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Humanities Today: Proceedings (HTPR) is a multidisciplinary, open-access, peer-reviewed journal dedicated to recent research and studies in the field Humanities. HTPR welcomes and acknowledges recent, high-quality theoretical and empirical original research papers in the areas of Humanities, case studies, review articles, literature reviews, book reviews, conceptual frameworks, analytical and simulation models, surveys, direct observations, person-based experiments, case studies, and systematic reviews from researchers, academicians, professional and practitioners from all over the World.

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Rethinking the Dworkinian Forward-Looking Approach: is Affirmative Action Compatible with Fairness?

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Abstract

Whether Affirmative Action is a proper way to accomplish social justice in terms of fairness has been an ongoing debate in the United States. Late philosopher Ronald Dworkin was a vocal supporter of Category 4 Affirmative Action, in which preferential treatments for minorities is justified. Dworkin emphasized a forward-looking approach as a means to achieve social justice and overall fairness. In his view, it is not sufficient for black applicants to enjoy preferential treatment now just because in the past their ancestors suffered due to slavery. Rather, a successful argument for affirmative action programs must include a forward-looking justification. To be specific, this policy promises a better educational environment in terms of diversity and promotes a less racially conscious society for all citizens. Additionally, Dworkin often cited the study entitled *The Shape of the River* to substantiate his claim that special treatment for minorities could amend social injustice and produce fairer outcomes. This article attempts to evaluate this Dworkinian theory on both the principle and practical levels. It concluded that while a neutral or non-interventional policy is insufficient to achieve racial equality, interventions in terms of special treatments and soft quotas are not yet shown to be fair in practice.

Keywords: Action, Affirmative, Compatible, Fairness.

Introduction

Whether affirmative action is a proper way to accomplish social justice in terms of fairness has been an ongoing debate in the United States. Late philosopher Ronald Dworkin (1931-2013) was a vocal supporter of affirmative action and his contribution to this field is well-recognized. Atman (2001) highlighted the importance of the Dworkinian theory as follows: “Ronald Dworkin’s writing on affirmative action has been among the best of the work that liberal jurisprudence has had to offer on matters of race in the years since the end of the Civil Rights Movement in the United States” (p. 241). Although there is no direct and explicit evidence that

the Dworkinian theory had been adopted by the US public authorities, and Dworkin was critical of some opinions of the US Supreme Court justices, the widespread endorsement of affirmative action policies by the Supreme Court is compatible with Dworkin's narrative (Sabbagh, 2011).

For example, in June 2003 the US Supreme Court determined by a 5-4 split on the case of *Grutter vs. Bollinger* regarding the University of Michigan Law School that the consideration of race in university admissions is not contradicted by the Equal Protection Clause of the 14th Amendment to the Constitution. Justice Sandra Day O'Connor wrote in her opinion "today we endorse Justice Powell's view that student body diversity is a compelling state interest that can justify the use of race in university admissions" (Legal Information Institute, 2003, section A, para. 8). This is a view that is consistent with Dworkin's and, despite some disagreement in the reasoning, supported by Dworkin (1985, 2000). Specifically, the Supreme Court asserts that affirmative action is acceptable if race is only one of many factors for consideration by university admissions to achieve diversity. This decision reflects two major trends of conceptualization of affirmative action in recent years. First, the race factor in admissions is justified by the rationale that it is only one of several factors. Second, the focus of affirmative action programs has been shifted from reparation to diversity. Actually, the US Supreme Court's decision could be viewed as an actualization of the Dworkinian theory. Given the importance of the Dworkinian theory, it is imperative to evaluate the efficacy of this theory through a multi-disciplinary lens.

What Are Affirmative Action Programs?

Different people might conceptualize and implement affirmative action programs differently. The discussion would not be fruitful without a precise definition of an affirmative action program. According to Taylor (2009), an affirmative action program is a spectrum consisting of at least five categories:

Category 1. Formal equality of opportunity: In this approach, an affirmative action program aims to implement a neutral policy to ensure that opportunities are open to everyone regardless of race, gender, religion, or any demographic attribute. This is the original intent of affirmative action advocated by President Kennedy in 1961. Executive Order 10925 signed by President Kennedy states that "it is the plain and positive obligation of the United States Government to promote and ensure equal opportunity for all qualified persons, without regard to race, creed, color, or national origin, employed or seeking employment with the Federal Government and on government contracts" (Kennedy, 1961, para. 2).

Category 2. Aggressive formal equality of opportunity: Instead of neutrality and non-intervention, supporters of Category 2 would aggressively use sensitivity training, external monitoring, and outreach efforts to achieve a fair outcome in admission and employment. For example, the Office of Civil Engagement at the University of Chicago

developed a plethora of programs for minority middle school and high school students to learn science, such as the Young Scientist Program and Space Explorers (University of Chicago, 2017).

Category 3. Compensating support: In this approach, special training programs, financial support, mentoring, or tutoring are provided to minorities to compensate for their disadvantages. Executive Order 11625 signed by President Nixon in 1971 is a good example. Under this law, the Federal Government is obligated to provide minorities with additional technical and management assistance to disadvantaged businesses, and to assist in demonstration projects. It is mandatory for the Secretary of Commerce to “establish a center for the development, collection, summarization, and dissemination of information that will be helpful to persons and organizations throughout the Nation in undertaking or promoting the establishment and successful operation of minority business enterprise” (Nixon, 1971, para. 5).

Category 4. Soft quotas: In this method, “bonus points” are added to the selection indices of minorities in admission and employment while no explicit quota is set. It is important to point out that very often explicit point-adding is forbidden. In 2003, the US Supreme Court struck down the proposed admission policy of the University of Michigan, where 20 points out of 100 were added to minority applicants. Nonetheless, sometimes the soft-quota approach is allowed in an implicit way. For example, in 1997 the University of Texas, Austin adopted a new admissions policy that gives more weight to the essay for non-top 10-percent applicants. This admission criterion is based on how well the candidate could overcome adversity, and also takes into account the special circumstance that might affect the candidate’s test score and GPA. As a result, the freshman enrollment of minorities surged significantly (Sabbagh, 2011). This policy was challenged by Fisher, a white applicant who was turned down by the university in 2008 (Fisher vs. University of Texas, No. 14-981). After a long legal process, the Supreme Court decided to side with UT, Austin (Liptak, 2016).

Category 5. Hard quotas: As the name implies, this approach aims to achieve a proportional representation of the population by gender and racial composition in the student body and the work force. Today, this category is unacceptable because in *Regents of University of California vs. Bakke* (1978), the Supreme Court ruled that a university's use of hard quotas in the admission process is unconstitutional (Justia, 2016).

It is the authors’ belief that a neutral, non-inference policy as described in Category 1 is incapable of accomplishing social justice. Due to past and current discrimination, many minorities involuntarily inherit certain social stigmas and disadvantages which do not level the playing field. As Boddie (2016) stated, “The very rawness and extent of these [racial] injustices are too disturbing to bear: videos of police killing unarmed African-Americans; reports by the Department of Justice documenting law enforcement’s excessive force against, and harassment of African Americans in Baltimore and Ferguson; xenophobic targeting of American Muslims and Mexican

Americans by a presidential candidate” (pp. 38-39). In addition, the White Nationalist rally in Charlottesville, Virginia in August 2017 indicates that racism is still alive in America. Therefore, Boddie rightly questioned whether colorblindness is an appropriate response to racial problems. The authors strongly support Categories 2 and 3 interventions as a remedy, and there is no sign that these types of interventions face any widespread rejection or resistance. As previously mentioned, Category 5 had been outlawed, and therefore the remaining controversy concerns Category 4.

The Dworkinian Theory

To fully understand and appreciate Dworkin’s theory, we need to track the development of his thoughts from Dworkin (1985) to Dworkin (2000). In the *Bakke* case, four Justices – Chief Justice Burger, and Justices Stewart, Rehnquist, and Stevens – held that the case had an independent case on the grounds of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, a position that Dworkin (1985) criticized. Then, of the five Justices–Brennan, White, Marshall, Blackmun and Powell—who considered whether it was constitutional, Justice Powell held that Bakke had a case and others held otherwise. Eventually, Bakke won because a majority of the Justices believed he had a case on some grounds “even though they disagreed on which” (Dworkin, 1985, p. 305).

Part of Justice Powell’s opinion is that universities and colleges may still take race into account as one factor among others. However, regarding the other part, unfortunately the medical school at University of California, Davis, failed on this account by adopting a policy of hard quotas. This immediately became popular among admission offices of universities and colleges because it did not rule out all sorts of affirmative action programs, and it explicitly pointed to the Harvard undergraduate admissions program as a constitutional practice (Dworkin, 1985). Despite the favorable use of this opinion to license certain forms of affirmative action programs, Dworkin disagreed with Powell, claiming that that is not “sufficiently strong in principle to furnish the basis for a coherent and lasting constitutional law of affirmative action” (Dworkin, 1985, p. 314).

Let us take a closer look at Justice Powell’s opinion. He held that the racial classifications used in any affirmative action programs are “suspect” classifications which the US Supreme Court should subject to “strict scrutiny,” where it is necessary for the defendant to show that there is a compelling governmental interest in the program. Consequently, simply showing that an affirmative action program conceivably may serve the social goal of combating racial discrimination, which involves what is called a “benign racial classification,” is not sufficient to pass the strict scrutiny. All affirmative action programs, including that of the medical school of the University of California, Davis, are subject to strict scrutiny, and they would not pass the test because it is “subjective” and “standardless” to determine whether a classification carries “stigma” (Dworkin, 1985, p. 312). However, Dworkin criticized Powell as being inconsistent. Whereas Powell declared the program at the University of California as unconstitutional, he praised the Harvard program as constitutional,

even though the latter involved exactly the same “subjective” and “standardless” judgments (Dworkin, 1985).

The idea of stigma leads us to a very important and fundamental insight into Dworkin’s view of affirmative action programs. Even though some people believe Bakke is being discriminated against and therefore should be protected by the Civil Rights Act or the Fourteenth Amendment’s guarantee of equal protection under the law, Dworkin did not believe the kind of discrimination that Bakke receives is commensurate or symmetrical with what the blacks and other minorities receive because only the latter involves social stigma. As Dworkin put it, Bakke was not “kept out because his race is the object of prejudice or contempt,” but only cases of blacks or other minorities are “distinguished by the special character of public insult” (Dworkin, 1985, p. 301). Years later, Dworkin (2000) repeated this fundamental insight and declared this kind of public insult does not “merely close off to [the victims] one or another opportunity open to others,” but it is so destructive to its victims’ lives such that it “injures them in almost all the prospects and hopes they might conceive” (Dworkin, 2000, p. 407). We may reasonably conclude that, to Dworkin, this fundamental asymmetry is the underlying reason why there are significant differences between malign discrimination (e.g., against blacks) and benign discrimination (e.g., against Bakke), or why it is still fair to have Category 4 affirmative action programs even when some whites lose their places at universities.

It should be noted that, if the Supreme Court had not outlawed hard quotas, Dworkin might have supported it more explicitly. While he acknowledges the conceptual differences between hard quotas and taking race as a factor into consideration, i.e., the difference between Categories 4 and 5, he believes the differences are merely administrative and symbolic. In effect, the admissions consideration and process under either one of the concepts will be very similar (Dworkin, 1985).

The above ideas are his early thoughts in Dworkin (1985). In Dworkin (2000), his position has shifted a bit, or we may say developed further. We saw that his fundamental insight about the asymmetry of discrimination remains the same. What is new in Dworkin (2000) is his attempt to incorporate the study of “The Shape of the River” (*River Study*), and his more explicit defense of the fairness of affirmative action programs regarding the Fourteenth Amendment’s guarantee of equal protection under the law. As Dworkin (2000) said, these are “two main strands of that debate” (p. 389), empirical and normative. We will defer the discussion of the empirical studies to the next section. Now, let us examine Dworkin’s discussion of the normative forward-looking argument.

It is important to note first that Dworkin, who has famously coined the metaphor that rights trump utilities (Dworkin 1984), is certainly not going to be content with a position that affirmative action is effective and therefore it does not matter whether affirmative action violates some people’s rights. That is why, after he favorably presented the *River Study*, which he sincerely believed to be powerful, empirical

proof, he must take up the burden to argue further that it is fair nonetheless. As he said, “Still, if affirmative action is unfair, because it violates the rights of white and other candidates who are refused places or of the few blacks who feel insulted, then it would be improper even if it does make the nation better off” (Dworkin, 2000, p. 401).

Dworkin’s argument that affirmative action is fair consists of two steps. The first step is the basis of qualification. The bases of qualification in different competitions or selections are not the same. Some are a matter of “backward-looking achievement” or “natural property,” while some are a matter of “forward-looking promise.” He used beauty contests as an example and said that the winner is chosen on the basis of her natural property that she has. However, he goes on to say that we do not choose a doctor as a tribute to his or her skill or to reward the doctor for past cures. We choose the doctor whom we expect to do best for us in the future, and we take the doctor’s innate talent or past achievements into account only because so far these are good indicators of the doctor’s value to us in the future (Dworkin, 2000).

The second step is the mission of a university or college. Unlike private corporations, these higher education institutions have the public responsibilities of envisioning what the community should be like and how it could be benefited. For the students to be better equipped for commercial and professional life, and “better prepared to act as good citizens in a pluralistic democracy,” the institutions usually assume that the students need to have “worked and played with classmates of different geographical background, economic class, religion, culture, and – above all, now – race” (Dworkin, 2000, p. 403). In more contemporary language, this is the idea of integration (e.g., Anderson 2010).

In the context of justifying affirmative action programs, the forward-looking argument focuses on how to build a better future for society, whereas the backward-looking argument focuses on punishing the contemporary whites to compensate for the past injustice done to the blacks. According to Dworkin, however, the backward-looking argument is inferior because it does not make much sense to think that one race “owes” another compensation (Dworkin 2000). The forward-looking argument is more convincing. When the higher education institutions have this kind of diversity vision for the community, it makes sense for them to select candidates with the best forward-looking qualifications, which suggests that affirmative action programs are fair.

However, there are two objections. First, there are many ways to achieve diversity and integration on campus. Why should we choose affirmative action for blacks? Second, what if a community has a law firm that does not welcome blacks? To better serve that community, shouldn’t there be an affirmative action to select more whites? Dworkin’s answer to both questions is basically the same: “The worst of the stereotypes, suspicions, fears, and hatreds that still poison America are coded by color, not by class or culture” (Dworkin 2000, p. 403). And that color is black. Again,

this goes back to the aforementioned fundamental insight about the asymmetry of discrimination – only the blacks carry the social stigma and public insult which could easily “injure them in almost all the prospects and hopes they might conceive” (Dworkin, 2000, p. 407). Therefore, the correct path to achieve a diversified and integrated community is primarily to lift the curse on blacks.

What can we make of the similarities and differences between Dworkin (1985) and Dworkin (2000)? It is obvious that Dworkin (1985) did not explicitly present any forward-looking argument. Dworkin’s concern there seems to be centered on helping the blacks, which could come with a compensatory tone. However, we do not think that Dworkin has changed his view. He is simply developing his view into a more sophisticated version. The focus on helping the blacks does not have to be compensatory, or backward-looking. It is still consistent with a forward-looking argument because the forward-looking argument still has to take into consideration what happened in the past in order to decide what actions are appropriate and fair to build a better future of diversity and integration. And we should not overlook that the fundamental insight of asymmetry of discrimination remains the same, playing important roles in the arguments.

Dworkin is inclined to support Category 4. In Dworkin’s (1985, 1986, 2000) view, the equal protection under the law does not literally mean that the government cannot make special laws for disadvantaged groups. In contrast, equal protection is also applied to protecting minorities. The equal protection clause is violated when some group’s loss results from its special vulnerability to prejudice, hostility, or stereotype. Each person receives only a guarantee of being treated with equal respect, but to achieve this goal sometimes requires special treatment. To be specific, this policy promises a better educational environment in terms of diversity and promotes a less racially stratified society for all citizens. Racism has harmed all members of society, and fostering opportunities for different races to study and work together is considered an effective remedy. Further, universities should not admit applicants for past achievements only. Instead, they have a responsibility to choose promising students who will contribute to the institution’s educational, academic and social goals. If a race-based policy can offer a better education to everyone in a racially diverse setting, then this judgment is no more unfair to anyone than its judgment that it can do better with a geographically diverse class or with athletes as well as scholars.

Dworkin heavily cited “The Shape of the River” conducted by Bowen and Bok (1998) in attempting to substantiate his claim. It is important to note that in Glazer’s view (1999), the arguments provided by the *River Study* for the affirmative action program involve practical consequences rather than principles. While citing the study’s statistical analysis, it seems that Dworkin tried to shift the focus of the arguments from the practical level to the principle level. Nonetheless, it is important to point out that for Dworkin the legitimacy and fairness of a legal interpretation is established through “testing” its “fit” against the practical aspect of the law. Dworkin’s method is

based on a factual-historical analysis, rather than an ontological argument (Anderson, 1999). It is difficult, if not impossible, to distinguish the principle level from the practical level. Specifically, for Dworkin the concept of fairness is built on claims of improving the general interests of the community resulting from implementing the affirmative action program. To examine whether affirmative action in principle is fair or not, it is essential to evaluate the statistical results and interpretation of the *River Study*. In the following analysis, we will approach this issue on both the principle and empirical levels.

