisation from Faulty Meeting Procedures</td>
<td>847.62</td>
<td>“</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.559</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effect of Age Group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multivariate analysis</td>
<td>6.84</td>
<td>20, 2672</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Univariate analyses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence on Political Decisions</td>
<td>28.53</td>
<td>5, 668</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active Political Participation and Initiatives</td>
<td>21.61</td>
<td>“</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political Commissions of Trust</td>
<td>18.85</td>
<td>“</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victimisation from Faulty Meeting Procedures</td>
<td>19.01</td>
<td>“</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effect of Sex and Age Group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multivariate analysis</td>
<td>6.63</td>
<td>20, 2672</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Univariate analyses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence on Political Decisions</td>
<td>21.10</td>
<td>5, 668</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active Political Participation and Initiatives</td>
<td>20.73</td>
<td>“</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political Commissions of Trust</td>
<td>12.28</td>
<td>“</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victimisation from Faulty Meeting Procedures</td>
<td>12.93</td>
<td>“</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.088</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Females scored significantly lower than males on influence on political decisions, active political participation and initiatives, and political commissions of trust, and higher on victimisation from faulty meeting procedures (Fig. 1).

Scheffé’s test revealed that for females, influence on political decisions varied according to age group (Table 4). The oldest age group, those who were 56–61 of age, scored significantly higher than all the other age groups, followed by participants 46–50 years of age. The second oldest age group, 51–55 years old, deviated from the pattern; they scored higher only than those who were 36–40 years old. For males, only two age group differences were found; for political decision making, respondents 41–45 years of age scored significantly lower than the age group younger than them (36–40 years), and the age group after them (46–50 years). Interaction effects between sex and age groups were found for influence on political decisions (Fig. 2). While age group differences were overall small for males, females 56–61 years of age showed a marked peak, while females 51–55 years of age showed a sharp decrease deviating from the pattern. It has, however, to be noticed that there were only seven females in the oldest age group.

Table 4

**Influence on Political Decisions. Significant Differences between Age Groups According to Scheffé’s Test (N = 680). All p < .05. Cf. Fig. 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Groups</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Males</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I = 29–35 yrs</td>
<td>I &lt; IV, VI</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II = 36–40 yrs</td>
<td>II &lt; IV, V, VI</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III = 41–45 yrs</td>
<td>III &lt; IV, VI</td>
<td>III &lt; II, IV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV = 46–50 yrs</td>
<td>IV &gt; I –III; IV &lt; VI</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V = 51–55 yrs</td>
<td>V &gt; II; V &lt; IV, VI</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI = 56–61 yrs</td>
<td>VI &gt; all others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 2. Mean values for females and males of different age groups on perceived influence on political decisions (N = 680).

Attendance and Voting at Meetings

It was found that 94.7% of the males participated in meetings regularly compared to only 30.1% of the females. When asked why they did not attend the monthly meetings regularly, 16.9% of the females reported that they were not informed about the meetings, while only 3.7% of the males reported the same. Of the females, 46.2% also said that the meetings were not held regularly, while only 0.5% of the males said so.

Of the females, 10.4% did not attend meetings. When asked about the reason for this, 8.5% reported that they were not able to raise their voice in the meetings, 1.5% said that their husband liked to participate in meetings instead of them, and 0.4% were busy with household chores.

The committees did not use voting at the monthly meetings. When asked about the reason for this, 94.9% of the males, and 15.3% of the females, reported that at meetings, decisions were taken through mutual understanding. Of the females, 64.8% reported that decisions were taken by the chairman alone, and 19.9% of them that decisions were taken by the chairman and male members only. In the case of males, these percentages were 2.4% and 2.7% respectively.

Discussion

The aim of the study was to compare females and males regarding their effective political participation in the local governance of Bangladesh. Despite the legislative measures taken in order to enhance female effective political participation, it was found that female representatives to the local rural government rated their ability to influence political decisions to be significantly lesser than males. This included being asked about one’s opinion in specific matters, initiatives being positively received, and being asked to undertake specific tasks like selecting and deciding about beneficiaries. Shamim and Kumari (2002) also found that the opinions of female representatives were not duly accepted at the meetings.

For both females and males, their perceived influence on political decisions correlated highly with the number of political commissions of trust that had been given to them, as well as with their own active political participation.

Political Participation

Females also scored lower than males on active political participation and initiatives. This included being able to freely express opinions and disagreement at a meeting, to participate in project implementations and relief allocations, to
volunteer to undertake specific tasks and initiatives, as well as experiencing that one’s initiatives lead to concrete actions or decisions. Zaman (2007) has also found that some females did not speak at all during the meetings.

Regarding attendance at meetings, it was found that almost all (95%) of the males participated in meetings regularly, while only one third of the females did so. One reason why females did not attend meetings was that they were not informed about them (17%), and as a consequence, almost half of them assumed that meetings were not held regularly. This is in line with findings by Shamim and Kumari (2002), who also found that female representatives were not informed about dates of the meetings. Another reason for not attending meetings was that they were not able to raise their voice there (8%). Zaman (2007) has also reported that one of the main reasons for females not to attend meetings was not getting floor time to speak at the meetings.

Females also scored lower than males on having been given political commissions of trust. This included not having been selected to be a member or a convener of a committee, not having been asked to sign the monthly account statement, not being member or chairman of a village court, or a convener of a project preparation and implementation committee. This result is in accordance with Zaman’s (2012), who found that in the Narayangonj municipality in central Bangladesh, no female was assigned to be the head of a standing committee. He also found that the chairmen in general assigned less responsibilities to women. Systematic exclusion of women from council activities was found also by Prodip (2014).

Age group differences in political participation were overall small for males, while females 56−61 years of age showed a marked rise in activity. Previous studies have found a positive impact of age on political well-being (Burr, Jeffrey, Caro, & Moorhead, 2002; Hudson & Gonyea, 1990; Schneider & Ingram, 1993).