The Diversity and The General Interest Arguments

Dworkin (1985) pointed out that the US “will continue to be pervaded by racial division as long as the most lucrative, satisfying, and important careers remain mainly the prerogative of members of the white race” (p. 294). As a remedy, Dworkin (2000) argued that by increasing the number of blacks on campus, affirmative action enriches the educational opportunities of other students, including whites. A diversified learning environment will better prepare all students to function in a pluralistic society. Even though the policy may seem to be unfair to certain applicants in the short run, it increases the general interests of society in the long run. However, his argument developed back in 1985 and 2000 seems outdated because today the American pluralistic society is not composed only of blacks and whites. For several decades, America has attracted a large number of immigrants from all over the world. Today, it is more likely that a white college graduate would work with people from a wide diversity of countries and ethnic groups. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2013), in 2012 16.1% of the US labor force is foreign-born. Moreover, in the age of globalization, American companies have been increasing the level of interaction with people in other nations. If racial and cultural diversity is useful in building a richer learning environment where cultural awareness is taught, then increasing the number of immigrants and international students should also be considered an important goal because it could further broaden a student’s cultural horizons.

Dworkin (2000) insisted that officials could make decisions to “benefit some citizens and disadvantage others,” and the decisions “are in the general interest of the community as a whole” (p. 411). By the same token, universities and colleges “must choose goals to benefit a much wider community than their own faculty and students” (p. 402). However, even if the involuntary sacrifice of a small number of white and Asian applicants could improve the overall welfare of a wider community, it is still unfair to deprive some individuals of their rights to serve the “general interest” of a community. By examining university admission data, Espenshade and Radford (2009) found that Asian-Americans needed an average SAT score of 1550 to be accepted at a top private university, while whites needed an average score of 1410 and African Americans needed an average score of 1100. In the utilitarian view, it may be justified to make a small number of people unhappy in order to maximize the

overall happiness of the majority. Nonetheless, even if one takes a utilitarian approach to justify this policy (an approach that Dworkin would not accept, as we explained in the previous section), the consequence may still not be what one expects. While the *River Study* made many counterfactual calculations of how blacks might be worse off if rejected by selective institutions, do we realize the potential consequence to society when qualified whites and Asians are rejected by top universities? Who could know how many Nobel Prize winners or innovators America has lost as a result of rejecting more qualified candidates? There is no evidence that the sacrifice of a small number of people will contribute to a better society.

In contrast, there is evidence that race-based admissions and hiring policies would harm the society as a whole. Take Malaysia as an example. Malaysia is a racially-diverse country, which is composed of Malays, Indians, Chinese people, and other minorities, including Orang Asli (Aborigines of Peninsular Malaysia), Eurasians, and the indigenous groups of Ibans, Kadazan, Dusuns, Bidayuhs, and Murut. Malays are the ruling majority while the Indian and Chinese people are significantly smaller minorities in terms of number. Indians and Chinese people outperform Malays in both academic and economic achievements. To empower the Malay group, the government implements its own version of “affirmative action,” setting different admissions and hiring standards for different ethnic groups. As a result, many talented people lost the opportunity to actualize their potential. In 1965, a group of Chinese separated themselves from Malaysia to form an independent country—Singapore. Singapore adopted a racially-neutral policy in virtually all aspects of their society. Within a decade, Singapore became one of the “four tigers” in Asia. In terms of area and population, Singapore is a much smaller country than Malaysia. The size of Singapore is only 263 square miles and the population is about 4 million, whereas Malaysia covers 127,316 square miles of land and has a population of 23 million. Despite this disparity, Singapore’s sophisticated manufacturing infrastructure and technological advancements have made her a regional giant. In 2016, the GDP of Singapore was almost US\$297 billion while the per capita GNP approached US\$52,600. In contrast, the 2016 GDP of Malaysia was almost US\$275 billion and the per capita GNP was only \$US11,028 (Trading Economics, 2017). Therefore, we do not need a counterfactual argument or a thought experiment; the comparison between Malaysia and Singapore illustrates that depriving a small number of people their rights and suppressing their talents makes a worse, not a better society. Candidly, Malaysia has been hurt by her own policy. Should a policy be considered fair if the so-called overall fairness in terms of total welfare of a wider community is not achieved?

The *River Study* made a counterfactual but unconvincing calculation of the damage to whites and Asians under the affirmative action program. Bowen and Bok (1998) pointed out that even if race-sensitive admission policies were abolished, the number of white and Asian applicants in top institutions would not increase significantly. Among thousands of white and Asian applicants who believed the policy would affect their admission, in reality only a few were denied due to the policy. However, no

matter how minimal the impact of the policy is on whites and Asians, this argument does not successfully defend the “fairness” or explain the “unfairness” of the policy. In the 1980s, the US and Japan clashed over trade policies. The former embraced full access to the free market, while the latter endorsed protectionism. One argument used by the Japanese was: The lost market share that Americans complained about was insignificant. Even if all trade barriers were removed, it would not have reversed the trend of the trade imbalance. By the same token, no matter how minor the impact of trade barriers is on American companies, it does not change the fact that trade barriers are unfair. In short, using “insignificance” as an argument does not defend fairness.

Bowen and Bok (1998) asserted that without the race-sensitive admission policy some blacks could not have been admitted to selective universities such as Harvard. As a result, counterfactually speaking, those universities would not have been culturally diverse and those blacks would not have led successful lives. There are two problems with this argument. First, if those black applicants were rejected by selective universities, they could have been admitted to less selective universities. Don't less competitive universities also need a diversified environment? One of the goals of equality is to help those who are disadvantaged. When less prestigious colleges are in a disadvantageous position compared to top universities, doesn't it make sense for these schools to increase their diversity to enhance the learning environment and educational opportunities? In 1996, the State of California passed Proposition 209, which prohibited public institutions from using race-based admission policies. Although the black and Hispanic enrollment was reduced at the most prestigious University of California campuses (-42% at UC Berkley; -37% at UCLA), other less competitive UC campuses increased their black and Hispanic enrollment (+22% at UC Irvine, +18% at UC Santa Cruz; +65% at UC Riverside) (Sander & Taylor, 2012). Basically, overall diversity of more UC campuses improved as a result of Proposition 209.

Second, Dworkin defined true equality in terms of the resources that each person commands, not in the success he or she achieves. Why is it important for minorities to attend top universities if career success, earning power, social status, etc. are not the objectives of equality? Do less prestigious colleges also provide sufficient learning resources for minorities to lead successful lives in a non-materialistic sense? Dworkin (2000) emphasized that without affirmative action, “scarcely any Black students will be admitted to the best law and medical schools. That would be a huge defeat for racial harmony and justice” (p. 410). Why is it necessary to achieve racial harmony and justice by providing resources in the best law and medical schools? The authors of this article didn't graduate from Yale or Harvard, but we never complain.

The Forward-Looking Argument

Dworkin emphasized that his approach concerning affirmative action is forward-looking; the admission policy should not solely focus on the past achievements of candidates. In Dworkin's view, we have to take the potential and the future outlook of the candidates into consideration. This argument seems confusing. We forecast the future based on past data. It is common to predict an individual's future based on his/her past performance. As a matter of fact, although selective universities take many factors into consideration during the admissions process, the single-most important one is the likelihood of success in the school's academic program. It is generally agreed that SAT scores and high school grades are good predictors of college performance. But SAT scores and high school grades over-predict the performance of blacks in college (Sandalow & Bowen, 2003). In other words, past achievements in terms of test scores suggests that blacks with lower scores are not promising students. It is not clear what other specific criteria Dworkin employed to justify his forward-looking admission approach.

Perhaps contribution to the community is one of the forward-looking criteria. Nonetheless, it is unclear how the admissions board could judge whether an applicant would be a community leader after graduation. Although the *River Study* mentioned that blacks who graduated from selective universities tend to take leadership roles or participate in community activities, it is not clear whether the active community involvement is concentrated in organizations whose activities primarily affect other relatively privileged blacks or if they also participated in community activities which can help disadvantaged blacks (Sandalow & Bowen, 2003). More importantly, even though black professionals provide leadership in the community, and even in the political arena, it does not guarantee that the overall well-being of disadvantaged blacks could be promoted. Sowell (1999) pointed out that Asian-Americans have no leader of their own like Jesse Jackson, who speaks for blacks, but they seem to do better than those who have political leaders.

Evaluation of Empirical Merits of the *River Study*

Next, we will examine the validity of Dworkin's arguments and the *River Study* on the empirical level. According to Epstein (1999), the *River Study* omitted some highly selective universities such as Harvard and the University of Chicago, as well as most major state universities, including those in the California and Texas educational systems. Similarly, Trow (1999) also questioned the generalizability of the *River Study* by arguing that Bowen and Bok highlighted only a small number of successful black graduates, but failed to prove that these benefits would not be undone by larger harms for higher education and society as a whole. Sowell (1999) also criticized that the sample used in the *River Study* is not representative. For example, at Berkeley, the graduation rate of blacks is about 30 percent, but Berkeley is not included in the *River Study*. Further, although Bowen and Bok asserted that one of the important measures of success in college is the graduation rate and the high graduation rate among blacks

means that racial preference does not lead to the admission of unqualified students, we should be cautious because they did not partition the dataset into race-neutrally admitted blacks and specially admitted ones. Instead, their discussion of the graduation rate included all black students.

In addition, although the *River Study* seems to be supported by a sea of statistical figures, the meaning of these numbers is subject to the analysis and interpretation of the researchers. In other words, one may call a glass filled with 50 percent water “half-full” or “half-empty.” It is important to note that a large portion of data are soft opinions regarding perceived experience and satisfaction, but Bowen and Bok treated them as hard data. While enhancing diversity plays a central role of their support for preferential admission, Bowen and Bok didn’t cite survey responses to support this assertion. Therefore, Orleans (1999) questioned its validity noting, “The book seems less an objective report of an empirical inquiry than an advocate’s well-researched brief for preferential admission” (p. 187).

The *River Study* pointed out that black students earn grades that typically place them at the twenty-third percentile of their class. Neither Dworkin nor Bowen/Bok addressed the problem of lower performance. Instead they gave optimistic generalizations and praised their achievements as impressive. Based on different empirical data, Sander (2005) found the otherwise. Sander argued that although during the past 30 years American law schools has been implementing race-based affirmative action with the noble intention to help African-American law students, this policy actually is detrimental to the group. Sander found that on the average black law students admitted through preferences have low grades. It is not because of any racial characteristic, but because the preferences themselves put them at an enormous academic disadvantage. The median black student starting law school in 1991 received first-year grades equivalent to a white student at the 7th or 8th percentile. Further, this poorer performance substantially hinders black students from graduation and certification. Only 45 percent of black law students in the 1991 group completed law school and passed the bar on their first attempt. Sander counterfactually argued that without preferential admissions, this rate would have risen to 74 percent. A few years later in 2012, Sander and Taylor followed up this study with additional data. They found that at the UCLA Law School only 50 percent of black students and 70 percent of Hispanic students were able to pass the bar exam, compared with 90 percent of white students. However, the pass rate of black students who attended other law schools is between 75 percent and 80 percent while the pass rate of Hispanic students ranges from 80 to 85 percent. Sander and Taylor concluded that the race-based admission policy at the UCLA Law School unintentionally created a “mismatch” problem: black and Hispanic students were placed into a competitive environment that they were under-prepared for, and consequently the affirmative action program harmed the students that it is intended to help.

Sander and Taylor (2012) went beyond law school data by comparing overall UC data before and after Proposition 209. Proposition 209 encountered very strong resistance because people were afraid going forward the enrollment of blacks and Hispanics would drop substantially. Truly, after Proposition 209 there was a 50-percent reduction in black freshman enrollment and a 25-percent drop for Hispanics. Nevertheless, the total number of black and Hispanic students earning bachelor's degrees was the same for the five classes after Proposition 209 as for the five classes before the proposition. Before Proposition 209, the black and Hispanic graduation rate was 63 percent but in the post-Proposition 209 era, it increased slightly to 69 percent. Sander and Taylor argued that when more qualified black and Hispanic students were admitted into the UC system, it alleviated the mismatch problem, resulting in a higher graduation rate.

However, Kidder and Onwuachi-Willig (2014) argued against the preceding assertion. They bluntly pointed out that Sander and Taylor's calculation was flawed because they reported the average graduation rate of adjacent years. When each year was examined individually, there was no substantive upward trajectory. However, even though the gain of the minority graduation rate was, as Kidder and Onwuachi-Willig (2014) said, "... less impressive, if not disappointing..." (p. 912), it still cannot negate Sander and Taylor's notion. Before the implementation of Proposition 209, many critics predicted that eventually blacks and Hispanics would disappear from the UCLA campus (Sander & Taylor, 2012). Bowen and Bok (1998) were among those critics. They worried that if racial preference was banned in college admission, prestigious schools would become all-white campuses; racial tensions would get worse when top jobs in government and business were dominated by whites. However, a flat trend of black and Hispanic graduation rates before and after Proposition 209 indicates that the opportunities of black and Hispanics were not affected by color-blind admission policies.

Conclusion

Although Dworkin admirably attempted to give an argument for fairness that is backed by an empirical study, the authors found that Dworkin's theory does not have good empirical support and the normative argument is undermined by its shaky implicit empirical presumption. This casts more doubt on the fairness of Category 4 affirmative action. Specifically, the sample used in *River Study* is unrepresentative, and the results are open to interpretation. If legitimacy and fairness of a policy is a matter of the fit between the theory and the practical consequence, would changing the racial composition within the country, including the increasing number of immigrants and changing a country's role in the international community such as globalization, affect the current meaning of diversity? Moreover, although diversity seems to be a reasonable goal, Dworkin's persistence in requiring blacks to be admitted to elite universities as essential for justice is probably outdated now in this more diversified US society, because it is no longer easy to identify which racial

communities are seen by others as public insult. Perhaps there exist now different kinds of discrimination from one group to another. Finally, from a utilitarian point of view, the question of fairness remains unanswered because the lesson of Singapore and Malaysia shows that the general interest of society is not warranted by a policy of giving special treatments to certain groups at the expense of other groups.

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Sex Differences in Victimization from Low Intensity Intimate Partner Aggression in South Sudan

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Abstract

The aim of the study was to investigate sex differences in victimisation from low intensity forms of intimate partner aggression in South Sudan. A questionnaire was filled in by 420 respondents (302 females and 118 males) in two cities in South Sudan. The mean age was 22.5 years (*SD* 8.4) for women and 25.6 years (*SD* 7.8). Victimization from intimate partner aggression was measured with the Victim Version of the Direct Indirect Aggression Scales (DIAS-Adult; Österman & Björkqvist, 2009) which includes six scales measuring verbal and nonverbal aggression, direct and indirect aggressive social manipulation, cyber aggression, and economic aggression. The results showed that males had been significantly more victimised from physical and verbal aggression than females. A tendency was also found for males to be more victimised from nonverbal aggression and direct aggressive social manipulation. No sex differences were found regarding victimisation from indirect aggressive social manipulation, cyber aggression, or economic aggression. Males had significantly more often been bit, hit, had their belongings damaged, scratched, spit at, and shoved by their female partner. Males had also been significantly more often subjected to quarrels, to being told nasty or hurtful words, and to being yelled at by their female partner. No sex difference was found for being interrupted when talking, been called bad names, or having been angrily nagged at by their partner. For females, age correlated positively with victimisation, while for males, the correlations were mostly negative. As far as more severe forms of violence are concerned, males have generally been found to be more aggressive against their partner than vice versa; the impact of male aggression has also usually been found to be more severe. The fact that males in domestic settings are also victimised by their spouses, although to less severe forms of aggression, has received much less attention.

Keywords: intimate partner aggression, low intensity aggression, victimisation, South Sudan

Introduction

Intimate partner aggression (IPA) has been studied extensively. Criminal records of serious aggressive acts, including homicide, show that women more often than men are the victims and men the perpetrators (Grech & Burgess, 2011). It has been found that 35% of women worldwide have experienced IPA (WHO, 2103). Less severe, low intensity forms of intimate partner aggression, on the other hand, have been studied to a much lesser degree. Therefore, the aim of the present study was to examine sex differences in victimisation from low intensity forms of intimate partner aggression.

The cost of domestic violence is high to society, it has been estimated that interpersonal disputes are more costly than warfare in terms of both lives lost and money spent (Hoeffler & Fearon, 2014). Roughly nine people are killed in interpersonal disputes for every one person who dies in a civil war. But domestic violence, as reported to authorities and calculated by researchers is just the tip of the iceberg. It is usually the outcome of a long sequence of milder

forms of aggression, like insults, shouting, and slapping between partners. The cost of these types of IPA is close to impossible to estimate.

Definition

Intimate partner violence has been defined as one or more acts of physical and/or sexual violence by a current or former partner. It includes acts of different severity, ranging from being slapped to having been assaulted with a weapon (WHO, 2013). There is still no clear-cut demarcation line between low intensity (less severe) and high intensity forms of IPA. A possible categorisation could be that if the aggression is so severe that it is punishable by law, then it should be regarded as high intensity.

Trends in Research

In the 1960s and 70s, women were still considered so unaggressive that researchers found no point in studying female aggression (Buss, 1961; Frodi, Macaulay, & Thome, 1977; Olweus, 1978). In the 1980s, it was becoming clear that a distinction between quantity and quality of aggression was necessary for the understanding of sex differences in aggression (Eagly & Steffen, 1986; Hyde 1984). Following this development, in the 1990s, researchers in the field realised that physical forms of aggression until then had been overemphasised on behalf of other forms typical of females, like e.g. indirect aggression. A condensed chronological description of trends in the research on sex differences in aggression can be found in Björkqvist and Österman (in press).

Research on sex differences in IPA is at the moment going through a similar development. Two conflicting viewpoints can be discerned, referred to by Archer (in press) as symmetry and asymmetry theory. The asymmetry theory is based on traditional gender stereotypes, and it suggests that males in intimate partner relationships are more aggressive against their female partners than the other way around, i.e. there is an asymmetry between the sexes as far as IPA is concerned (Dobash & Dobash, 2004). This clearly seems to be the case if we use criminal records for an assessment of the matter (Grech & Burgess, 2011). Symmetry theory, again, suggests that males and females in an intimate relationship at an average are mutually and equally aggressive, and that aggressive interactions tend to escalate and de-escalate with the two combatants giving and taking roughly equally much to each other. Evidence for this viewpoint was first found by Straus and his colleagues (e.g. Feld & Straus, 1989; Straus, 1979, 1999; Straus & Gelles, 1992; Straus & Sweet, 1992), but similar findings have been made by others (e.g. Robertson & Murachver, 2007; Schumacher & Leonard, 2005). Notably, these researchers have conducted community based studies using questionnaires for obtaining their data.

To reconcile these two views, Archer (in press) suggested a revised symmetry theory. According to him, symmetry holds as far as low intensity (less severe) forms of IPA are concerned. However, if and when the aggression escalates to more severe aggression, when physical injury is inflicted, then males are more often perpetrators and females victims. Archer (in press) thought that symmetry would hold only in developed, Western type societies. In less developed, more patriarchal societies, he believed an asymmetric relationship would exist also as far as low intensity IPA is concerned.

In a study comparing low intensity IPA in Mexico and Finland (Österman, Toldos, & Björkqvist, 2014), using the same method of measurement of IPA as in the present study, DIAS-Adult (Österman & Björkqvist, 2009), it was actually found that there was a gender asymmetry in the opposite direction regarding low intensity (less severe) forms of IPA: males scored significantly *higher* than females on being *victimised* by their partner from physical and nonverbal aggression. In the same vein, females scored significantly higher on being *perpetrators* of physical, verbal, nonverbal, and indirect socially manipulative aggression against their partner. In another study using DIAS-Adult, carried out in Ghana (Darko, Björkqvist, & Österman, submitted), it was also found that males scored significantly higher than females on victimisation from less severe forms of physical, indirect and nonverbal aggression inflicted on them by their female partner.

About South Sudan

South Sudan is the youngest country on the planet; it became independent in 2011 (Comprehensive Peace Agreement, 2005). High levels of gender-based violence have been documented in the country (Scott et al., 2013). Today, in the aftermath of war, both men and women are commonly practicing physical aggression (Tankink &

Richters, 2007). Furthermore, domestic violence has been found to force children out from their homes and starting to sleep in the streets (Ndoromo, Österman, & Björkqvist, 2017).

It has been suggested that the main reason for the high levels of aggressive behaviour in South Sudan is that, during the war, most people remained without an education (Deng, 2003). During the war, people witnessed killing of their relatives, torture, and rape, people fighting at home due to limited resources, and relatives killing each other (Paardekooper, De Jong, & Hermanns, 1999). As a result, many are psychologically affected (Gorsevski, Kasischke, Dempewolf, Loboda, & Grossmann, 2012).

Due to the lack of statistics, there is limited knowledge about the prevalence of intimate partner aggression in South Sudan. Like in other similar cultures, it is still considered a shame for a man to be beaten by his wife (Douglas & Mohn, 2014). Consequently, males are probably less likely than females to report being victimised from IPA.

Aim of the Study

Studies exploring IPA have often focused on men as perpetrators and women as victims. In the present study, IPA was investigated with both women and men as potential victims and perpetrators. If it is correct, as Archer (in press) suggests, that males perpetrate not only more high intensity but also more low intensity IPA than females in patriarchal, developing countries, then females should be expected to be victimised to a higher extent than males. However, Darko et al. (submitted) did not find this to be the case in their study conducted in Ghana. If the present study provides similar findings as those by Darko and his colleagues, then the revised symmetry theory needs to be revised once more, and the conclusion should be made that symmetry regarding low intensity IPA might hold also in African countries.

Method

Sample

A paper-and-pencil questionnaire was filled in by 302 females and 118 males in the cities of Juba and Yei in South Sudan. The mean age was 22.5 years (*SD* 8.4) for women, and 25.6 years (*SD* 7.8) for males, the age difference was significant [$t_{(407)} = 3.42, p = .001$]. Accordingly, age was kept as a covariate in the analyses. The age range was between 14 and 60 years of age.

Instrument

Victimisation from intimate partner aggression was assessed with the victim version of the Direct Indirect Aggression Scales for Adults (DIAS-Adult; Österman & Björkqvist, 2009), consisting of seven scales measuring victimisation from physical aggression, verbal aggression, nonverbal aggression, direct aggressive social manipulation, indirect aggressive social manipulation, cyber aggression, and

economic aggression were. Cronbach’s Alphas and individual items of the scales are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Single Items and Cronbach’s Alphas of the Seven Scales Measuring Victimization from Intimate Partner Aggression (DIAS-Adult, Österman & Björkqvist, 2009),in 420 Respondents from South Sudan

	My partner has
Physical Aggression 9 items, $\alpha = .82$	a) hit me, b) locked me in, c) locked me out, d) shoved me, e) bit me, f) scratched me, g) spit at me, h) thrown objects, i) damaged something that was mine
Direct Verbal Aggression 7 items, $\alpha = .85$	a) threatened to hurt me, b) yelled at me, c) quarreled with me, d) purposely said nasty or hurting things to me, e) called me bad names, f) interrupted me when I was talking, g) angrily nagged at me
Nonverbal Aggression 8 items, $\alpha = .89$	a) refused to talk to me, b) refused to look at me, c) refused to touch me, d) put on a sulky face, e) slammed doors, f) refused to sleep in the same bed as me, g) left the room in a demonstrative manner when I came in, h) made nasty faces or gestures behind my back
Direct Aggressive Social Manipulation 5 items, $\alpha = .85$	a) threatened to leave me, b) purposely provoked a quarrel with me, c) omitted doing things that (s)he usually does for both of us (e.g. household work), or done them less well, d) been ironic towards me, e) been contemptuous towards me
Indirect Aggressive Social Manipulation 5 items, $\alpha = .83$	a) spoken badly about me to someone else, b) tried to influence someone, such as children or relatives, to dislike me, c) ridiculed me in my absence, d) tried to exclude me from social situations, e) tried to make me feel guilty
Cyber Aggression 4 items, $\alpha = .82$	a) written angry text messages to me, b) written angry e-mails to me, c) written nasty text messages about me to somebody else, d) written nasty e-mails about me to someone else
Economic Aggression 2 items, $\alpha = .76$	a) not let me know details about our household economy, b) not allowed me to use money that belongs to both of us

Ethical Considerations

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).

Procedure

The study was endorsed by University of Juba. Research permission was given by the local authorities in Juba and Yei. Respondents were reached through the Women’s Union in both cities, and through its members’ neighbours and acquaintances.

Results

Correlations between the Scales in the Study

For females, all the scales correlated with all other scales at the $p < .001$ -level (Table 2). The same was the case for males, except for the correlation between the scale for victimisation from direct aggressive social manipulation and victimisation from cyber aggression ($p = .008$).

Table 2: Correlations between the Scales of the Study. Females ($N = 282$) in the Lower Part, and Males ($N = 113$) in the Upper Part of the Table

Victimisation from	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1. Physical aggression		.60 ***	.54 ***	.50 ***	.62 ***	.38 ***	.48 ***
2. Verbal aggression	.72 ***		.67 ***	.79 ***	.71 ***	.40 ***	.47 ***
3. Nonverbal aggression	.66 ***	.73 ***		.55 ***	.61 ***	.42 ***	.40 ***
4. Direct aggressive social manipulation	.70 ***	.78 ***	.79 ***		.68 ***	.25 **	.35 ***
5. Indirect aggressive social manipulation	.66 ***	.75 ***	.75 ***	.77 ***		.44 ***	.52 ***
6. Cyber aggression	.33 ***	.40 ***	.51 ***	.42 ***	.49 ***		.40 ***
7. Economic aggression	.59 ***	.59 ***	.69 ***	.68 ***	.66 ***	.43 ***	

Note. *** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$

Victimisation from Intimate Partner Aggression and Age

For females, age correlated positively with all except one (cyber aggression) of the seven scales measuring victimisation from intimate partner aggression (Table 3). In the case of males, age correlated negatively with victimisation from physical aggression, indirect aggressive social manipulation, cyber aggression, and economic

aggression. A tendency was also found for a negative correlation between age and victimisation from verbal aggression. Victimisation from nonverbal aggression and direct aggressive social manipulation did not correlate with age for males.

Table 3: Correlations between Age and the Seven Scales of Victimisation from Intimate Partner Aggression

Victimisation from	Age	
	Females	Males
Physical aggression	.26 ***	-.37 ***
Verbal aggression	.22 ***	-.18 †
Nonverbal aggression	.28 ***	ns
Direct aggressive social manipulation	.32 ***	ns
Indirect aggressive social manipulation	.24 ***	-.20 *
Cyber aggression	ns	-.26 **
Economic aggression	.27 ***	-.31 ***

*** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$; † $p \leq .10$

Sex Differences in Victimisation from Intimate Partner Aggression

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was carried out with sex as independent variable and seven types of victimisation from intimate partner aggression as dependent variables, and age as a covariate. The results are presented in Table 4 and Fig. 1. The multivariate analysis was significant. The univariate analyses showed that males were significantly more victimised from physical and verbal aggression than females. A tendency was also found for males to be more victimised from nonverbal aggression and direct aggressive social manipulation. No sex differences were found for victimisation from indirect aggressive social manipulation, cyber aggression, and economic aggression.

Table 4: Results of a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) with Sex as Independent Variable, and Seven Types of Intimate Partner Aggression as Dependent Variables, and Age as a Covariate ($N = 352$)

	F	df	p	η_p^2	Group with Higher Mean
Effect of Sex					
Multivariate Analysis	2.96	7, 343	.005	.057	
Univariate Analyses					
Physical aggression	9.24	1, 349	.003	.026	Males
Verbal aggression	4.46	"	.035	.013	Males

Nonverbal aggression	3.19	"	.075	.009	(Males)
Direct aggressive social manipulation	3.54	"	.061	.010	(Males)
Indirect aggressive social manipulation	1.03	"	ns	.003	-
Cyber aggression	1.77	"	ns	.005	-
Economic aggression	0.03	"	ns	.000	-

Victimisation from Physical and Verbal Intimate Partner Aggression: Single Items

When the single items measuring victimisation from physical aggression were analysed with multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), it was found that males were significantly more victimised than females on six of the nine items (Fig. 2). The multivariate test was significant for sex [$F_{(9, 410)} = 3.02, p = .002, \eta_p^2 = .062$]. The univariate analyses showed that males significantly more often had been bit [$F_{(1, 418)} = 11.68, p = .001, \eta_p^2 = .027$], hit [$F_{(1, 418)} = 5.63, p = .018, \eta_p^2 = .013$], had their belongings damaged [$F_{(1, 418)} = 6.78, p = .010, \eta_p^2 = .016$], scratched [$F_{(1, 418)} = 8.57, p = .004, \eta_p^2 = .020$], spit at [$F_{(1, 418)} = 6.17, p = .013, \eta_p^2 = .015$], and shoved [$F_{(1, 418)} = 13.66, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .032$]. No sex difference was found for being locked in, locked out, or thrown objects at.

When the single items measuring victimisation from verbal aggression were analysed with multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), it was found that males were significantly more victimised than females in the case of three of the seven items (Fig. 3). The multivariate test was significant for sex [$F_{(7, 412)} = 3.47, p = .001, \eta_p^2 = .056$]. Males had been significantly more often subjected to quarrels [$F_{(1, 418)} = 13.63, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .032$], to purposely being told nasty or hurting things [$F_{(1, 418)} = 7.57, p = .006, \eta_p^2 = .018$], and to being yelled at [$F_{(1, 418)} = 7.57, p = .006, \eta_p^2 = .018$]. A tendency was also found for males to have been more often threatened to be hurt by their partner [$F_{(1, 418)} = 2.94, p = .087, \eta_p^2 = .007$]. No sex differences were found for being interrupted when talking, been called bad names, or having been angrily nagged at by the partner.

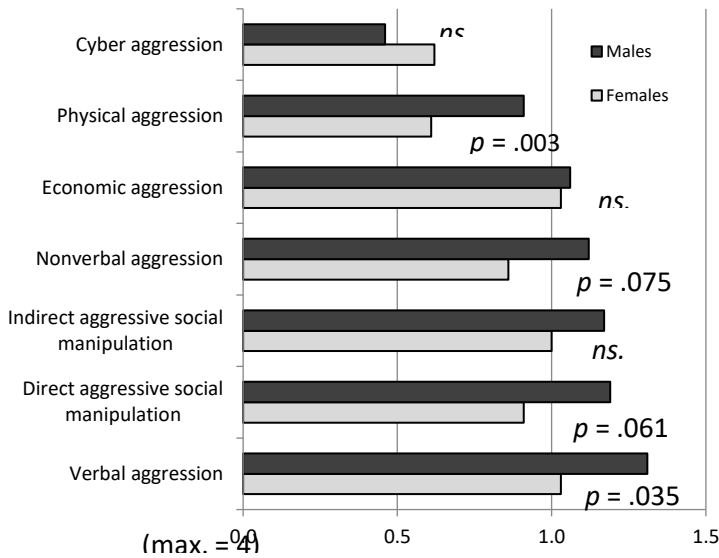


Figure 1. Victimization from seven types of intimate partner aggression, differences between females and males (N = 352).

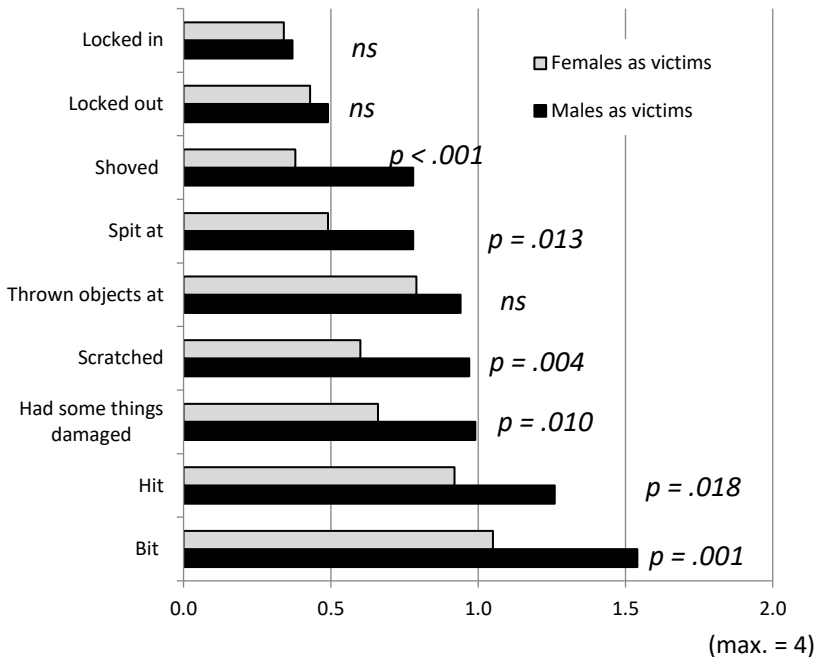


Figure 2. Mean values for females and males on victimisation from nine types of physical aggression by the partner (N = 330).

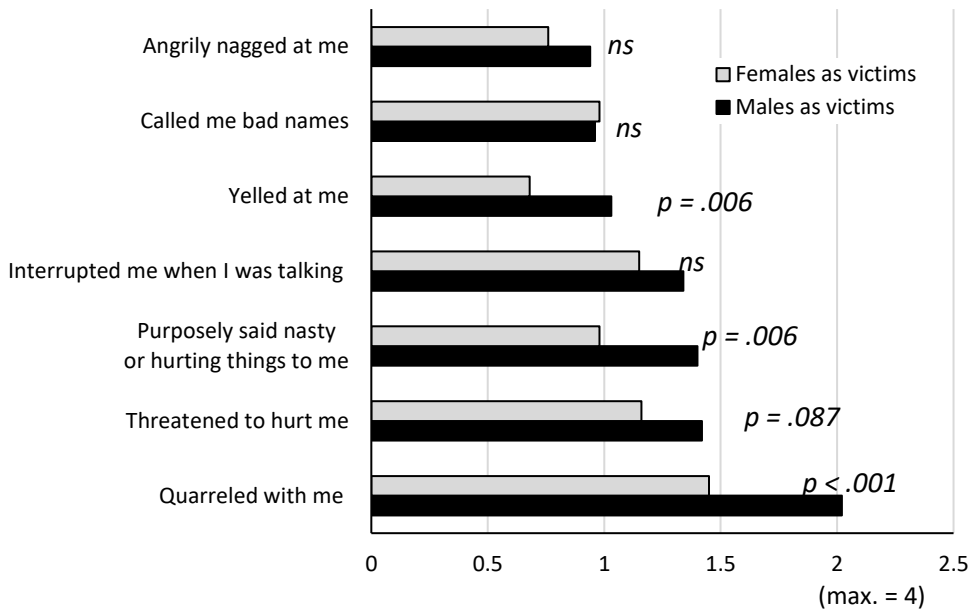


Figure 3. Mean values for females and males on victimisation from seven types of verbal aggression by the partner ($N = 330$).

Discussion

This is the third study utilising DIAS-Adult (Österman & Björkqvist, 2009) for the measurement of IPA; it has previously been used with samples from Mexico, Finland, and Ghana (Österman et al., 2014; Darko et al., submitted). The results are all in the same direction: they do not support the traditional view, the gender asymmetry theory, at least as far as low intensity (less severe) forms of IPA are concerned. If anything, males were more victimised than females, on several of the subscales.