Faulty Meeting Procedures

Influence on political decisions as well as active participation and commissions of trust correlated significantly negatively with how much the representatives were subjected to faulty meeting procedures. This was the case for both females and males.

Females rated themselves higher than males on being victimised from faulty meeting procedures. Such procedures included, e.g., not having one’s divergent opinion included in the minutes of the meeting, getting informed about decisions only after the meetings, having been forced against one’s will to sign the resolution of a meeting, or even having to sign the resolution of a meeting without having attended. Zaman (2012) has argued that females’ reluctance to raise their voice in meetings is largely due to faulty meeting procedures.

It was further found that the committees did not use voting at the monthly meetings, and that almost all the males (95%) reported that decisions were taken through mutual understanding. In sharp contrast to this, over half of the females (65%) reported that decisions were taken by the chairman alone, or by the chairman and male members only (20%). Panday (2010) has pointed out that exercising the right to vote at a community level is as a tool for women’s political empowerment.

A study by Hossain (2012) revealed proxy participation, i.e. that husbands or fathers participated instead of the women in meetings. In this study, only 1.5% of the females reported proxy participation by the husband; the percentage was low, but not zero.

Methodological Issues

The study was quantitative by nature, in contrast to previous studies on the same topic in Bangladesh, which mostly have been qualitative. The scales of the study had high internal consistencies (Cronbach’s alpha). The female respondents of the study were assisted by a female research assistant, in order to ensure that they would feel free to respond honestly and not embellish matters. The participants’ command of their language was at times limited, which made it difficult for them to understand the questions, and response alternatives in the form of a Likert scale was also a new experience for many. Therefore, much time was spent explaining the questions to the respondents, with a male researcher assisting the males, and a female assisting the females.

Conclusions

The study reveals that despite recent legislative measures, female political participation in Bangladesh still needs to be improved. As pointed out by Panday (2008), mere representation in the governance process does not necessarily ensure participation; therefore, female effective participation could be enhanced e.g. by diminishing faulty meeting procedures.
female representatives would be informed correctly about meetings, have their divergent opinions included in the minutes of the meetings, and if voting at meetings was introduced on a regular basis, female representatives could be encouraged to attend the meetings regularly and raise their voices without being embarrassed or afraid not to be accepted. By educating all members of the rural governance in sound meeting proceedings, a change in female effective participation could be brought about.

Acknowledgement

The assistance of Jannatul Ferdous Bonna in the collection of the data is gratefully acknowledged. The study was supported by a grant from Högskolestiftelsen i Österbotten, Vasa, Finland.

References


Empirical Understanding of Social Protection Programmes in Southwest Coastal Areas of Bangladesh: A Postmodern Perspective

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Abstract

Social protection programmes in Bangladesh aimed at reducing the vulnerability of the poor has become exceptionally challenging because of high exposure to weak institutional governance, and frequent natural disasters. As a matter of fact, both the coverage and the types of social protection programmes have been expanded to support the extremely poor households in Bangladesh over the last decade. However, the boundaries between ‘protection approach’ associated with risk reduction and ‘promotion approach’ regarded as the pathways to raise incomes and employment opportunities of the poor have remained understated in policy discourse. This paper addresses how an Interpretivist methodology can be used in exploring the current complexities of social protection programmes in extremely poor households with reference to disaster-affected areas in southwest coastal Bangladesh, giving a particular attention to the interpretation of the beneficiaries as well as service providers. This paper employs an interpretative framework for collecting qualitative data because of its ability to make sense of the complex situations of social protection programmes by generating multi-contextual information provided by the beneficiaries of social protection programmes. During the initial fieldwork of the research, the research participants pointed out that there exist strong prevalence and dominance of local politics considered as ‘underlying issues’ in the delivering process of social protection programmes, which is further associated with power-relation between the rich and poor class of the society. However, the current policy discourses of social protection programmes have overlooked those highly pertinent phenomena both in local and national context. This paper argues that the aspects of availability, accessibility and utilisation of social protection programmes is not straightforward as each aspect is further associated with social relations and complex social understanding. An interpretive methodology along with illustrative data collection and analysis techniques can become effective to explore those complex societal understanding related with social protection programmes. Finally, within the adopted interpretive framework, the integrated view related with availability, accessibility and utilisation aspects of social protection programmes need to be addressed while creating a sense of meaning and understanding of overall situation of social protection programmes.

Keywords: Interpretivist methodology, Embedded case study, Social protection programmes, Southwest coastal Bangladesh.

Introduction

Being Outsider, Becoming Insider

Existing literature of social protection suggests that since social protection schemes target not only poverty but also vulnerability reduction, it can play a very important role in compare to the other development interventions (Page, Sibanda, Kureya, & Kalibwani, 2005). Social protection programmes in South Asia form three different levels such as social provision, social prevention, and social promotion where social provisions are designed to meet basic needs deficits among the poorest sections of the population; social preventive measures are intended in the face of contingencies, and social promotional measures are planned to provide trajectories out of poverty (Kabeer, 2009). Many other researchers such as Barrientos and Hulme (2008), and Sabates-Wheeler and Devereux (2008) describe social assistance, social insurance, and labour market regulation in relation to the above-mentioned three levels of social protection programmes. The Government of Bangladesh is implementing 93 development projects that can be further classified into four broad categories such as cash allowance and asset transfer programs, microcredit programs, food security programs for poverty reduction, and training programs for capacity development (Ministry of Planning, 2014). The social protection programmes
in Bangladesh are predominantly focused on rural areas because the poverty rate is three times higher in rural areas than urban areas, where nearly 70 per cent of the country’s population lives (International Fund for Agricultural Development, 2014).