The males of the present study had been significantly more often victimised from physical and verbal aggression. A tendency was also found for males to be more victimised from nonverbal aggression and direct aggressive social manipulation. No sex differences were found regarding victimisation from indirect aggressive social manipulation, cyber aggression, or economic aggression. With regard to individual items from the scale of physical aggression, males had significantly more often been bit, hit, had their belongings damaged, scratched, spit at, and shoved by their female partner. With regard to individual items from the scale of verbal aggression, males had been significantly more often subjected to quarrels, to being told nasty or hurtful words, and to being yelled at by their female partner.

Until now, it has been thought that gender symmetry regarding less severe IPA would exist only in modern, Western countries where patriarchal values are on the decline. The findings of this study refutes this notion; at least in two African countries, Ghana

and South Sudan, males are as much victimised from low intensity IPA as their female partners, and as far as some subscales are concerned, they were even more often victimised than their partners.

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Student Experience of E-Learning Tools in HE: An Integrated Learning Framework

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Abstract

Over the last decade the adoption of a Virtual Learning Environment (VLE), at University, has become an accepted norm of support for student learning. However, despite the major investment in VLE's there is a major disparity between what universities are offering, on their online platforms, and how this material and activities are being utilised by students. This research provides empirical evidence of the passive use, both by tutors and students, of the VLE. The literature provides evidence of the inertia that still exists, within Higher Education (HE), among tutors, to fully embrace the spectrum of VLE engagement tools. The lack of transition, among many tutors, to utilise the VLE as a pedagogical engagement tool continues to impact the expectations of fee-paying students in the UK, who no longer expect that a Socratic dialogue will suffice to catalyse their intellectual curiosity. Today's generation of students have been exposed to a plethora of technologies that facilitates the acquisition of instant information and often through a multitude of sensory (visual, audio) formats. Furthermore, with the growth of Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) that are freely available to students the expectations, of HE students, from universities is becoming more demanding. In light of this competitive virtual learning landscape the authors propose a learning framework. To enable universities to create a unique and effective learning experience, for their students, through prudent investment in VLE tools and a complimentary learning environments. Resulting in deeper learning and informed students prepared for seminars.

Keywords: Blackboard, VLE, pedagogy, e-Learning, Technology, higher education,

Introduction

Fully immersive effective learning opportunities do exist and are now starting to be exploited by some players in H.E. although these new technologies are still being

embraced by a limited number of faculty and H.E institutions. However, the increasing level of competition coupled with market disruptions that are occurring in Higher Education (HE) (Staton, 2014) is resulting in universities to accelerate their adoption of new technologies to offer students the opportunity to engage with e-learning. The importance of this investment has become paramount in an era of where students, in England, are paying fees for their studies and many are having to finance their higher education through part time employment. Croxton (2014) has articulated a number of benefits of online learning that include flexibility in participation; ease of access and convenience. Consequently, a more flexible learning approach that allows students to balance their work and study commitments is needed. Furthermore, Redecker et al. (2011) advocates that access to Technology Enhanced Learning (TEL) platforms can be a major influence when choosing where to study for higher education, alongside traditional options such as employment prospects of graduating students. Hence, technology is becoming a major asset and competitive advantage for universities competing in an ever growing globally competitive market.

Evidence from research undertaken by Fieldman (2016), on HE student experience, affirms that good use of technology effectively enhances their learning experience. Although, when it comes to attracting and retaining students, in this day and age, there is no one-size fits all solution. Institutions appear to be struggling not necessarily with the changes but how fast they should adapt and which TEL system to adopt (Schedjbal, 2012). Some institutions have also struggled to fully-engage students or even to motivate them in the adoption of a VLE. Traditionally, adoption and inclusion of new technologies by faculty and academics have not been received so warmly, nevertheless, with the winds of changes and everyday new platforms being made available online, HE institutions must move fast to understand student's preferences and how they want to use technology in order to enable them to achieve their learning goals (Staton, 2014) in an evolving competitive online landscape.

Online Competition

Universities are facing increasing competition not only from their traditional market competitors but today from other industries who are investing in the online education market. A notable competitor is Laureate (<http://www.laureate.net/OurNetwork/Europe/UnitedKingdom>) who have partnered with universities to offer online courses. However, the major competition may arise from publishers such as Pearson, Cengage and McGraw-Hill who are actively pursuing market growth in the higher education sector. As they transform their textbooks into online module courses.

The traditional university education is being further disrupted by Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCS) that are sweeping the HE landscape. MOOCS offer universities the opportunity to engage a global audience at little or no cost to the participant. Key players in this market such as *Coursera*, *Futurelearn*, *edX* and *Udacity* have positioned themselves as serving a social good, offering higher education to an

audience where access is limited (Agarwal, 2013). However, there is criticism that MOOCS have not been able to significantly improve the opportunities for socially disadvantaged communities in the developed countries (Bear, 2013; Sharma, 2013). Although, a surprising benefit of MOOCS has been identified by Longstaff (2017) who discovered that existing students, in HE, used MOOCS as it encouraged this group of students to try new things without the fear of failure. As the extrinsic threat of failure of a module can cause grade anxiety and result in a depreciated learning process that results in students under challenging their intellectual capabilities and affect their well-being (Conroy et al, 2008; Docan, 2006).

In relation to e-learning activities Yang (2016) contends that among academic researchers there is a growing momentum that is moving away from traditional class-based or campus-based teaching paradigms towards the idea of ubiquitous learning spaces or learning ecosystems. These environments are able to provide an interoperable, pervasive, and seamless learning architecture that are intuitive and context relevant (Rizebos, 2016) to enhance the student experience. To achieve this universities need to appreciate the potential and challenges of Technology Enhanced Learning (TEL) that can be used as a single point of learning or in conjunction with traditional face-to-face learning methods. As Technology Enhanced learning affects *what, how, where* and *when* people learn (Davidson and Goldberg 2009).

E-Learning

Most academics and pedagogues agree that for an e-learning environment to exist instruction must be delivered on a digital device that is used with the intention to promote and support learning activities within a specific program or academic framework (Clark and Mayer, 2011). To facilitate e-learning Fee (2009) has identified three main elements that must interplay within an e-learning environment: 1) technology, 2) learning content and 3) learning design.

As academic time is expensive institutions might turn to technology not only to promote better engagement with students but reduce their labour costs (Schedjbal, 2012). Ubiquitous learning technologies must have the ability to not only facilitate highly dynamic, adaptable and engaging virtual learning environments but also to address individual needs of learners offering personalised experiences. It must offer opportunities to integrate into people's lives and allow them to adapt their training objectives, schedule and pace to individual needs and preferences (Redecker, 2011). Consequently, the successful adoption of e-learning will be significantly influenced by the integration of pedagogy with technology.

Pedagogy and VLE

Teaching and learning processes have been increasingly influenced by technological, instructional and pedagogical advances (Chou & Tsai, 2002; Kavanoz, Yüksel & Özcan, 2015). These developments will have greater influence in the future since the UK government decided to introduce a new metric to assess Universities through the

Teaching Excellence Framework. Consequently, the current quality of teaching provision will face unexpected outcomes (Deloitte, 2015).

Technology is not only affecting *what* students will learn, but also *how* they will learn. These changes in technology and pedagogy have resulted in transformed habits of learning behaviour due to access to constant information and exposure to distractions (Persico & Pozzi, 2015). This will require educators to evaluate how students are using the technology for learning. To ensure they design a participative, digitally-enabled and collaborative environment going beyond the individual educational institution (Linton and Schuchhard 2009).

The pedagogical-technological gap that exists, in many universities, is according to Naaji et al. (2015) attributed to:

- Rigid policies in formal education related to curricular systems and assessment practices
- Lack of investment in tutor training of VLE capabilities to explore, understand, evaluate and use best practices to engage students;
- Developed scenarios and best cases are still presented in a formal manner;

To help appreciate the technology advancements for e-learning tutors need to appreciate contemporary practices to utilise current technology to enrich the student e-learning experience. In their paper, Naaji et. al., (2015) provide a chronological overview of the technologies that have been adopted for learning (see Table 1).

Table 1 – Emerging technologies in Education as reported by the HPR 2008-2015

HPR	One Year or Less	Two to Three Years	Four to Five Years
2008	- Grassroots Video - Collaborations Webs	- Mobile Broadband - Data Mashups	- Collective Intelligence - Social OSs
2009	- Mobiles - Cloud Computing	- Geo Everything - The Personal Web	- Semantic Aware Apps - Smart Objects
2010	- Mobile Computing - Open Content	- Electronic Books - Simple Augmented Reality	- Gesture-Based Computing - Visual Data Analysis
2011	- Electronic Books - Mobiles	- Augmented Reality - Game-based Learning	- Game-Based Learning - Learning Analytics
2012	- Mobile Applications - Tablet computing	- Gesture-Based Computing - Learning Analytics	- Gesture-Based Computing - Internet of Things
2013	- MOOCs - Tablet Computing	- Game & Gamification - Learning Analytics	- 3D Printing - Wearable Technology
2014	- Flipped Classroom	- 3D printing	- Quantified Self

	- Learning Analytics	- Games and Gamification	- Virtual Assistants
2015	- Bring Your Own Device (BYWD) - Flipped Classroom - (Learning Analytics) - (Mobile Apps)	- Makerspaces - Wearable Technology - (Collaborative Environments) - (Games & Gamification)	- Adaptive Learning Technologies - The Internet of Things - (Wireless Power) - (Flexible Displays)

(Source: Naaji et. al. 2015).

There are many issues to consider when adopting Technology Enhanced Learning (TEL) platforms, for online or blended courses, the most important aspects are those related to student’s adoption, motivation and learning development and the quality of the outcomes produced by combinations of these factors. Thus for universities to remain competitive Kregor et al (2012) argues that there is no longer a choice regarding implementing an e-learning strategy. While, the format and delivery of this e-learning strategy is still a contentious issue, there are many examples of Universities gradually moving to the full integration of technology into pedagogy through blended learning.

Blended Learning

Universities have made concerted investments in technology and many, in the UK, have adopted a ‘blended learning’ approach to deliver course content (Wade, 2012). Oliver and Trigwel (2005) and Bliuc et al (2007) advocate that the blended learning is a mix of traditional methods (face to face teaching) and online teaching. Research by Martinez-Caro and Campuzano-Bolarin (2011) revealed that satisfaction was significantly greater in blended learning courses than the traditional face to face courses. Even though there is evidence of a positive experience of blended learning research by Osgerby (2013) concluded that students still preferred face-to-face lectures. This is supported by Lily et al (2014) and Platt et al. (2014) who determined that students did not perceive online classes as being equivalent to a traditional delivered class due to the limited number of opportunities for interaction in comparison to a face to face course.

While there is growing support for a blended learning approach that combines traditional lecture with online material results. The format and delivery of the blended format is still a nebulous subject. However, recent evidence of the flipped learning model is proving to be highly popular and effective in engaging student learning both through VLE and face to face contact.

Flipped Learning

The flipped classroom is emerging as one of the most recent popular technology-infused learning models. A flipped classroom approach requires students to

undertake significant pre-class preparation that involves watching pre-recorded lecture videos and reviewing academic and practitioner material to enable traditional class time to be reserved for discussion and problem solving of the subject topic. It is said that learning is “flipped,” “inverted,” or “reversed” since it happens in a sequence directly opposed to the traditional way of delivering (Bergmann and Sams 2012).

Most adopters of the flipped learning model believe that by implementing these technological pre-classroom resources release tutors to do what they do best improving the overall quality of the classroom interaction and learning process (Lee et. al, 2017). Classroom time is solely devoted to “discovering and sharing ideas with one-to-one assistance, scaffolding, and inspiration, all made feasible by offloading content delivery onto the online lectures that are better at visual representations and self-pacing” (Lee et. al, 2017, p.428) .

Another important aspect that is stressed in flipped learning is ‘peer instruction’. Harvard Professor Eric Mazur developed in 1991 a model of ‘peer instruction’ providing material for students to prepare and reflect on prior to his classes. The students would then use that in class time increasing deeper cognitive thinking through peer interaction and tutor support. Mazur called this “just in time teaching” (Crouch and Mazur 2001).

The effectiveness of the flipped learning model was investigated by Tune et al. (2013) who concluded that the flipped model appeared to have a strong positive effect on overall student performance. They concluded that the success of this approach is enhanced by the use of in-class quizzes and homework which contributed to greater student participation in classroom discussions and ultimately improved student performance. However, concerns have been raised about the level of commitment and knowledge required as well as the time needed to develop these methods. Bergmann (2011) addressed some areas of resistance, in his blog post, by highlighting a number of challenges of successfully implementing flipped learning, namely:

Video lectures lead to less engaged students.

Classes will become too big to support engagement with students.

It’s just bad lecture on video.

Students with limited access to technology are hurt

The main challenges of flipped learning are centred on the lack of resources and time scarcity of tutors. Furthermore, for an effective flipped classroom course to take place tutors must ensure that students have prepared for in-class sessions prior to class and must be fully prepared for the new demands of interactivity in the classroom to enable peer-instruction and engagement (Long et al., 2017). What is becoming evident, for the successful implementation of VLE, is that significant resources and cultural inertia challenges still remain to be resolved to release the full potential of an e-learning environment.

Challenges of E-learning

Despite the growth in VLE systems at Universities there is limited evidence of the successful integration of these platforms into student learning. One primary reason could be attributed to the lack of direction and support offered tutors to develop e-learning material and online engagement activities. A further reason could be assigned to the lack of understanding of how students want to engage in learning, which platforms and content should we be aiming to engage them with? Bringing together the right mix of collaborators, contents and services requires universities to appreciate students' physical context (where and when) learners find themselves into (time and space), what the learning resources and services are available for the learners, and who are the learning collaborators that match the learners' needs (Ogata, & Yano, 2004; Zhang, Jin, & Lin, 2005).

Bee (2013) has raised concern over the lack of consistency between modules on virtual learning environments (VLEs). However, universities are reviewing their e-learning modules to identify how they can introduce templates that offer minimum standards for the use of the VLE (Reed, 2014).

While there is common agreement that as a minimum modules should provide contact details for module tutors and timely information about assessment requirements, lecture notes and reading lists. Research by Reed and Watmough (2015) discovered that staff, at a Russell Group University, differed considerably from their students as to what should be uploaded on an online course module. The key disagreements, from the staff, were:

Provision of past exam papers (46% difference);

Online submission of coursework (41% difference);

Provision of module specification (38% difference);

Opportunity for draft / formative feedback on work (34% difference).

Other issues rising from the more traditional VLE systems is that some consider them inflexible and promoting just a one-way approach to learning. A number of academics (Crosslin, 2010; Kloos et al., 2011) have argued that HE institutions should be turning to platforms that can be integrated and fully engage students on their learning journey. While a number of technological and cultural inertia issues have been highlighted. The catalyst to propelling the success of e-learning will be the symbiotic application of pedagogy and technology to augment the student experience in HE.

This paper seeks to analyse the current use of technology as a way to enhance learning outcomes for students. Since new technologies are influencing not only student-tutor engagement but also challenging traditional campus-based teaching and learning what we identified here as physical spaces. Virtual learning environments, flipped classrooms and blended are now integral part of the lexicon in most Universities challenging other well-established virtual learning environments such as Blackboard

and Moodle that are anecdotally perceived, by many tutors, as magnified repositories of material that lack the catalyst to enthuse and engage students. The identifications of the student concerns and solutions to address the successful adoption of an integrated e-learning environment with traditional pedagogical delivery was the main drive for this research.

Methodology

This research adopted a mixed method approach to capturing student views, in HE, on their experience of using a popular Virtual Learning Environment (VLE), namely: Blackboard, used at many universities. The research aimed to minimise the limitations of adopting a qualitative or quantitative approach to data collection by pursuing a sequential mixed method approach that would permit a deeper understanding of the student experiences of using a university VLE system. To enable the authors to put forward pragmatic solutions to address the current limitations of application of course modules that are available on VLE systems with varied degrees of success.

The initial phase involved inviting undergraduate students to five small focus group discussions to identify key themes of experience of using the Blackboard system. The discussion focused on why they used Blackboard and how it could be improved. The focus group discussions revealed a number of key themes that were translated into open ended questions and administered to 200 students in phase 2 of the methodology. After the responses were collected and reviewed from each respondent an acceptable 121 responses were analysed to identify key themes identified from each open-ended question.

Phase 3 of the data collection resulted in the design of an ordinal questionnaire based on the key responses identified in phase 2 that asked respondents to rate their experience, of using Blackboard, and suggestions for improvement. The questionnaire was administered at a Post-92 University in a major city in the North of England. The survey resulted in a total of 266 acceptable responses from students who identified themselves as being permanently resident in the UK. While it would have been preferable to include the views of international students the sample response rate was too small, for this group, and so it was decided to exclude this category and concentrate on the views of UK students.

Findings

The open ended questionnaire survey revealed a number of insights into how the current VLE system could be improved (see Tables 2 and 3). The findings centred on five core issues, namely: 1) more information on the module and tutor being available; 2) Better user interface to be adopted to find information; 3) More feedback and discussion forums on assessment; 4) Uploading of various multimedia (videos and audio of lectures); 5) Links to other external sources (e.g. online databases, external resources).

Table 2: How could Blackboard be improved?

Reduce number of times system is unavailable.	25
Information on lecture cancellations	16
More help and information on assignment	15
Better design and layout of uploaded information	13
Easier user interface	10
All module links available	8
Forums for students to engage in discussions	6
Lecture slides to be uploaded	4
Tutor details to be available	4

Table 3: What would encourage you to use Blackboard more?