Considering the importance of social protection programmes in Bangladesh, I began this research project anticipating that researching on issues like ‘social protection programmes’ in Bangladesh would be extremely challenging because previous researches have found that social protection programmes in Bangladesh contain some serious problems such as inappropriate targeting, inadequate coverage, and severe leakage and corruption issues (Mannan & Ahmed, 2012). In fact, my experiences of the prevailing complexities of social protection programmes in Bangladesh during the fieldwork were far beyond than my initial anticipation. At the beginning of fieldwork, the research participants asked me a wide range of questions in numerous forms such as my benefits of working on the social protection programmes, my political inclination, my personal engagement with local politicians and government officials (if I know any local politician from their areas), participants’ associated risks of providing me the ‘inside’ information, and the future consequences of the results as well as their benefits from the research. Truly speaking, my initial role was to become an interviewer to the research participants. Understanding the wide range of questions asked by the research participants, I changed my role, in particular, from an interviewer to an interviewee that ultimately provided me the opportunity to familiarise myself to the local people and the research participants. As a result of that many recipients of the social protection programmes provided me some crucial information such as local political leaders act as a gateway of social protection programmes; beneficiaries of social protection programmes are unable to tell to anyone that the supports are not enough for them to maintain the basic need; and the beneficiaries of social protection programmes need to accept whatever they get as if it is better than nothing. Though these underlying issues were open secret to the local people, the dynamics and its extent were not straightforward to me. More specifically, when I made my first contact with my research participant Rohima Banu (pseudonym), Rayenda Union, Sharankhola Upazila, Bagerhat, her initial reflection about the social protection programmes was:

“Don’t you think if I would tell you the full story of my ‘widow card’, government is going to take back my ‘widow card’? I don’t want to lose my ‘widow card’ because of you. I got this card after waiting for six years.”

The reflection of Rohima Banu regarding the social protection programmes made me realise that every research participant was expecting a strong trustworthy relationship from me in order to share the insights of social protection programmes. Most of the research participants were keen to share their stories of social protection programmes with me. However, in many situations, some of them were not confident to discuss everything with me, especially the influence of local politicians on social protection programmes in their local areas. I had to work extensively on ‘rapport building’ to make the initial contact with the beneficiaries of social protection programmes via the household heads. In doing so, I had to put aside all the situational orders and practices that I experienced before, and to subordinate myself in order to get an insider’s perspective of social protection programmes (Luders, 2004: 225).

As a part of ‘rapport building,’ I oriented myself to the extremely poor household heads and their family members by explaining my interests of conducting this research in their localities. During the initial discussion with the extremely poor household heads, I assured that my political ideology and association with the government officials and local politicians would not make any harm to anyone. It took more than a week simply to establish a reliable platform to collect information from the research participants. In every initial discussion, I consistently mentioned that all information from them would be kept safely and confidentially make sense of the underlying issues of social protection programmes. On top, I shared my first week’s experiences of living in their villages to bring a common topic to discuss so that we could start the discussion with the familiar topics. A good rapport is signalled by emotions that feel harmonious and cooperative, and trust can be recognised through facial expression and bodily language (Johnson, 2002:109). I could clearly see the positive changes in their behaviour and emotional attachment after sharing the information such as my current place of living in their villages, my favourite tea-stall in their local areas, and my overall experiences about the lives of the coastal communities.

To make sense of the contexts of the information, I made more than three visits to the participants and their family members, and that created greater reliability and consistency in providing information regarding exploring the underlying issues of social protection programmes. Due to my repeated visits to the households of the research participants, the extremely poor household heads seemed very enthusiastic to participate in the interviews along with the beneficiaries of social protection programmes. During the initial discussions at household level, the family members of the beneficiaries of social protection programmes started unpacking the situations like ‘No one wants to listen our stories,’ ‘We feel so fortunate that you have gave the opportunity to talk freely,’ ‘We can not discuss the limitations of social protection programmes with anyone like you because we are worried...
about the consequences.’ Some of the research participants were surprised to see my methods of data collection, mainly adopting the semi-structured but informal interviews. During the interviews at the household level, some of the research participants mentioned that they previously participated in other research activities where they became familiarize with questionnaire, not an oral interviews like story-telling approach. Although my primary interest was to collect information about social protection programmes from the extremely poor household heads and their associated personnel, I did not give any strong verbal impression of that I came to them only to collect information. That soft impression of data collection provided a detailed understanding of the contexts of the information of social protection programmes.

During the data collection, I primarily applied two broad strategies to generate my understanding of social protection programmes. The first one was to get to know the issues that people were interested to discuss about social protection programmes. The second one was to explore the issues that people did not want to discuss about social protection programmes. In addition, I emphasised the other relevant issues of social protection programs that people were not able to discuss without my support. For interviewing the research participants, I firmly relied on these three dimensions as major considerations of data collection (Mayo, 1945). The information provided by the research participants guided me not only to generate a clear understanding of the complexity of social protection programmes but also to interpret the underlying issues of social protection programmes and its consequences on the lives of the extremely poor households. This paper primarily focuses on generating multi-contextual information provided by the beneficiaries of social protection programmes, and the perspectives of the research participants have helped me to develop an insider’s perspective of social protection programmes, as opposed to outsider’s perspective.

Research Approach: Embedded Case Study with Qualitative Inquiry

A research design is important before conducting any particular research activities because it guides the researchers to situate them within in the empirical world, and also to connect the research questions to data (Punch, 1998: 66). However, the strategies can vary substantially if anyone is conducting a qualitative research as it calls for considerable flexibility in design ranging from data collection to data analysis (Bazeley, 2013: 33). I consider the term ‘qualitative research approach’ to entail a nonmathematical process of interpretation, carried out for the purpose of discovering concepts and relationships in empirical data, and findings are not arrived at by statistical procedures (Strauss & Corbin, 1998: 11). Qualitative research design also requires a broader and less restrictive design, but the conduction of qualitative studies includes meticulous thinking (Maxwell, 2009: 215). Bazeley (2013: 33) calls that meticulous thinking as planning in qualitative research, which helps to ensure the research remains purposeful, by being considerate about finding new information along with practical difficulties of fieldworks. Meticulous thinking in qualitative research, as Marshall and Rossman (2006: 24) describes, is a nonlinear process, and because of that it has become possible to capture Rohima Banu (pseudonym) and others’ complex experiences of social protection programmes. On top, this paper adopts a qualitative research design because it provides a wide range of interconnected interpretative practices, hoping to get a better understanding of the underlying issues of social protection programmes of Bangladesh (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005: 4).