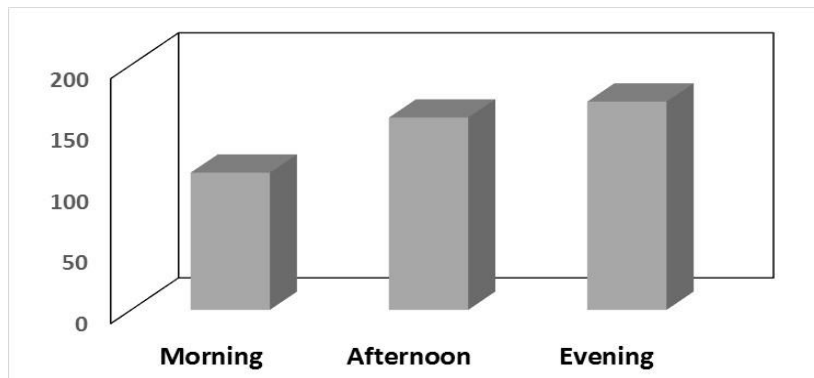
All module information available	19
More feedback	15
Video/audio Lectures	12
Wouldn't want to learn just by e-learning	12
Clearer layout	11
Links to journals	11
Better Access (more computers on campus)	10
Revision questions/Seminar questions	6
All lecture slides available	5
Forums	5
More business resources	4
More Information on Exam dates	3
Assignment Help	2

Survey Results

The administered questionnaire resulted in 266 responses from UK students being accepted for analysis. This comprised of an almost equal number of respondents from both Genders (48.1% Male and 51.5% Female). The average age of the students was 20 (range 18 to 25) who spent an average of 4 hours a week on the university Blackboard VLE system.

The majority of students accessed the VLE system either in the afternoon or in the evening (see Figure 1).

Figure 1: Time Periods VLE accessed



The questionnaire asked respondents to rate 22 options (see Table 4) on how the current VLE system could be improved. To ensure that the 22 options captured the array of experiences and suggestions an open ended question was included that asked students to provide further suggestions on how the VLE system could be improved. The open ended results complimented the 22 options and included responses that were categorised into the following themes:

More Discussion forums;

More help for assignment / revision sessions;

Examples of previous work / worked examples;

Weekly quizzes;

Multimedia upload: Podcasts / Videos;

Video conferencing / online discussions;

Improved navigation to location information;

Notification of class cancellation;

The open ended findings provided evidence that the VLE tools can complement the student experience by not only addressing the learning requirements for a module but also ensure that the module is effective in communicating with students any administrative changes.

To undertake advanced statistical analysis, of the survey data, initially the internal reliability of the 22 options was computed and the findings revealed a very high Cronbach's Alpha of .956. Subsequently, correlation analysis revealed moderate (.2) to strong (.8) correlations between the various options on improving the VLE system. As multicollinearity (i.e. the correlations between the 22 options were not high enough to unduly influence the results) was not an issue the data needed to be screened for normality to apply factor analysis.

Test of Normality

Before any analysis was undertaken, the data file was screened for missing data and all missing responses were deleted from the data file; additionally, measures to determine the normality of the data were undertaken. This required ensuring that Skewness was less than +/- 3 and Kurtosis was less than +/- 10. Both conditions were met (see Table 4), thus, the data was appropriate for multivariate analysis.

Table 4: Test of Skewness and Kurtosis

		N	Mean	Skewness	Kurtosis
1	Lecture and seminar notes	266	5.65	-0.774	-0.041
2	additional notes and case studies	266	5.64	-0.624	-0.456
3	past exam papers	266	5.64	-0.882	0.372
4	answers to past exams papers	266	5.6	-0.818	0.122
5	Exam and assignment results	266	5.72	-0.877	0.111
6	Assignment criteria	266	5.72	-0.788	-0.144
7	Examples of good assignments	266	5.61	-0.79	0.031
8	List of academic sources that are useful	266	5.63	-0.775	-0.021
9	Assignment feedback	266	5.66	-0.787	-0.066
10	Calendar of module events (presentations)	266	5.59	-0.806	0.391
11	More module information	266	5.41	-0.293	-0.887
12	Audio recordings of lectures	266	5.05	-0.491	-0.483
13	Video recordings of lectures	266	4.95	-0.511	-0.533
14	Lectures should host regular online discussions	266	4.93	-0.435	-0.422
15	Lectures should clearly highlight their availability	266	5.47	-0.404	-0.659
16	Online quizzes to help students learn the subject	266	4.86	-0.392	-0.387
17	Links to useful websites	266	5.08	-0.303	-0.681
18	Students should be given opportunity to write blogs	266	4.64	-0.137	-0.641
19	Online learning should be personalised	266	4.83	-0.168	-0.68
20	Students should be allowed to vote on academic issues	266	4.85	-0.227	-0.811
21	There should be clear instructions on how to navigate online system	266	4.83	-0.198	-0.832
22	There should be a link to UNI admin	266	4.89	-0.301	-0.581

Test of Suitability of Data for Factor Analysis

To confirm the appropriateness of factor analysis a series of statistical assumptions were reviewed. The Bartlett's test of sphericity (BTS = 5674.81, $p < 0.0$), the Kaiser-Meyer Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO = 0.935) all indicated that the data was appropriate for conducting factor analysis for Oblique Rotation (Direct Oblim)

Variance Explained by Factor Analysis

Factor analysis using Oblique rotation (Direct Oblim) was employed as the correlation results revealed that the 22 items were correlated with each other. The factor analysis revealed THREE factors (see Table 6). The factor solutions further revealed a cumulative explained variance level of 74.01% (see Table 5) confirming the high level of agreement from the sample respondents.

Table 5: Factor groups identified and Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	11.819	53.722	53.722
2	2.888	13.126	66.848
3	1.576	7.166	74.014

Exploratory Factor Analysis: Factor Loading (Oblique)

The exploratory factor analysis (Oblique) revealed three factors (labelled: **1.Supplementary Course Material; 2) Online Engagement Activities; 3) Multimedia Resources**) (see Table 6). The factor loadings in each latent group revealed a high factor loading of greater than 0.5. The factor groups compliment the findings in the literature in relation to activities to engage students and offer a more multimedia experience through the provision of video material.

Table 6: Three Factor identified

Pattern Matrix ^a			
	Component		
	1	2	3
additional notes and case studies	0.931		
Exam and assignment results	0.928		
Lecture and seminar notes	0.927		
Assignment criteria	0.898		
past exam papers	0.871		
answers to past exams papers	0.858		
Examples of good assignments	0.813		
Assignment feedback	0.805		
List of academic sources that are useful	0.723		
Calendar of module events (presentations)	0.714		
Lectures should clearly highlight their availability	0.584		
More module information	0.503		
There should be clear instructions on how to navigate online system		0.906	
Students should be allowed to vote on academic issues		0.878	
Online learning should be personalised		0.855	
There should be a link to UNI admin		0.846	
Students should be given opportunity to write blogs		0.800	
Links to useful websites		0.767	
Online quizzes to help students learn the subject		0.671	
Video recordings of lectures			0.899
Audio recordings of lectures			0.869
Lectures should host regular online discussions			0.755

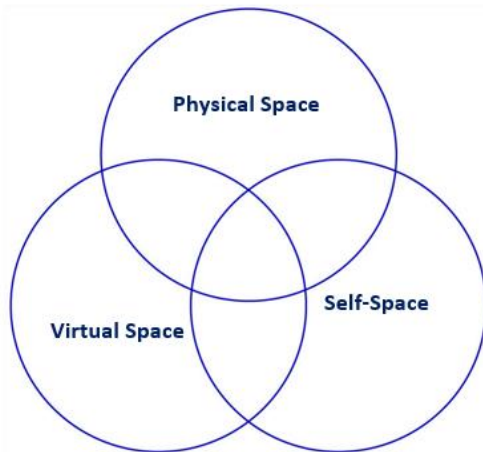
Discussion

This paper raises questions over the educational impact of the use of passive traditional virtual learning environment (VLE) environments such as Blackboard to engage students in context aware ubiquitous learning. The findings of this research provide insights into the three key areas that students would like to see improved on the current usage of module, available on Blackboard, that involve tutors investing in:

- 1) Supplementary Course Material;
- 2) Online Engagement Activities;
- 3) Multimedia Resources

The contemporary flipped learning model is providing good evidence of the positive impact on student performance (Tune et al., 2014). However, evidence from this research points to much investment and effort that is required to meet student expectations of e-learning systems. Especially, as highlighted in the literature, there are a plethora of online tools and platforms (mostly available free such as *Coursera*, *Futurelearn*) that offer students a much richer and deeper online learning experience. Consequently, this research proposes a new learning framework that incorporate traditional pedagogy delivery with e-learning and self-study (see Figure 2) to enrich the student experience.

Figure 2: Integrated Learning Framework



In terms of physical space this paper considers all the resources students and peers have at their disposal within the university campus such as lectures/seminars, labs, libraries, academic support, feedback, tutor time, etc. By virtual space we mean all the online platform that can be offered to students during the time of their learning program either via VLE or any other external virtual tool or third-party app. We argue that the self-space points to what goes on within the student's own world and their minds, their own motivations, their skills and capabilities, their ability to absorb and

capture key concepts and learning, etc. and how the external and virtual world are affecting their cognitive, emotive and neurologic capabilities.

The concept of the three spaces proposes that learning takes place not only in the realm of physical and virtual interaction but on the self and inner realm of student's own predisposition, cognitive capabilities, motivations, neuro-biology and psychology (feelings and emotions). This holistic overview of student learning offers universities an opportunity to be creative in the use of technology to engage and enhance the student learning journey in Higher Education.

Recommendations

As we enter a world of the Internet of Things (IOT) in which a multitude of devices will be connected to the internet that includes wearable technology. This will create new opportunities for Universities to develop material to engage their target audience. In which learning can take place anytime, anyplace and on almost any connected device. Based on the current findings the authors propose a number of recommendations to help universities attain an effective and impactful e-learning system for students, these include:

Development of a coherent vision and strategy for a VLE to enhance the student learning experience;

Agreement and articulation of the minimum expectations from any module that is offered on the VLE system;

Dedicated investment in training tutors to become familiar with the online learning systems and their range of tools to engage students;

Facilitating collaboration between tutors and media / multimedia designers to design visual content that captures the attention of users;

Utilising metric to capture the student engagement with the e-learning modules;

Development of pedagogical activities that capitalises on the capabilities of technology to engage and empower student learning independently.

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Effectiveness of Narrative Persuasion on Facebook: Change of Attitude and Intention Towards HPV

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Abstract

Information, detection and prevention are very important factors in sexually transmitted diseases such as human papillomavirus, which is linked to cervical cancer and other cancers (WHO, 2015). This paper aims to demonstrate empirically whether the use of narrative in new media, such as Facebook, produces a greater impact on attitudes and intention in sex education issues, such as human papillomavirus, than the same information presented in non-narrative. Also, the role of the viewer's *involvement* in this persuasive effect is analysed. A group of young university students was tested before and after viewing a Facebook profile on HPV in a narrative vs non-narrative format. The narrative proved to be more effective than the non-narrative, provoking a more positive attitude towards periodic medical check-ups and towards the intention of being tested for HPV. Additionally, narrative transportation proved to have a direct effect on attitude, while involvement with both the story and the character play a moderating role on intention. In conclusion, this paper demonstrates that structured narrative format in Facebook is an effective tool in the field of health education and prevention of HPV, which could also play a role in preventing cervical cancer.

Keywords: Effectiveness of Narrative Persuasion on Facebook Change of Attitude and Intention Towards HPV

Introduction

Human papillomavirus (HPV) is the most common sexually transmitted disease in the world. As the World Health Organization (WHO, 2015) indicates, most sexually active women and men will contract the infection at some point in their lives. There are

many types of HPV and the infection usually goes away without any intervention, but certain types of HPV can persist and cause cancer. This is important because more than 70% of cervical cancers contain human papillomavirus (Types 16 and 18). In 2012, the World Health Organization estimated that about 500,000 women are infected every year and that this cancer resulted in 270,000 deaths. The use of preventive measures (i.e. condom) is recommended for prevention, although it is only effective in 60-70% of the cases, since the virus can be transmitted by contact of genital areas that are not covered. In recent years, certain groups have reported alleged cases of side effects of the vaccine. Today, a continuous social debate has led countries like the US and Japan to withdraw the vaccine from immunization schedules, while in other countries as Mexico the government has launched public awareness campaigns targeting parents to vaccinate their children. This situation is reflected on the Internet in the form of comments, testimonies and various anti-vaccination movements.

A very important aspect of sexually transmitted diseases is awareness of the existence of the disease, its transmission and methods of prevention. The study by Stephens and Tomas (2014) evidences that most of the young women reported knowing about the vaccine knew little about the disease itself. Evers et al. (2013), in their research of the social network as a tool for sex education among young people, found that most people seek information after being infected and that there is a great misinformation around the disease, thereby causing prejudice and stigmatization (Evers, Albury, Byron and Crawford, 2013).

For all these reasons, it is essential to utilize effective strategies for the promotion of sexual health, while providing relevant information on HPV presented in an attractive way and using all available tools to help the public to understand, normalize and prevent future HPV-related cancers.

The Power of Narrative and Communication for Health

Throughout history, mankind has used different narratives to share information, change beliefs and inspire behaviours (Green and Brock, 2005). Through them, people experience emotional reactions similar to those experienced in everyday life in first person (Tan, 1996). Narratives have a great persuasive potential by involving the viewer in a story while offering information and behavioural patterns that an individual acquires vicariously or through modelling (Hackett and Lent, 1992; Bandura, 1995). According to Cognitive Social Theory (Bandura and Walters, 1977), the individual also learns by observing models, acquiring knowledge and skills without having to depend only on expensive direct experience. By observing a subject being rewarded for his behaviour the observers' behaviour is also reinforced; therefore, through observation of the models represented in a narrative, knowledge, values, cognitive abilities and new styles of behaviour are transmitted (Bandura, 2004; Schunk and Zimmerman, 1997). Narrative persuasion researches have shown that a message can be more persuasive if presented in narrative form rather than

explicitly announced (Slater and Rouner, 2002; Moyer-Gusé and Nabi, 2010; Oliver, Dillard, Bae and Tamul, 2012). The narrative, in addition to a structure, presents information about scenes, characters or unresolved conflicts and offers resolutions that serve as models (Bandura, 2004; Hackett and Lent, 1992). These researches show the effectiveness of storytelling for the transmission of knowledge, the acquisition of new values and the change of behaviour (Murphy, Frank, Moran and Patnoe, 2011; Niederdeppe, Shapiro and Porticella, 2011).

In the present research, we analyse the persuasive effectiveness of a narrative format versus a non-narrative format on a Facebook profile related to HPV content.

In order to study this persuasive effect, an experimental study has been carried out, presenting the same information but in two different ways: one Facebook profile containing information presented in a narrative format (by introducing a personal story of a patient who suffers HPV), and another identical version but in a non-narrative format.

Involvement of the viewer

According to the Extended Elaboration Probability Model (E-ELM) proposed by Slater and Rouner (2002), the persuasive capacity of the narrative is related to its ability to engage or involve the viewer. Green and Brock (2000) believe that someone who is involved will not reflect deeply on the implicit arguments, thereby facilitating the persuasive impact. Therefore, the degree which viewers are emotionally involved to, with a story and its characters, has an impact on the processing and effects of the message (Moyer-Gusé, Chung and Jain, 2011; Tal-Or and Cohen, 2010). Implication in narrative, reflects pre-existing beliefs, attitudes, and values, and makes us care about a topic and process the message more intensely (Sherif, Sherif and Nebergall, 1965). It is also defined as the degree of concern for the story and its characters, the way in which it develops and what it means (Slater and Rouner, 2002). When people are "involved," they focus on the message and react emotionally, pay attention to it, get caught up in the action and identify with the character (Bryant and Comisky, 1978). Other research has examined the involvement of the audience as *parasocial interaction* (PSI), a perceived friendship between a member of the audience and the character (Horton and Wohl, 1956). So, we can define the involvement of the viewer as an affective, cognitive and behavioural participation produced during the exposure to a message (Rubin and Perse, 1987).

1.2.1. Implication with the story

Narrative transportation, or transportation, also defined as *commitment, immersion* or *absorption* by a narrative (Bandura, 2004; Gerrig, 1993; Slater and Rouner, 2002), refers to the interest by which the spectators follow the events presented in the story (Green and Block, 2000). When transportation occurs, acceptance of the message increases without thorough reflection. Related to its persuasive effects, transportation increases the perception of realism (Green, Brock and Kaufman,

2004), helps with character identification (Green, 2006) and modulates factors such as perceived self-efficacy and feelings of vulnerability (Moyer-Gusé and Lather, 2011; Murphy, Frank, Chatterjee and Baezconde-Garbanati, 2013).

1.2.2. Involvement with the character

Involvement with the character increases attention span, serves as a mental rehearsal and models behaviour (Sharf, Freimuth, Greenspon, and Plotnick, 1996; Sood, 2002). Some authors define it as the spectator assuming the role of a character and substituting their identity as an audience member with that of the character (Cohen, 2001). Staler and Rouner (2002) define it as the process by which an individual perceives the character's similarities to him, or considers the character as someone to have a social relationship with. For our research, we refer to the work made by Moyer-Gusé (Moyer-Gusé 2008; Moyer-Gusé et al., 2011) that considers identification, wishful identification, perceived similarity, parasocial interaction and liking as essential components of the viewer's involvement with a character.