This paper adopts qualitative research design in exploring the issues of social protection programmes because the extremely poor households are ‘hard to reach’ group in the society as they do not have a fixed place to live. In many cases, they build their houses on government’s land, legally or illegally (Rahman & Zaman, 2017; Awal, Rashid, Islam, & Imam, 2013). Many of them are not included in the official statistics due to their temporary settlement status. Since there is a lack of existing reliable data about the extremely poor households, the use of probability statistics, in particular the random sampling would limit the understanding of social protection programmes. Another important reason for choosing the qualitative method of inquiry is that there is little known about the experiences of extremely poor households concerning to the supports and limitation of social protection programmes. The use of qualitative methods of inquiry would give voice to the beneficiaries of social protection programmes.

Within the qualitative methods of inquiry, this paper adopts case study research because it provides detailed understanding of social protection programmes which can be established by talking directly with recipients and associated personnel, by going to their homes or places of work, and by allowing them to tell the stories (Creswell, 2007: 40). The most distinctive characteristic of qualitative inquiry, as Erickson (1986) says, is its emphasis on interpretation, and case study research provides an intense contact with a "field" or life situation where we are able to gain in-depth understanding of the context for more illustrative interpretation (Miles & Huberman, 1994: 6). This paper adopts a single case study, that is, the social protection programmes in the southwest coastal Bangladesh. The single but complex case study of social protection programmes in southwest coastal areas requires an embedded case design because the social protection programmes in
southwest coastal Bangladesh can be broadly classified into four categories namely food security programmes for poverty reduction; cash allowance and asset transfer programmes; microcredit programmes; and training programmes for capacity building (Ministry of Planning, 2014; Hulme, Maitrot, Ragno, & Rahman, 2014). In addition, the dynamics of availability, accessibility, and utilisation aspects of social protection programmes differ from regions to regions. This research project incorporates three embedded subunits which indicates three different levels or components of the case (Yin, 1989; Scholz & Tietje, 2002). The embedded subunits provide specific understanding of the broad case. The subunits are designed after doing an extensive literature search on social protection programmes in Bangladesh. My previous research experiences on southwest coastal Bangladesh are also used to design the level of units, in particular whether the subunits would be Union or Upazila (Rahman & Zaman, 2017).

The first embedded unit is the dynamics of availability, accessibility, and utilisation aspects of social protection programmes in southwest coastal Bangladesh. This mainly shows the overall status of different types of social protection programmes in southwest coastal Bangladesh. Within the first embedded unit, the main task is to question the ‘What aspects,’ ‘How aspects,’ and ‘When aspects’ of social protection programmes. The second embedded unit is the three unions of southwest coastal areas of Bangladesh that is linked with the question ‘Where aspects’ of social protection programmes. Three Unions namely Rayenda Union, Uttar Bedkashi Union, and Burir Char Union of southwest coastal regions of Bangladesh are selected to understand the variations in social protection programmes across different geographic settings. The final embedded unit is the different types of beneficiaries of social protection programmes such as the recipients of Vulnerable Group Feeding (VGF) and Vulnerable Group Development (VGD) programme, Food For Work (FFW) programme, Old Age Allowance programme, Stipend for Primary Students programme, Honorarium for Freedom Fighters programme, and Widow Allowance programme. By incorporating the experiences of the different beneficiaries of social protection programmes, it has become possible to generate an illustrative picture of the social protection programmes in southwest coastal areas as a whole (see figure 01 for details of the schematic framework of the case and its embedded subunits).

Figure 01: Conceptual framework of the case and embedded units of the case. Source: Author generated from the conceptual understanding of the works of Scholz and Tietje (2002)
The Research Participants: Different Types of Beneficiaries of Social Protection Programmes

All the participants in this research were above 18 years of age. Out of 24 beneficiaries of social protection programmes from three research sites, 50 per cent were female respondents and the rest 50 per cent were male respondents. Although the total numbers of male-female participants were same, both Rayenda Union and Uttar Bedkashi Union had disproportionate number of male and female participants. The main purpose to include disproportionate number of male and female participants in the first two research sites was to explore the issues of social protection programmes, prioritizing male and female dimensions. In the final research site, Burir Char Union had equal number of male and female participants to form a more gender-balanced composition.

Most of the selected beneficiaries were involved in informal economic activities that indicated they did not earn their livelihood from any formal sector jobs. More than one-third of the respondents for the individual interviews were day labour. Besides the day labour, both fishing in the rivers and shrimp fry collection were also common occupation in each research site, as many respondents were located close to the riverside areas and earned their living from rivers. There was only one illiterate respondent. However, the overall literacy of the respondents was still limited within ‘only can write their own name’ stage. Most of participants informed me that their literacy level improved from ‘no literacy to this stage, as they had to enrol in the government’s ‘adult literacy’ programme in order to get access to the social protection programmes (see table 01 for details of the participants along with their location).