Identification with the character: the spectator experiences what happens to the character by vicariously participating in events in the narrative and replacing his own personal identity with the character's (Cohen, 2001, 2006). The character becomes a model that allows the viewer to imagine himself in the same situation (Bandura, 1986), which increases the likelihood that the viewer will accept the beliefs and attitudes implied in the narrative (Tal-Or and Cohen, 2010; Murphy et al., 2013; Moyer-Gusé, 2008; Graaf, Hoeken, Sanders and Beentjes, 2012). Works such as Suruchi Sood (2002) on the consumption of a radio series called *Tinka Tinka Sunk*, which deals with issues such as the situation of women in India, dowry, family and community, show that when the audience identifies with the characters and the story, they are involved and evaluate the series in terms of their own lives, provoking reflection on the themes and changes in behaviour.

Wishful identification: the viewer admires the character and wants to be or act like him (Giles, 2002; Hoffner and Buchanan, 2005). Researches have shown that audience members change their appearance, attitudes, values and behaviour to resemble celebrities they admire (Boone and Lomore, 2001; Basil, 1996). Cognitive Social Theory states that viewers want to emulate attractive and successful models (Bandura, 1986). Hoffner and Buchanan (2005), in their research on the wishful identification, found that attributes such as intelligence, success, attractiveness, respect and popularity play an important role in the formation of impressions, finding that both men and women feel a greater identification of wishful towards characters perceived as successful and admired by others.

Perceived similarity: It is a cognitive evaluation of what one has in common with the character (Cohen, 2001). This degree of similarity can occur in relation to physical attributes, demographic variables, situations or personality traits (Eyal and Rubín, 2003; Turner, 1993). Similarity enhances the likelihood of a model being imitated

(Bandura, 2004; Hoffner and Buchanan, 2005) and its values and beliefs will be taken into account (Moyer-Gusé, 2008).

Parasocial Interaction (PSI): It was initially described as the apparent "face-to-face" relationship between the spectator and the interpreter during a media situation (Horton and Wohl, 1956), although later researches use it to refer to an affective bond which persists outside the context of media use (Giles, 2002). This interaction has similar characteristics to a traditional interpersonal relationship, with the exception of reciprocity, which makes the viewers to perceive a character as part of their social life and affects their emotions and behaviours (Hoffner and Tian, 2010; Rubin, Perse and Powell, 1985). In two studies about PSI and its relationship to loneliness or grief in a forced break between the spectator and a character due to a writers' strike, or the disappearance of the character, it has been verified that these breaks can be compared with those in real-life relationships (Eyal and Cohen, 2006; Moyer-Gusé and Lather, 2011). PSI has also been shown to influence engagement and identification with the characters (Nabi and Kremer, 2004), which facilitates the acceptance of stigmatized groups through parasocial contact (Schiappa, Gregg, and Hewes, 2005) and increases satisfaction with the media (Hartmann and Goldhoorn, 2011).

Liking: It refers to a positive evaluation of the character and reflects an affective, cognitive and behavioural reaction (Cohen, 2001; Giles, 2002; Hoffner and Cantor, 1991, Nabi and Kremer, 2004). Although, as Eagly and Chaiken (1993) indicate, this assessment can also be negative, manifesting as disapproval or rejection. Usually, we are attracted to admirable or socially successful characters, and by those we share values, experiences or attitudes with (Bandura, 2001). We like characters whose actions and motivations we judge as appropriate (Hoffner and Cantor, 1991), although if we like a character we are able to provide a moral justification for their inappropriateness (Krakowiak and Tsay-Vogel, 2013). Researches show that liking makes the viewpoints, attitudes and actions of the characters better valued and taken into account (Hoffner and Tian, 2010; Moyer-Gusé et al., 2011).

Narrative in digital media

The development of the Internet has led to the emergence of diverse platforms that enhance the participation and interaction of users, such as social networks. These are virtual communities that provide information, connect people and present new ways of communication and expression (Salamanca, 2004). Studies on mediation and narrative in social networks show that they are new foundations on which to build or show stories (De Fina and Georgakopoulou, 2015; Shlezak, 2015; Jong, 2015). These new forms of narrative or storytelling are being analysed by communication researchers for the promotion of healthier behaviours in relation to gender, sexual health and weight control (Russo and Illanes, 2013; Merchant et al., 2014; Gold et al., 2012). These stories work through words, images and sounds, regardless of the interface (Barthes, 1991; Page, 2010) and are tools for spreading knowledge, culture and points of view (Toliano, 2009). They appeal to emotions, persuade and change

opinion (Salmon, 2008). They also serve to transmit knowledge and experiences and help people to relate with each other.

Due to its popularity, its ability to distribute different strategies and its ability to adapt content, Facebook has a great potential for promoting health-related behavioural changes (Merchant et al., 2014; Ballantine and Stephenson, 2011; Valle, Tate, Mayer, Allicock and Cai, 2013; Langley, Wijn, Epskamp and Van Bork, 2015). Through these stories on Facebook we can connect with other people and connect these people with our own experiences. Research (Gold et al. 2012) has shown the persuasive effect of narrative on Facebook for the promotion of sex education by presenting information through characters that take shape in a Facebook profile. These narratives can result in acquired knowledge, personal reflection and shared patterns of behaviour and beliefs (Salmon, 2008).

Method

Objectives, Hypotheses and Research Questions

The objective of this study was to analyse if the exposure to a narrative about HPV on a Facebook profile provokes a greater effect than an identical profile presented in a non-narrative format.

We analysed the effect to this exposure by measuring the change in attitude towards medical check-ups as well as the intention of being tested for HPV.

The roles of the following variables were also investigated: 1) involvement of the spectator with the narrative (*transportation*), 2) identification, 3) similarity 4) wishful identification 5) PSI and 6) liking.

The following hypotheses and research questions (RQ) were proposed:

HP1: *Exposure to HPV narrative content on a Facebook profile will cause greater effects on the attitude towards the importance of periodical medical check-ups than a non-narrative profile.*

HP2: *Exposure to HPV narrative content on a Facebook profile will cause greater effects on the intent to get tested for HPV than a non-narrative profile.*

RQ1: *What is the Role of Transportation, Identification, Similarity, Wishful identification, PSI and Liking in Attitude Toward Periodical Medical Check-ups?*

RQ2: *What is the Role of Transportation, Identification, Similarity, Wishful identification, PSI, and Liking in intention toward HPV testing?*

Procedures and Sample

One hundred and fourteen student volunteers from Complutense University of Madrid: 18 to 23 years old ($M = 19.18$, $SD = 1.46$), 75% female and 25% male.

An inter-subject one-factor design was used. The independent variable was defined as "format type", presenting two levels: narrative format (through the experience of a "real person") *versus* non-narrative (presented in an institutional style).

In the *narrative format*, information was presented through videos and stories narrated by a female university student very similar to the participants, whereas in the *non-narrative format* it was presented in videos or images without real people. In both cases it was verified that the information was identical in content¹.

The sample was randomly divided into two groups: one was assigned to be presented with the content in a *narrative format* and the other one (control group) in a *non-narrative manner*. The control group (non-narrative format) was informed that it was written by an institutional Facebook administer, while the experimental group (narrative format) was told that it was written by a young girl.

Both groups were exposed to a standardized browsing projection of the Facebook profiles by one of our research members. Each group observed their assigned profile for ten minutes and under identical conditions (e.g. number of clicks, browsing pathways, time spent on each post).

Prior to exposure, participants completed a pre-test questionnaire about their knowledge of HPV, their attitude towards screening and behaviour towards HPV testing. After viewing the Facebook profile, the subjects completed a post-test questionnaire collecting their reactions to the profile, knowledge, attitude and intention related to HPV testing.

All the subjects were thoroughly debriefed at the end of the session.

Stimulus

Two Facebook profiles were created offering the same information about HPV: its relationship to cervical cancer, general information about medical check-ups and prevention, and beliefs or prejudices related to talking about HPV or having HPV. Both profiles consisted of the same number and types of publications (videos, images, links to specialized sources and informative posters). In the narrative profile, the story of a real person was presented: a girl who has been recently diagnosed with HPV and is waiting for the test results to find out the type she has. She posts to her profile, telling her story with publications and videos explaining what HPV is and providing information about testing, prevention and diagnosis. She talks about her conversations with her family, friends and partner about prejudices, the importance of the vaccination and what to do if you have been diagnosed with it. The non-narrative format profile is portrayed on a formal-institutional tone, providing the same number of videos and the same publications, with more impersonal language in all posts. In order to accomplish this, new videos were created to replace those presented by the aforementioned female character in the narrative profile but containing the same information and lasting the same amount of time.

Measures

Attitude

We used a 7-point Likert scale adapted from others (Murphy et al., 2011). The questions measure young people's perception of the importance of routine medical check-ups, having HPV support, feelings of embarrassment or shame about having HPV, and asking their partner to get tested. Example of items presented included: "*It is important for me to have periodic HPV screenings*". It was evaluated in both the pre-test (Cronbach's alpha= .67) and the post-test (Cronbach's alpha = .78).

Intention

Pre- and post-test were evaluated using a 7-point Likert scale adapted from others (Murphy et al., 2011; Moyer-Gusé et al., 2011) and measured behaviours as talking about HPV or HPV testing with items such as: "*Currently, I'm likely to get tested for HPV*". (Cronbach's alpha pre-test= .80; Cronbach's alpha post-test= .72)

Transportation

Post-test was measured using an adaptation of the Green and Brock scale (2000), from which 6 items were used on a 7-point Likert scale. The statements were adapted according to the type of profile. Some examples of the items used include: "*I was mentally involved in the story*" (narrative format)/ "*I was mentally involved in the information*" (non-narrative format). (Cronbach's alpha= .84)

Identification

Six items from the identification scale proposed by Cohen (2001) on a 5-point Likert scale were used. Examples: "*I could understand the events of the program similarly to how Maria understood them*" (narrative)/ "*I could understand the events of the program similarly to how the institution understood them.*" (non-narrative). (Cronbach's alpha= .78)

Wishful identification

Four items from the Hoffner and Buchanan (2005) adaptation of Hoffner's (1996) wishful identification scale were used, also on a 5-point Likert scale. Example: "*María is the type of person I would like to be*" (narrative); "*The institution represents the kind of person I would like to be*" (non-narrative). (Cronbach's alpha= .89)

Similarity.

Seven items from the similarity scale of McCroskey, Richmond and Daly (1975) were used, on a 7-point Likert scale. Example: "*María thinks like I do*" (narrative); "*The position of the institution is the same as I think*" (non-narrative). (Cronbach Alpha=.81)

Parasocial interaction (PSI).

An adaptation of the PSI scale of Rubin and Perse (1987) and its adaptation by Sood (2002) was used. It consisted of 6 items on a 5-point Likert scale. Example: "*When*

María shows how she feels about something, she helps me to form my own opinion on that subject" (narrative); "When the institution shows something, it helps me to form my own opinion on that subject" (non-narrative). (Cronbach's alpha = .75)

Liking

We used a 5-point Likert scale adapted from other researches (Zillmann and Bryant, 1975; Krakowiak and Tsay-Vogel, 2013; Hoffner and Buchanan, 2005), with a total of 6 items such as: "Maria seems attractive" (narrative)/ "The institution seems attractive." (non-narrative). (Cronbach Alpha = .80)

Analysis and results

Effects of narrative type on attitude and behaviour

Hypothesis 1 was confirmed: exposure to a narrative format causes greater effects on the attitude towards the importance of routine medical check-ups than exposure to a non-narrative profile. The Wilcoxon test showed that the attitude towards the importance of HPV check-ups in the narrative profile significantly increased between the assessments made before (\bar{x} = 3.90) and after (\bar{x} = 5.36) the exposure to the stimulus ($p < 0.05$), while in the non-narrative profile this change was lower (from \bar{x} = 4.07 to \bar{x} = 4.78).

Hypothesis 2 was also confirmed: exposure to a narrative format causes greater effects on the intention to get tested for HPV than a non-narrative profile. The Wilcoxon test showed that intention increased from 3.60 to 5.02 ($p < 0.05$). In the non-narrative profile the change was also lower (from \bar{x} = 3.13 to \bar{x} = 4.01).

The role of transportation, identification, similarity, wishful identification, PSI and liking

The research questions proposed in our study investigate the impact of 1) transportation, (2) identification, (3) similarity, (4) Wishful identification, (5) PSI and (6) liking on attitude towards medical check-ups. The role these variables may play on the intention to get tested for HPV was also analysed.

An analysis of bivariate correlations for each of the variables was performed.

The data in table 1 shows a significant positive correlation ($p < .05$) between *transportation* and *attitude towards check-ups* ($r = 0.330$; $p = .033$). The variable *identification* shows a significant but less dramatic relationship ($r = 0.252$, $p = .10$). On Table 2, effects of these variables (Transportation, Identification, Similarity, Wishful identification, PSI and Liking) on *intention of being tested* show a significant correlation of *transportation*, *identification* and *PSI*.

Discussion

The importance of the narrative format

The way in which narrative influences in attitude and behaviour of viewers have been analysed by many researchers; however, most of the works have been based on traditional media: television, film and radio (Moyer-Gusé, 2008; Sood, 2002). The aim

of this study was to examine the efficacy of narrative in new media, such as social networks. It also aimed to investigate the effect of narrative vs. non-narrative information on a Facebook profile. Additionally, the role of the viewer's involvement with the story and with the character was analysed.

Our study revealed the greater effectiveness of using a narrative format in these new digital platforms.

Although both profiles provoked an increase in levels of attitude and intention, participants who received the information in a *narrative format* showed a significantly greater change, both in their attitude towards routine medical check-ups and in their intention to get tested for HPV. These data relate to other studies where narrative vs. non-narrative format has demonstrated to persuade more effectively in conventional media (Murphy et al., 2013; Niederdeppe et al., 2011; Oliver et al., 2012; Moyer-Gusé and Nabi, 2010).

The consequences of our results are very relevant, since they seem to indicate the importance of creating narrative format in social media. For example, these types of Facebook profiles could be created by official institutions. It is a question of allowing digital media users themselves to generate processes of mutual persuasion. These procedures imply empowering certain individuals to act as social mediators in health promotion programs. Moreover, this proposal aligns well with current social movements of citizen's shared responsibilities in their health care.

Understanding the power of narrative

Researches in the field of narrative persuasion attempts to determine a theoretical framework for understanding the *intrinsic* mechanisms of the power of narrative (Tal-Or and Cohen, 2010; Green, Strange and Brock, 2002; Dahlstrom, 2012). The results of our study confirm that *transportation* and *identification* are related to attitude change towards medical check-ups, on a social media platform such as Facebook.

Our data also confirm that it is necessary to produce transportation and identification to provoke behavioural changes, but it is also necessary to establish PSI. In other words, in order for the intention to change, the PSI variable acquires special relevance.

Future researches should explore this result, but a reasonable explanation might be as follows: PSI is conceptually very closely related to behavioural execution, as is defined as the imaginary interaction with the character. This symbolic interaction would mobilize the intention to change behaviour.

If this hypothesis is verified, the practical consequences are very relevant. They would indicate the importance of using narratives and models that favour PSI. As we have seen, this situation will only occur if it is possible to provoke transportation and identification with a character. In this sense, it would be necessary to get the active participation of the young people in the health promotion campaigns. It is a question

of empowering people themselves to control *their own* health, in line with recent proposals for social co-responsibility and health.

Study limitations and future research directions

This paper presents some limitations to be considered in future researches. In the first place, it would be advisable to use a larger and more diversified sample in order to obtain broader conclusions about the *new digital narrative* and their effect of HPV prevention campaigns. Secondly, because of the nature of Facebook, it would be useful to stimulate the subjects over a longer period of time to analyse the effects of long term exposition. It would have also been interesting to conduct an analysis of users' behaviour towards HPV testing or check-ups after a period of time, which would show if that change in behavioural intent becomes a real behavioural change. Finally, the importance of the PSI variable should be analysed in depth and test if the advanced hypothesis in this study is confirmed.

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Footnotes

Examples of the same video for the two different Facebook profiles:
<https://drive.google.com/open?id=0B7JvnBraOKcYdElUT2l2M2lTQ0k> (narrative format) <https://drive.google.com/open?id=0B7JvnBraOKcYNGRaVEjVUjRYUkk> (non-narrative format)

1Tables

Table 1. Spearman correlations between the six variables analyzed and the *attitude toward check-ups*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Attitude	-						
2. Transportation	.330**	-					
3. Identification	.252*	.672***	-				
4. Similarity	-.046	.400***	.387**	-			
5. Wishful	.232	.334**	.472***	.413***	-		
6. PSI	.169	.386**	.509***	.540***	.654***	-	
7. Liking	.073	.281	.320**	.337**	.459***	.585***	-

* Significant correlation at the level .10 (bilateral)

** Significant correlation at the level .05 (bilateral)

*** Significant correlation at the level .001 (bilateral)

Table 2. Spearman correlations between the seven variables analysed and the *intention of being tested for HPV*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Intention	-						
2. Transportation	.324**	-					
3. Identification	.368**	.774***	-				
4. Similarity	.211	.614***	.533***	-			
5. Wishful	.300	.336**	.471***	.462***	-		
6. PSI	.397***	.511***	.583***	.599***	.623***	-	
7. Liking	.248	.366**	.402**	.430***	.480***	.589***	-

* Significant correlation at the level .10 (bilateral)

** Significant correlation at the level .05 (bilateral)

*** Significant correlation at the level .001 (bilateral)

¹ V Duka, *Historia e Shqipërisë 1912- 2000*, Kristalina-KH, Tiranë, 2008, p. 370.