Table 01: Details of the beneficiaries of social protection programmes in different research sites

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Types of information</th>
<th>Name of the Research Sites</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Rayenda Union</td>
<td>Uttar Bedkashi Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of the respondents</td>
<td>30-35</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>36-40</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-45</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>46-50</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>51-55</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>56-60</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>61-65</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>65+</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex of the respondents</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>Housewife</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Day labour</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fisherman</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shrimp fry collector</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cobbler</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Umbrella repairer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Service holder</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Beggar</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Masonry worker</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy</td>
<td>Illiterate</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can only sign name</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can read and write</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types of main support schemes</td>
<td>Widowed allowance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Schooling stipend for son/daughter</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rice allowance and Training</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aged allowance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Divorced allowance</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disabled allowance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fishermen allowance</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Fieldwork, 2013 (updated in 2018)
Theoretical Underpinning of Social Protection Programmes: Interpretivist Methodology

Considering the present situation of social protection programmes in Bangladesh, both the coverage in terms of total number of beneficiaries, and the level of supports in terms of amount from the support programmes have increased over time. However, the 2 per cent allocation of the country's GDP to social protection programmes still remains comparatively lower than the other South Asian countries, which is about 5 per cent (Islam, 2010; World Bank, 2006). Considering both the "promotion approach" which is undertaken to raise the incomes and employment opportunities of the poor and the "protection approach" which is undertaken to reduce the vulnerability of the poor, the types of social protection programmes vary over regions (Khuda, 2011). Due to different target groups, the number and focus of the social protection programmes get changed. For example, the percentage of widowed female is remarkably higher than male widowed population, and in many cases, the widowed females have to depend on their family members and relatives for their living. That is why the government is supporting the widowed females through implementing seven female-focused programmes such as widow/destitute women allowance programme, Vulnerable Group Development (VGD) programme, Rural Employment and Road Maintenance Programme (RERMP), Rural Employment Opportunities for Public Assets (REOPA), Secondary Stipend programme, Vulnerable Group Development for Ultra-Poor (VGD-UP), and Maternal Health Voucher Schemes (Hulme, Maitrot, Rango, & Rahman, 2014). Through social protection programmes, the government is mainly targeting to protect the poor from all types of social, economic, and natural shocks (Ministry of Planning, 2009). However, the perception of the benefits from social protection programmes varies over regions and also between the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries (BBS, 2007). Therefore it's important to describe the main objectives of the major social protection programmes along their selection criteria in the context of Bangladesh (see table 02 for details).

Table 02: Major social protection programmes along with the objectives, and selection criteria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Programme Names</th>
<th>Major Objectives of the Programme</th>
<th>Selection Criteria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Food-For-Work Programme and Rural Maintenance Programme</td>
<td>Employment generation for the poor, mainly during lean period through rural infrastructure creation and maintenance</td>
<td>(i) Person who owns not more than 0.50 acre land; (ii) Affected landless person due to river erosion and natural disasters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40/60 Days Employment Generation for Extremely Poor</td>
<td>Enhance employment and purchasing power capacity of extremely poor</td>
<td>(i) Unemployed but willing to work and unskilled poor person including only the day or agricultural labour, who does not have any other opportunity to get employed; (ii) Active person aged between 18 and 60 years; (iii) Landless male or female poor-income people, who do not have pond or livestock to earn income</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vulnerable Group Development</td>
<td>Provide training and financial help for self-employment in income generating activities</td>
<td>(i) Especially provided to female headed households consuming less than two full meals per day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vulnerable Group Feeding</td>
<td>Deliver relief in times of natural disaster and meeting emergency needs</td>
<td>(i) Disaster victims</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gratuitous Relief</td>
<td>Provide relief support immediately after the natural and man-made disasters to only worst affected distressed and poor persons/households</td>
<td>(i) Recipient needs to get an approval from the concerned Member of Parliament/Upazila Chairman/Upazila Nirbahi Officer/Union Council Chairman; (ii) No household would get support unless it is affected by aforementioned disasters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test Relief</td>
<td>Employment generation through rural road maintenance</td>
<td>(i) Person who owns not more than 0.50 acre land; (ii) Affected landless person due to river erosion and natural disasters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old Age Allowance</td>
<td>Provide old age cash allowance to the poor men and women</td>
<td>(i) Recipient must have the age of 65 and above. Age limit is flexible for women, especially after attaining 62 years a woman becomes eligible, but priority will be given to those who are physically infirm; (ii) Recipient must earn below 3,000 BDT annually; (iii) Chronologically priority is given to widow, divorcee, wifeless, spouseless and deserted from family</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Allowance to widowed, deserted and destitute woman
Provide cash to the women in times of distress
(i) Recipient must be the age between 18 to 65 years, but priority is given to senior most widow and husband deserted destitute women; (ii) Priority is given to widow, divorced woman, husband deserted woman; (iii) Priority is given to wealthless, homeless, landless respectively

Allowance to person with disability
Provide cash to person with disability
(i) Recipient must be age of 5 years and above; (ii) Recipient must have registration certificate of disabled person issued by the District Social Services Office

Stipend for Primary Student
Provide cash assistance to encourage poor guardians to send their children to the school instead of engaging them in income generating activities
(i) Poor families are identified based on the following criteria: distressed widow- headed, day-labour, families of low-income rural professional groups (fishermen, weavers, potters, carpenters, cobblers, blacksmiths etc.), families of autistic students, and families of insolvent ethnic communities; (ii) Performance criteria such as results, rate of attendance in classes applies to the students to continue eligibility for the stipend

Maternity Allowance for Poor Lactating Mother
Provide cash to the women in increasing their ability to have balanced, nutritious elements and health check-up
(i) Recipient must be age of minimum 20 years or above; (ii) Monthly income must be less than 1,500 BDT; (iii) Must be the main source of income of a poor family; (iv) member of a landless and asset less family

Sources: (Datta 2014; Hossain & Kappestein 2014; Ministry of Disaster Management and Relief, 2014; The Department of Social Services, 2014; Rahman, Matsui, & Ikemoto, 2013; Social Security Department, 2013; Ahmed, Zohir, Kumar, & Chowdhury, 1995)

This paper undertakes that all the above-mentioned social protection programmes in Bangladesh are social invention. As a result, the boundaries of the different types of social protection programmes such as social provision, social prevention, and social promotion are artificial, which means those things are socially constructed. Social constructivism relies on constructions of something are mental, as with constructivism, but they are generated as much through social relationships and conversation as through interaction with objects (Hepburn, 2006: 39). Therefore, the exploration of meanings and understandings of social protection programmes based on the actual words of different types of beneficiaries may represent different perspectives of social protection programmes. For instance, the meanings and understandings of social protection programmes have manifold effects on different types of beneficiaries such as Vulnerable Group Development (VGD), Old Age Allowance, Disabled Allowance, Stipend for Primary Students, and Widow Allowance.

i) Perspective of the beneficiaries of vulnerable group development (VGD) programme: a major type of social protection

“I have got six members in my family. The income of my husband is not enough to feed my four children. I actually get nineteen 'sher' [equivalent to around twenty four kilogram as 1 sher = 1.25kg] rice under the VGD programme, but I know the union council is supposed to give me thirty-kilogram rice. I have accepted that! What the poor people can do against them. Luckily, I am receiving the support. I can not imagine how I am going to feed my young children without the VGD supported rice. Now, I can buy some vegetables and other cooking stuffs from our earnings. If I would not get that rice support, I have to spend most of our income for rice. VGD is a huge help for my family.”

- Hasna Parvin (pseudonym), Day labour, Rayenda Union, Shrankhola Upazila, Bagerhat

ii) Perspective of the beneficiaries of widow allowance programme: a major type of social protection

“I can easily borrow things from people in my need. People also give me things as they think that I am able to return their money as I have this widowed allowance card. If I don’t have this card, I have to beg sometimes in order to arrange my food. Many many thanks to government for thinking about our helpless situation, giving some supports to widowed women.”

- Jomila Khatun (pseudonym), Shrimp fry collector, Uttar Bedkashi Union, Koyra Upazila, Khulna

iii) Perspective of the beneficiaries of disabled allowance programme: a major type of social protection

“My brother and I do not have any assets or savings as my father did not leave anything for us. My wife looks after my brother. He can not move and can not do anything by himself. It is big mental pressure for my family. My brother is fortunate
that he receives the money from this government. I have to use his allowance for his expenditure. It is not enough but I am happy to get this little help. We are poor. Any kind of small help is a big help for us. We can’t leave his money in the bank for long term. Whenever the money comes to bank, we have to withdraw the money immediately as I have limited income. This allowance is releasing at least a small burden from my shoulder.”

- Aziz Hawlader, (pseudonym) elder brother of the beneficiaries, Day labour, Burir Char Union, Barguna Sadar Upazila, Barguna

The different perspectives of social protection programmes from three different types of beneficiaries show that they construct the meanings and understandings of their social protection programmes in such ways as they engage with their surroundings. Objectivism generally implies that social phenomena and their categories have an independent existence or separate from actors (Bryman, 2012). In contrast to objectivism, what constructionism offers is that there is no true or valid interpretation (Crotty, 1998: 47). Therefore, considering the constructionist viewpoint, the meaning and understanding of social protection programmes cannot be described simply as ‘objective’, which means there is no fixed external reality. Another important issue, constructivism holds the notion that researcher’s own accounts of the social world are constructions (Bryman, 2012: 33). Therefore, in this research, I can only present specific version of the meanings and understandings of social protection programmes in extremely poor households, and that cannot be regarded as the definitive one. I believe that the gathered information from the research sites would be value-laden, and in some extent, would reflect my personal biases in interpreting the social reality. Social reality can be resembled as a function of shared meanings; it is constructed, sustained, and reproduced through social life (Greenwood, 1994: 85). Social reality is a constantly shifting emergent property of individuals’ construction (Bryman, 2012). Guba (1990:17) highlights that constructivists not only reject objectivity but also celebrate subjectivity. However, I prefer not to treat the above three individuals experiences of social protection programmes ‘subjective’. Crotty (1998: 43) makes a clear distinction between ‘subjectivism’ and ‘constructionism’ as researchers tend to create meaning within ‘subjectivism’ while we construct meaning within ‘constructionism’. Here comes the issue of subjectivity, in contrast to objectivity in interpreting the results of research. I consider that the subjective interpretations of the ‘benefits of social protection programmes from three different individuals are useful and fulfilling. In addition, I accept that there is some ‘objective’ meaning of the ‘benefits of social protection programmes’; and, these different meanings emerge from three different beneficiaries’ interaction with the ‘social protection programmes’ and how they receive and utilise the ‘benefits of social protection programmes.’ This holds a position in between ‘objectivity’ and ‘subjectivity’. Considering that I admit there would be many other ways of interpreting the results of this research.

Illustrative Approach of Data Collection: Generating Insider’s Perspectives of Social Protection Programmes

In relation to my constructivism stance, I have tried to construct the narratives of social protection programmes based on the stories of research participants. To get to know their stories, I need to listen to their stories, and interpret those stories at the same time to create a sense of understanding of social protection programmes. In relation to this, what I have tried to do is to collect data and interpret data simultaneously. This joint collection and interpretation have given the opportunity to understand the situation, in particular how social protection programmes affect extremely poor households in southwest coastal areas of Bangladesh.

While conducting interviews with the research participants, I have given particular focus on two issues namely sensitivity towards social protection programmes, and the perspectives and contexts of the information from the research participants. During the interviews, many household heads have explained their experiences about social protection programs from different perspectives such as sometimes they have told their stories from the head of their families; sometimes they have explained their stories as a member of the community. Many of them have discussed their experiences about the government support programmes after cyclone ‘Sidr’ and cyclone ‘Alia’ as well as what is going on at present with social protection programmes. To understand and make sense of their information, I have incorporated the context of information.