Impact of Time Management on Personal Development of Master's Degree Students

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Abstract

In juvenile age time management has significant impact on the personal development abilities not only in current period, but throughout the life. Goal of the work is to establish the reasonability of Master's degree students' development and correctness of distribution of their time proceeding from scheduled goals on the basis of Master's degree students' time budget analysis. According to individual priorities the personal development depends on reasonably formed balance between physical, spiritual, vocational, social, mental, emotional development and in no circumstances on absolute disregard of one or another factor. At consequent life stages an even development of the individual has an impact on his (her) physical, mental health and working capacity. 523 Master's degree students of Georgian State University in the capital and regions were subjects of research. Study of 48% of time budget of active students of biggest Georgian university actually gives us detailed picture of state-of-the-art. To what extent do students perceive this stage of their personal development? Time management characteristics directly or indirectly show us, to what extent student are able to control their own development and balance the life. Do they comprehend short-term, long-term goals and plans, or not? How do they distribute their time at work, during study, when resting, doing sports, sleeping, when satisfying their cultural and spiritual requirements or accomplishing short-term or long-term plans? How much time do they lose senselessly during a day, what is their nutrition regime and sleeping schedule? Conclusions and future forecasts obtained on the basis of research contain important and relevant information and recommendations not only for individuals of specific groups, but also in general, on functioning of systems regulating various spheres, especially education and labor.

Keywords: Management, Time Management, Personal Development, Human Potential Management

Introduction

Success, a person's happiness is directly related to the fulfillment of his/her objectives and the level of satisfaction that can be connected directly to the Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs from Physiological to Transcendence, Alderfer's Hierarchy of Motivational Needs or McClelland's Theory. **(Robbins, Stephen; Coulter, Mary, 2012)**

Satisfaction of the needs, except the external (unmanageable) factors is directly related to the level of spiritual, emotional, mental, physical and social development and is expressed in correct combination skill of three variables: purpose, potential, policy (Figure1) (Gulua, Ekaterine, 2016).

The purpose implies setting goals correctly which leads to the fulfillment of dreams;

Potential is the exact analysis of real possibilities.

Policy involves strategy, methodical and tactical ways through which we will broaden the possibilities, achieve goals and maintain achievements.

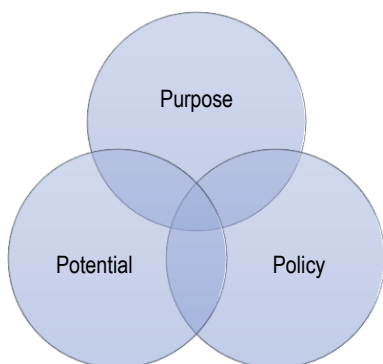


Figure1. Determinants of Success

All three above mentioned determinants are characterized by a specific time frame, beyond which they simply lose sense. The ability to make timely execution of the right actions is an important condition for a person's success and shows his/her level of development, in general a person's potential.

It is important for a person to make his/her own life as a cycle of continuous improvement: diagnose, prioritize, set objectives, action, evaluate (Adair & Allen, 1999) **pg.79**), to cope with changing challenges and retain the level of achieved success.

Time management level is a significant indicator of the level of personal development and potential. The purpose of our research was exactly this: to study the structure of MA students' time budget and their attitude towards time management. The research was conducted by **Human Potential Management Laboratory (HPML)** Ivane

Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Faculty of Economics and Business. The research was preceded by early studies about students' 'problems, as well as the qualitative analysis of the specific focus groups' time budget. We have developed the following hypotheses:

Employed students are intensively experiencing a shortage of time;

Workability and learning ability of employed students are reduced;

The most important part of the majority of students' time is monotonous and does not provide multilateral development.

We made a questionnaire that included 37 closed questions. We chose the students of economics and business faculty as research objectives. The survey was conducted at 5 largest state universities: TSU – Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, GTU – Georgian Technical University, GSTU – Gori State Teaching University, TeSaU – Telavi Iakob Gogebashvili State University, BSU – Batumi Shota Rustaveli State University. The survey covered 523 MA students. The study was conducted in April-May 2016.

In these universities, 1094 active students were enrolled in Economics and Business at that moment. The number of respondents amounted to 47.8%. The percentage ratio of respondents is unequal and takes a large share (60%), TSU, and GT (21%), which is largely conditioned by the fact that the sizes of the studied universities are significantly different. The percentage share of respondents among active students is shown in Table N1.

Table N1	Number of Active Students	Number of Interviewed Students	Percentage of Interviewed Students
TSU	522	313	59.9%
GTU	402	111	27.6%
GSSU	40	37	92.5%
TeSau	31	27	87%
BSU	99	35	35,3%

The number of interviewed freshmen was 48% and the number of sophomores was 52% (**Figure 2**). 82% of respondents were employed and only 18% were not employed (**Figure 3**). Based on the analysis of the database, it was clear that the majority of the employed MA students' GPI was lower than 2, while the majority of unemployed MA students' GPA is higher than 3. We also found out that 91% of employees are working full-time, which means 9-hour working day, normally from 9am to 6pm, by Georgian legislation (**Labour Code of Georgia**).

Figure 2. Interviewed MA students according to the course

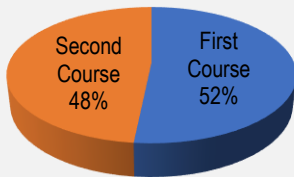
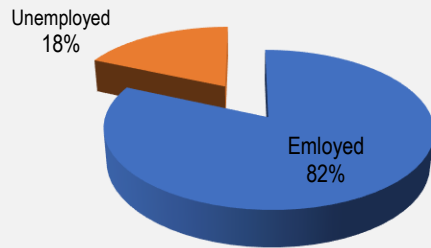


Figure 3. Are You Employed?



As for the studying at universities, it includes attending lectures/seminars, every day for 4 hours except Sunday. MA students' daily auditorial load during 6 days is 24 hours. Students at the universities that we studied except Telavi University start at 5 or 6pm and end at 9pm. Of course it seems that employed students' (majority of students') time schedule is not taken into consideration. Employed students complete their work at 6pm and need at least some extra time for traveling during rushing hours. The observation has shown that employed students often miss lectures and seminars, or appear no earlier than 7pm. Their vast majority (70%) spend 1-2 hours at lectures and seminars. (Figure 4). 65% spend 6 hours a week at lectures. Which is a quarter of their actual loading. (Figure 5).

Figure 4. For how many hours are you at the lecture?

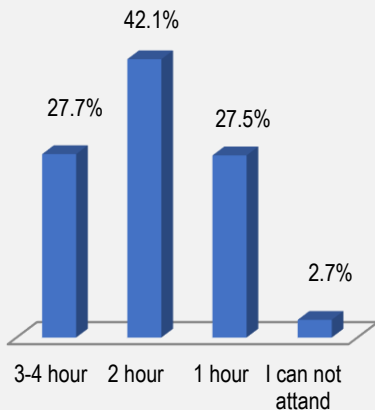
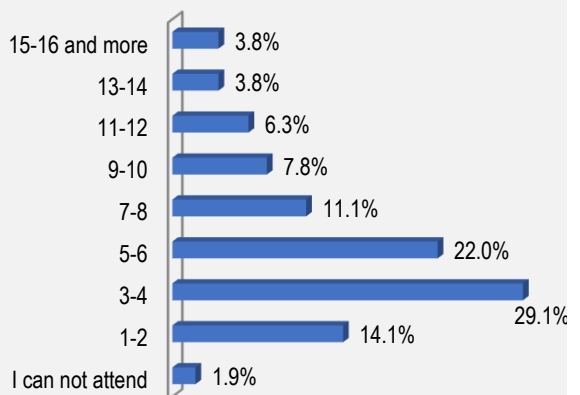
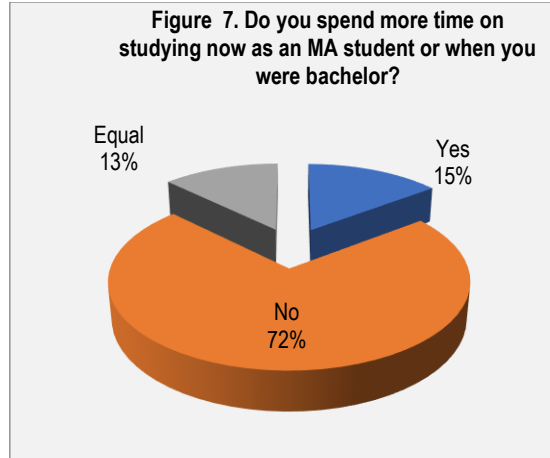
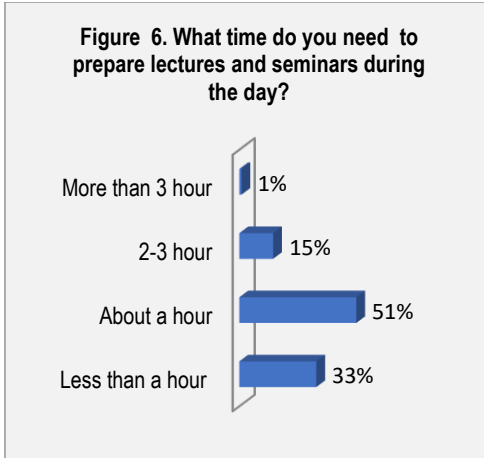


Figure 5. How many lectures (hours) do you attend a week?

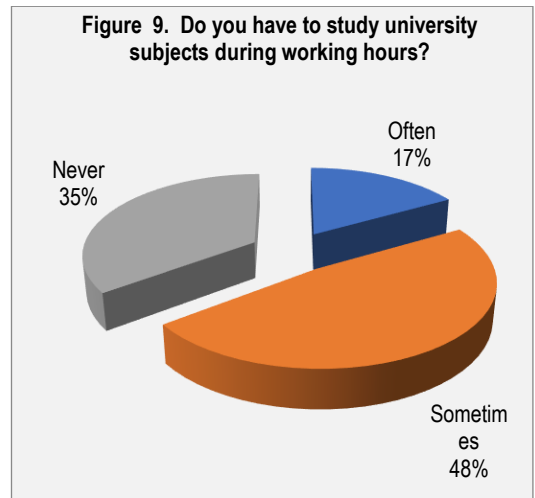
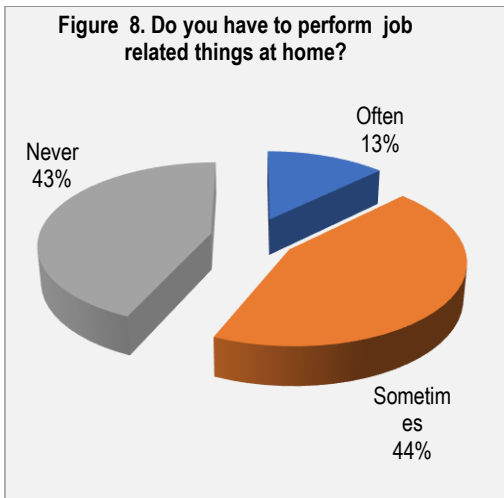


Most of the interviewed MA students (51%) spend about one hour and 33% spend less than one hour per day for studying (Figure 6). Their vast majority (72%) states that they learned more when they were undergraduates (Figure 7).

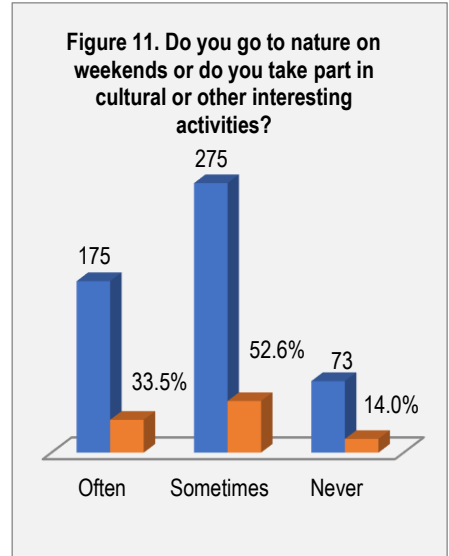
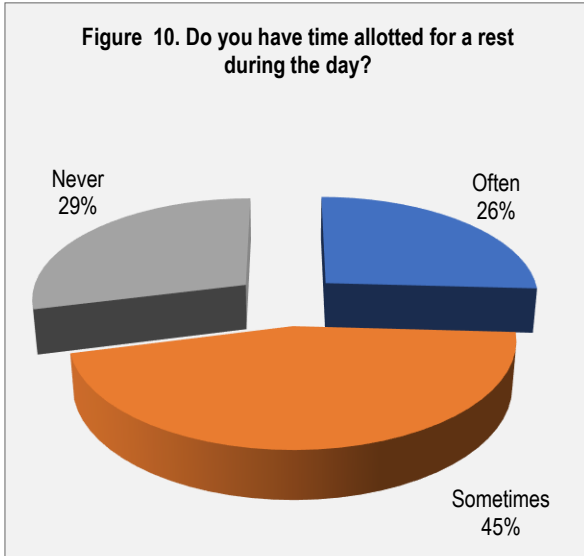
Apart from compulsory textbooks, 22% of respondents cannot use additional literature, 61% sometimes use it, 17% often use it, this is mainly the part of respondents who are not employed.



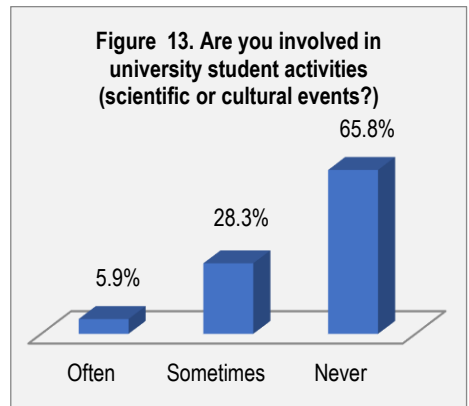
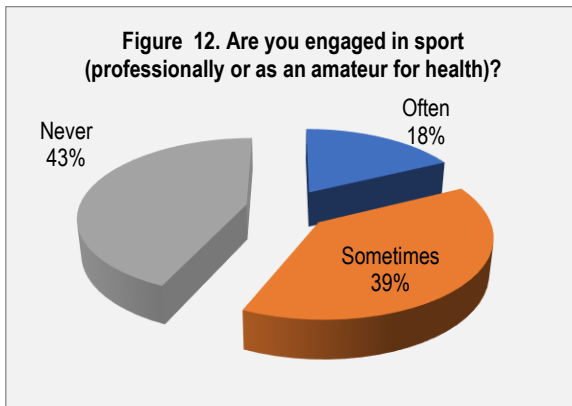
It is natural and it is clear from the research that 57% of employed students have to do job related things at home too (**Figure 8**). And 65% have to study university subjects at work (**Figure 9**).



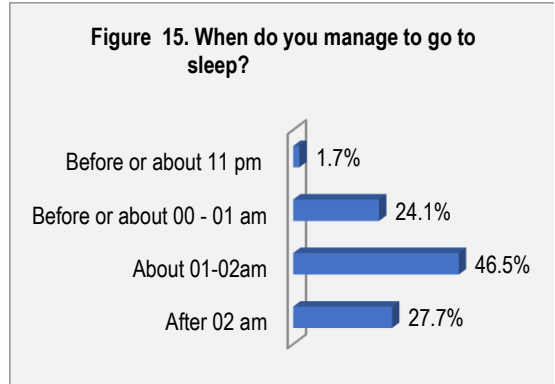
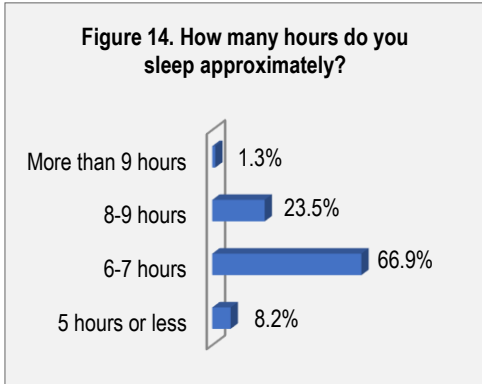
As for the break, during the day 25.9% have a break frequently, 45.2% - sometimes, unable to rest 28.9% (**Figure 10**). 34% are often able to go to nature, take part in cultural or other interesting activities on weekends. The majority of respondents (53%) are sometimes able to spend their weekends interestingly, and 14% report that they can not do it at all. In addition, the objective reality is that the largest majority of them have lectures in the first half of the day on Saturdays (**Figure 11**).



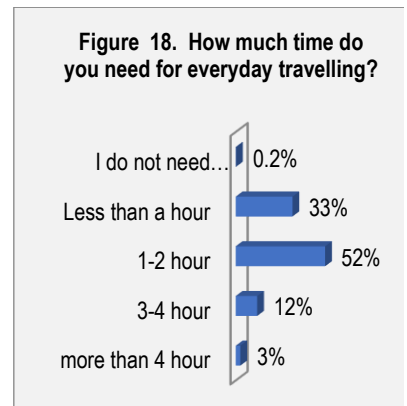
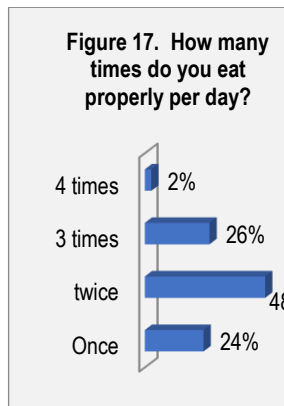
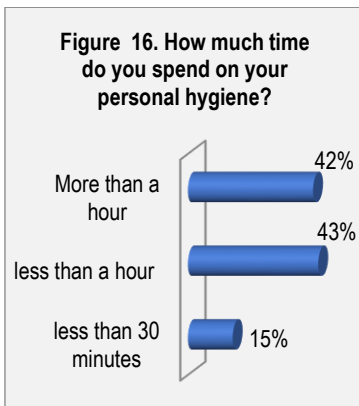
18% of students are regularly engaged in sport, 39% are irregularly engaged in sports, 43% of students are not engaged in sports at all (**Figure 12**), which directly indicates the need for popularizing a healthy lifestyle among young people. Also, at universities there are fewer opportunities for students to take part in cultural events, extra-curricular scientific activities, it does not happen regularly. Only 6% of the interviewed respondents are active in this regard, 66% never participate in such necessary activities (**Figure 13**).