At the beginning, their stories did not seem academically contributing to me. Gradually, I realized that their stories were far more diverse than the existing literature. I also realized that their voices are almost absent in relation to our current understandings of social protection programmes. Therefore, I have adopted an open-minded approach to collect data from research sites. I have allowed the respondents to talk freely so that they could be able to share their priorities through their stories. Their stories have given the opportunity what I would need to know from them, and not only what I would like to hear from them. I have tried to gain experiences of social protection programmes from their stories, not the stories that I
was only interested in. As Saldana (2011: 83) describes fieldwork experiences can influence a researcher’s epistemological premises, including value, attitude, and belief systems, if he or she is open to discovery and change. From this understanding, I have explored a clear relation between my research paradigm and data collection methods.

Various aspects of data were collected from numerous sources. I gave particular attention and priority on data collection as effective data gathering and sampling strategies can ensure quality of data for analysis (Bazeley, 2013: 35). In my first research site, Rayenda Union, different lists of publicly available information of the beneficiaries of social protection programmes were collected from Rayenda Union Council office. Those lists of information helped me to generate some insights of the existing situation of the social protection programmes. In one hand, I could completely rely on those lists of information to select the respondents. However, social protection programs contain a wide range of challenges, as Mannan and Ahmed (2012) describe, inappropriate targeting, severe leakage, and corruption issues. Therefore, I could not rely totally on selecting the respondents on the basis of those publicly available lists.

Several approaches had been employed to locate the extremely poor households because there were not easily reachable and didn’t seem to have reliable published information. At first, a brief consultation was conducted with the union council chairman, community members, and non-government organizations’ officials to locate the probable areas to find the extremely poor households. In this regard, a topographic map produced by Local Government Engineering Department (LGED) was used to mark the settlement of the poor communities. In general, the landless poor households often tend to settle on ‘khas land’, which is state-owned land usually located in marginal areas along the coasts and rivers (FAO, 2010). Therefore, along with the marked location of poor communities on map, I made a reconnaissance visit around those ‘khas land’ areas.

Reconnaissance visit, locational analysis on map, community consultations, and the lists of information from Union Councils offered me a greater reliability in selecting sample than random sampling procedure. I adopted a priori but flexible selection criteria to select the respondents for interviewing. Some of these criteria were as such types of social protection programmes, duration of supports, sources of earnings, no. of family members, during of living in the research sites, location of house, and available resources. Those criteria were not strictly maintained as I mainly highlighted how well they were able to communicate with me or how easily I was able to access the information for my research. I have given special attention to deliberately select the worst as well as the best experiences of social protection programmes as it becomes difficult to explore the phenomenon of interest from average experiences because the characteristics of the phenomenon of interest are diluted and mixed in with other characteristics from other experiences (Richards & Morse, 2013: 221).

I have adopted purposeful sampling because it has allowed me to choose research participants in such a way that I was interested in (Silverman & Marvasti, 2008:167). Purposive sampling are able to offer the opportunities to select the participants that they are familiar with the required information, are willing to reflect on the phenomena of interest, and are interest to participate and spend their time (Spradley, 1979). In addition, research participants were selected in such ways so that they would lead me to understand, to assert, perhaps even to modify information for generalizations (Stake, 1995:4). I selected my research participants with the above-mentioned foremost criteria to maximise my learning about social protection programmes.

This was necessary to sample several sub-sites in order to obtain a more complete picture of the research domain. However, an additional complication arises if there are several sub-sites essential to a proper understanding of what is going on (Layder, 2013:118). Research sub-sites were selected in such ways that could establish the representativeness of social protection programmes in southwest coastal areas of Bangladesh. Those three Unions of southwest coastal Bangladesh were selected on the basis that they were able to make sense of the research problem and questions. The selection of research sub-sites held the ideas of ‘problem sampling’, which provides data of maximum relevance to the focus and questions of research (Layder, 2013: 121). Problem sampling holds a much looser and more general theoretical role to play, and offers the possibility of conceptual and analytic discovery (Layder, 2013: 121; Daniel, 2011).

At least one research participant was selected from the four broadly classified types of social protection programmes included food support programmes such as Vulnerable Group Development (VGD), Vulnerable Group Feeding (VGF), Gratuity Relief (GR), and Test Relief (TR); cash allowance such as widow allowance, destitute woman allowance, schooling stipend, aged allowance, and handicap allowance; microcredit programmes such as loan programs for extremely poor people with minimum interest; and training and education programmes such as disaster preparedness training, adult education program, and health and hygiene practice training (Ministry of Planning, 2014). Kvale (1996:102) emphasises...
that in qualitative interview studies, the number of sample size necessary depends on a study’s purpose, and that can be either too small or too large in number. Therefore, I conducted eight interviews from each research site. From Rayenda Union, I collected a descriptive understanding of social protection programmes from the research participants. As the fieldworks continued to the second research site, in particular Uttar Bedkashi Union, I collected both descriptive and analytic information. In my final research site, Burir Char Union, I collected more analytic information than the descriptive one (see figure 02 for the details of data collection and analysis process). The main intention was to generate a comprehensive understanding of social protection programmes in southwest coastal areas of Bangladesh.

![Descriptive vs Analytic Data Collection](image)

Figure 02: Stages of data collection and data analysis. Source: Author generated from the conceptual understanding of the works of Rahman & Zaman, 2017

As I must collect consent from all of my participants, I have used self-selection process rather than statistical randomization in this research. Therefore, true randomness would be prohibitive in an in-depth interview study (Seidman, 2006:51). I have not persuaded anyone to participate in this interview for his or her benefit. Some key issues like participants’ interests, availability of their time, and reflections of social protection programmes have played important role during the participant-selection process. I have conducted all interviews in ‘natural settings’ that means conducting interviews at participant’s place of residence or work (Denzin & Lincoln 2005:3; Becker, 1986). Therefore, sometimes I faced some difficulties from the other family members of extremely poor households who were enthusiastically participating with the main interviewee.

In some situations, this extra information about social protection programmes from other family members of the households helped me. In some situations, spontaneous participation from the other family members made the situations little bit complex, and interviewees were dominated by the outsider’s information. In that case, I waited without offending anyone until my interviewees felt comfortable again to talk. I then asked the main interviewee for his or her opinion about the presence of other family members. If he or she remained comfortable to continue the interview in presence of other family members, I continued the data collection.

Both note taking and audio recording were used during interviews to establish greater trustworthiness, and conformability in interpretation (Denzin & Lincoln 2005: 24). Researchers generally transform the spoken words from interviews into a written text to study, and audio-recoded interviews can work most reliably with the words of participants (Seidman, 2006: 114). The audio-recording device (Sony ICDUX533FB Notetaker) was placed visibly during the interviews, in particular in front of the interviewee. Due to the small size of the audio-recording device, it did not take much attention of the participants. In many situations, I realised that participants were not getting critical enough about the sensitive issues like corruption, bribery, and political influences while talking about the social protection programmes. I got the impression from them that this could be related with the use of audio-recorder device. Warren (2002: 92) highlights that many researchers have experienced the “on and off the record” associations during conducting qualitative interviews. In that situation, I completely stopped the audio-recorder, and asked them to talk freely as there would be no recorded information. I gave much emphasis on taking notes in that circumstance. In addition, I explained again that aliases and pseudonyms would be used to protect the identities during data transcription, data analysis, and dissemination of research findings. The explicit confirmations from me about the unidentified source of information made them comfortable and open to discuss about the ‘underlying issues’ of social protection programmes.

Kvale (2007:35) suggests seven stages of an interview inquiry wherein he particularly highlights the conduction of interviews based on an interview guide with a reflective approach to generate knowledge. All interviews were conducted with interview guide. I used mostly open questions because it allowed the respondents to express themselves in their own words, not any suggested answers (Gillham, 2000; Foddy, 1993: 128). In order to draw out the most complete story about various subjects or situations under investigation, I included four types of questions while I developed the interview guide for
individual interviews with extremely poor household heads. The four types of questions were categorised as throwaway questions, essential questions, extra questions, and probing questions (Berg, 2001:75). Before asking any throwaway questions, I explained in details about this research to the research participants. For example, I clearly mentioned that I was interested in the issues of social protection programmes, in particular about the supports they were getting from the governments and non-government organisations. In addition, I admitted that being a stranger or an outsider in their locality, this would be impossible for me to know what was going on about their supports without detailed explanations from them. My strong naivety about the local politics and surroundings made the research participants relax, and in some cases made them fearless to talk about corruption and leakage issues of social protection programmes. All the interviews were conducted with a flexible time frame such as 9am, 3pm, or even 8:30pm. The respondents were asked to provide suitable time so that they would be able to spend sufficient time for the interviews. At the time of initial contact, I have given some hints to the potentials research participants about the topics that I was particular interested in. The interviews with the beneficiaries of social protection programmes were conducted in easily accessible place, mostly in their front rooms of their houses. Small monetary incentives were offered to the extremely poor households heads for participating in interviews. Each research participant received 200 Bangladeshi Taka (approximately US$2.5), which was above the average daily wages of agricultural workers in rural areas of Bangladesh (BBS, 2011). This small monetary incentive was given to compensate their time and also to acknowledge their participation in this research.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this paper accepts the issues of subjectivity in exploring the meaning and understanding of social protection programmes in southwest coastal areas of Bangladesh through interpretive methodology as social protection is a concept constructed by the society which means different things to different beneficiaries. Considering the variety of supports ranging from asset transfer to cash allowance provided by the government of Bangladesh, social protection concept holds the nature of subjectivity within the definition of social protection. This paper intends to create a new sense of understanding of social protection programmes through approaching the beneficiaries keeping their sensitivities as well as listening to their stories on the aspects of what they are getting, how they are getting, and finally, when they are using the benefits of social protection programmes. This paper argues that the stages from ‘availability of social protection programmes’ to utilisation of social protection programmes’ are not straightforward and unidirectional. This paper also recognises that there exists complex social relationship in every aspects of social protection programmes ranging from the selection process to delivery of social protection programmes. Therefore, it demands a new methodology namely interpretive methodology with embedded case units that can explore the meaning and understanding of social protection programmes considering the complex societal relationship as well as social class conflict, especially between the beneficiaries of social protection programmes and the local politicians.

References


Universal Standards for Developing Curricula for Migrant Children: A Model from Beijing

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Abstract

As rapid urbanization and development push and pull migrant communities into the world’s cities, we find a growing population of migrant children whose educational needs are complex, inconsistent between individuals, and evolving. For educators who develop curriculum for migrant children, the challenge of balancing migrant children’s needs persists; there is a need for a clear curricular framework for which skills are most useful to migrant children. Such a tool benefits any educator tasked with planning an academic curriculum for migrant children, whether a volunteer at a remote NPO or a public school teacher whose school’s demographics are changing. This paper is presented in three parts. The first is a condensation of recommendations from scholars of curriculum development, economists, and government agencies made to improve the education of migrant children at the curricular level. Part two, drawing from the conclusions drawn above, provides a curricular framework of scaffolded objectives based on non-cognitive skills related to discourse community development, critical thinking, and self-reinforcing motivation towards both learning and agency. The Migrant Children Curricular Standards (MCCS) are designed to help those who write curriculum for migrant populations, no matter their academic discipline, in order to suit the needs of migrant students. Part three demonstrates the usefulness of MCCS using the model of Beijing’s largest NGO for migrant children, the Migrant Children’s Foundation (MCF). MCF’s English as a second language curriculum as an exemplar of how MCCS can help guide educators globally toward the end of effectively educating migrant children.

Keywords: migrant children, curriculum development, theory into practice, constructivism, equity, integration, China