For the stable personal development of young people it is important for them to have a regulated sleep regime and it should last up to 8 hours. The study has shown that 67% sleep for 6-7 hours, 8.2% sleep less than 5 hours (**Figure 14**), 47% go to sleep at 01-02am and 28% - later (**Figure 15**).



During the day taking care of hygiene needs some time, for most of the respondents it is one hour on average (**Figure 16**). As far as nutrition is concerned, the majority of students eat twice a day, but they were reporting in the comments that they cannot eat healthily even once a day (**Figure 17**). 52% spend 1-2 hours for transportation. Only 0.2% do not need transportation (**Figure 18**), which is due to the fact that universities have no regulated campuses.



In the unforeseen cases, the vast majority of students-91% lose 1-2 hours (**Figure 19**). 69% spend 1-2 hours on social networking during the day, 3 hours and more are spent by almost 30% (**Figure 20**).

Figure 19. How much of your time is lost on daily unforeseen activities?

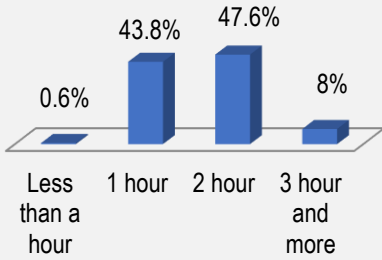
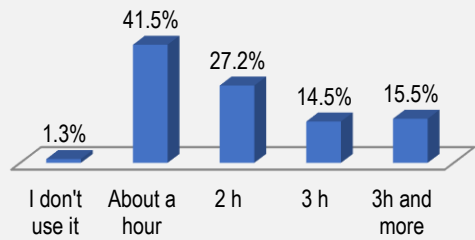
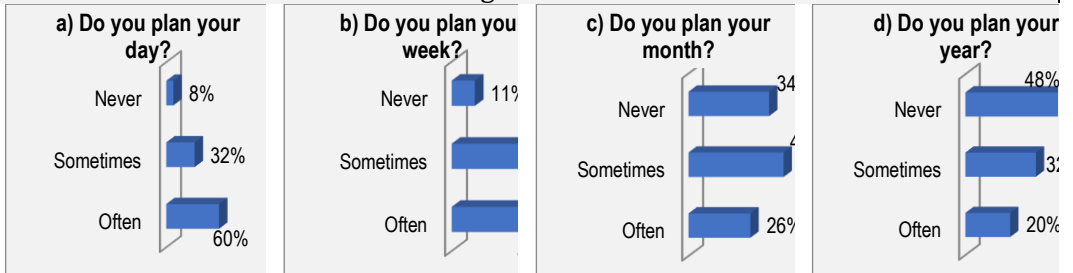


Figure 20. How much time do you spend on social networking during the day?



To find out how consciously the students manage their time budget we asked them if they were planning their day, week, month, year. The results showed that 60% of students often plan their day, 45% - their week, 26% - their month and 20% - their year. Only 8% of respondents never plan their day, 11% - their week, 34% - their month, 48% - their year (**Figure 21**).

Figure 21.



Despite the fact that the number of planner students is not so small, the study showed that only 15% of the respondents have enough time for carrying out the work that they had previously planned (Diagram 22). 17% never have to postpone the planned activities (**Figure 23**).

Figure 22. Do you have enough time for carrying out the planned activities?

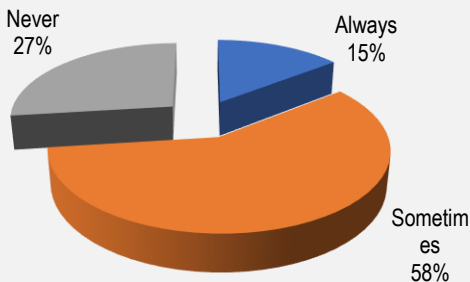
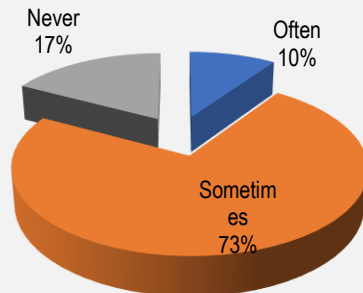
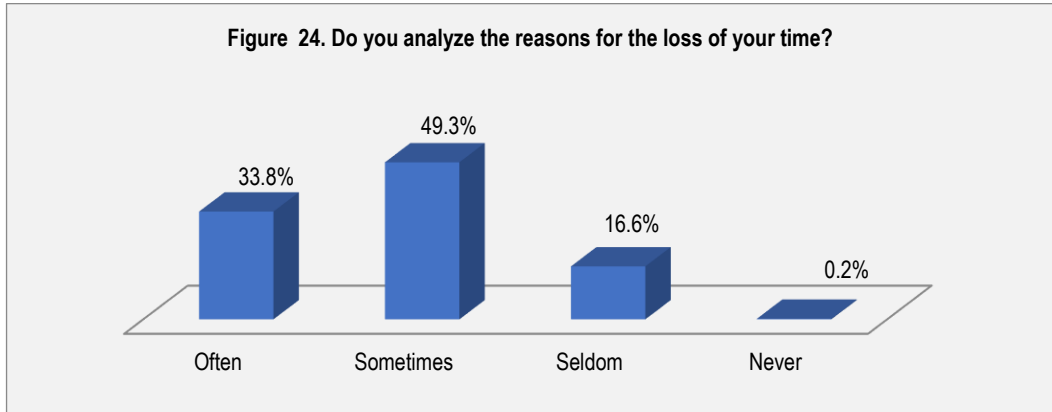


Figure 23. Do you often have to postpone planned activities?



When asked whether they tried to analyze their time loss 34% responded positively and 49% sometimes analyzed the reasons for loss of their time (**Figure 24**).



Unfortunately, all three hypotheses have been confirmed as a result of students' time budget analysis. It has been revealed that during the working days, which include 5 days a week, essential activities take 23 hours a day. The majority of respondents claim that its structure is as follows: sleep - 6.5 hours; Job - 9 hrs; Attending lectures - 4 hrs, transportation - 1.5 hrs; Hygiene - 1 hr; eating - 1 hour, which in total make 23 hours. The majority of respondents also report that they are not intensively engaged in sports, other cultural or student activities, they spend 1.5 hours on unforeseen cases, 1-2 hours on social networks. Only this data is enough to conclude that the students' time budget structure contains monotonous activities. Their time budget structure is irrational. It does not consider the alternation of mental, physical and spiritual loading. In case of a full attendance at work and lectures (in total $4 + 9 = 13$ hrs) there is no place for physical activities, learning, and relaxing. They are constantly in a force majeure situation under constant pressure and high stress. In a long time, such loading will certainly cause a person's exhaustion, desperation, and a significant decrease in working ability, learning, and subsequent worsening of stable development skills.

The maturity level of the country's development, perspective of sustainable development is revealed in the form of public relations, with a person's values, physical, mental, spiritual development of the individual and the possibilities of realizing his/her potential. The results of caring for the basis of progress development of human are reflected on the following indicators (**Economic Intelligence Unit, 2015**): 1. Demography; 2. Quality of compulsory education; 3. Higher education quality; 4. Quality of work force; 5. Environmental status of talent realization. 6. The country's willingness to be engaged in the free trade area of labor 7. The willingness of the country to attract talents. The issues we examined are directly reflected on the quality of higher education; Level of work force, environmental conditions for realization of talents. The results showed a sad reality, important work should be

done to normalize the situation. The data obtained as a result of the survey provided the opportunity to make conclusions in many directions, the problem of necessity of studying self-management at the earliest age for young people has been singled out by us (Kharadze, Natalia; Gulua, Ekaterine, 2016). The study gave us the opportunity to study specific challenges in each university (**Kharadze, Natalia; Gulua, Ekaterine, 2017**). The research provided us with a prerequisite to learn about the challenges faced by the students in general thoroughly. We have identified 25 important challenges that should be taken into account in the management process of the universities. (Gulua, Ekaterine, 2017) The current situation, the challenges faced by organizations, students and in general employees are directly related to the collapse of the Soviet economy and the lack of knowledge of building new economic relations. Experience of individuals, society, organizations and institutions on which the development of European countries is based is scarce in Georgia as in a post-Soviet country. There are significant deficiencies and regulations are needed, healthier frameworks are necessary for the forms of relationships between the economic subjects, the "rules of the game", which ultimately will be revealed in the forms of doing business, organizational culture and development potential (Gulua, Ekaterine; Kharadze, Natalia, 2014).

References

Recommendations can be divided into four groups based on the analysis of the results obtained from the study:

1. The first one refers to students. It is important for them to take long-term, lifelong learning and development needs into consideration that can not be managed by a person who has an unhealthy lifestyle, unbalanced time mode. It is necessary for them to be able to have a balanced load of mind, body, soul; Without that, organism just feels exhausted and loses the vital energy necessary for an active life. As a result, there are failures in all directions.
2. Universities are required to make learning regime more disciplined. Most students fail to provide regular attendance at lectures and seminars, violation of order becomes a norm for them which is reflected on their attitude towards the discipline and rules. It is necessary to make a study schedule real and feasible for employed students if their enrollment is allowed. Educational programs must be adjusted to the student's time regime, campuses, places for sports and cultural activities should be organized.
3. Business must have a social responsibility towards the employed students. This category of employees perform job related things at home and study for academic disciplines at work, they are likely to be constantly exhausted, which means that in a few years their highly qualified staff will be replaced by demoralized, exhausted, unmotivated employees, so it is important to take the students' such condition into

account. They should only be hired half-time or with a flexible work schedule so as not to interfere with learning and not to be extremely overloaded.

4. The state plays an important role in regulating the processes. It is necessary to monitor the norms and their performance. Protection of students and employers' rights is one of its important functions. The above mentioned circumstances should be reflected in the Law on Education, Labor Code. Activities of universities should be controlled, reasonable norms should be set, a healthy lifestyle should be promoted. Sport, cultural, scientific and educational events should become a necessary condition for the existence of universities.

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Predictors of ICT Use in Teaching in Different Educational Domains

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Abstract

This study explored the implementation of the information and communication technology (ICT) into teaching and learning processes in three educational domains (STEM, language education, and other humanities and social sciences). Specifically, the aim of the current study was to explore the effects of teachers' attitudes towards ICT use in classroom, self-efficacy in the ICT use, and perceived school-level barriers on teachers' ICT use as well as possible domain specific differences in the assessed variables. The data were collected as a part of a larger study conducted within the first phase of the "e-Schools" pilot project (CARNet). An online survey methodology was employed involving a sample of nearly all teachers in 13 middle (N=256) and 7 high schools (N=275). The results revealed that perceived self-efficacy in ICT use proved to be the best predictor of the use of ICT based activities regardless of the domain. Perceived benefits of ICT use significantly predicted the use of ICT in STEM and humanities and social sciences, while school-level barriers negatively predicted ICT use in STEM and in language education. Comparison of educational domains showed that STEM teachers saw more benefits of ICT use in teaching than teachers in humanities and social sciences. STEM teachers perceived themselves as more competent in ICT use compared to other two groups. They also reported that they use ICT more often in lesson preparation and in classroom activities. However, teachers' perception of possible risks and barriers of ICT use in education did not differ in three educational domains.

¹ **Acknowledgement:** This study has been conducted as a part of the project: "e-Schools: Establishing a System for Developing Digitally Mature Schools (pilot project)", coordinated by Croatian Academic and Research Network - CARNet

Keywords: ICT in education, teachers, attitudes towards ICT, self-efficacy, barriers for ICT use

Introduction

ICT in education

The development of Information and communication technologies (ICT) over the last 30 years has been tremendous. This progress brought notable transformations in many domains of our lives, both private and professional. Consequently, it has also become increasingly important in educational systems worldwide. Balanskat, Blamire, and Kefala (2007, p.11), argued ten years ago that “the use of ICT in education and training has been a key priority in most European countries during the last decade, but progress has been uneven”. Similar conclusions can be brought from a more recent review (Wastiau, Blamire, Kearney, Quittre, Van de Gaer, & Monseur, 2013).

In order to effectively integrate ICT into their teaching practices teachers should adopt a new definition of effective teaching that, according to Ertmer and Ottenbreit-Leftwich (2010), should incorporate the notion of using technology for improvement of teaching and learning practices. However, studies have shown that teachers are changing teaching practices with ICT slowly and reluctantly (Baggott La Velle, McFarlane, & Brawn, 2003; Orlando, 2014). That is not surprising given that integration of ICT in teaching and learning is a complex process that can be challenged by various obstacles.

Barriers to the Successful Implementation of ICT in Teaching Practices

Researchers and educators have identified diverse obstacles or barriers to the successful integration of ICT into education and classified them into different categories or levels (Balanskat et al., 2007; Becta, 2004, Bingimlas, 2009, Ertmer, 1999). For example, Balanskat et al. (2007) differentiate three levels of barriers to the ICT uptake in classroom: teacher-level barriers, school-level barriers and system-level barriers. Teacher level barriers refer to teachers’ poor ICT competence, low motivation and lack of confidence in using new technologies in teaching. They are related to the quality and quantity of teacher training programmes. School-level barriers refer to limited access to ICT, poor quality and inadequate maintenance of hardware as well as unsuitable educational software. Furthermore, school level barriers also might be related to schools’ limited experience with projects and project-based learning as well as to absence of ICT dimension in schools’ strategies. System-level barriers relate to wider educational system that might be rigid and hinder the integration of ICT into learning and teaching practices. Bingimlas (2009) reviewed teacher- and school-level barriers and identified lack of teacher confidence and lack of teacher competence as strong teacher-level barriers, as well as resistance

to change and negative attitudes. On school-level, most prominent barriers were lack of time, lack of effective training, lack of accessibility to ICT resources, and lack of technical support. Since some variables, such as lack of teacher confidence in their competence for ICT use and resistance to change that reflects in negative attitudes towards ICT use in classroom seem to be more important than others (Bingimlas, 2009) we will explain them further in following sections.

Attitudes

The existing research on teachers' attitudes towards ICT use in teaching and learning confirmed their important impact on successful integration of ICT into education (Ertmer, 2005; Fu, 2013). Teachers' favourable perceptions about technology in education were found to be positively related with teachers ICT use in daily teaching practice, as well as with the frequency of students' ICT use for learning (European Commission, 2013; Palak & Walls, 2009).

Teachers' attitudes towards ICT use in education may enable or hinder their actual ICT use depending on how the teacher view the impact of ICT use on students' learning and achievements (Drent & Meelissen, 2008). Large-scale studies have shown that teachers generally agree about the relevance of ICT use and its substantial contribution in teaching and learning (European Commission, 2013; Fraillon, Ainley, Schulz, Friedman, & Gebhardt, 2014). In a study on the professional reasoning teachers rely on regarding their ICT use within their teaching practice, Heitink, Voogt, Verplanken, van Braak and Fisser (2016) found that teachers reasons for using technology mostly addressed making learning attractive for students, supporting educational goals and facilitating the learning process.

Literature on the impact of preparation programs and courses on teachers' perceptions and attitudes suggest that these interventions may produce favourable changes in teachers' attitudes making them more likely to believe that technology can assist in learning and to recognize its importance (e.g., Doering, Hughes & Huffman, 2003). However, in order to support teachers' positive attitudes towards technology, as well as their use of ICT in teaching and learning, educational programs have to provide authentic, practical examples of teaching with technology (Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2010).

Self-efficacy

As a perceived expectancy about one's capabilities to learn or perform a given task, self-efficacy determines the choice and performance of activities (Bandura, 1997). Compared to the concept of general self-esteem, self-efficacy toward a specific behavior proved to be a stronger predictor of actual behavioral choices and performance. Moreover, a distinction has been made between a domain-specific self-efficacy and a more general self-efficacy. The more domain or tasks specific self-efficacy has a greater potential in predicting outcome at stake.

In respect of teachers' ICT use in teaching and learning, the concept of ICT self-efficacy is introduced. ICT self-efficacy refers to positive experiences and confidence using digital technologies which shapes how individuals feel about their ability to perform ICT-related tasks (Compeau & Higgins, 1995). Higher levels of ICT self-efficacy has been shown to be predictive for teachers' choices regarding ICT use and adoption in general (Buabeng-Andoh, 2012). Recent studies emphasize the importance of distinguishing between being confident about using ICT on your own (i.e., self-efficacy in basic ICT) and being confident about using ICT for teaching or didactical purposes (i.e., using ICT to enhance online collaboration among students) (Krumsvik, 2011). In a study on the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy, their digital competence, strategies to evaluate information, and use of ICT, Hatlevik (2016) addressed teachers' self-efficacy in basic ICT and their self-efficacy in online collaboration. Findings indicated a high correlation between teachers reporting confidence in solving basic ICT tasks and reporting self-confidence using ICT with students in online collaboration, suggesting the importance of the self-efficacy in basic ICT for the development of self-efficacy to use ICT for teaching purposes. Self-efficacy in basic ICT and strategies to evaluate information predicted teachers' digital competence, while both self-efficacy in online collaboration and digital competence predicted variation in teachers' use of ICT.

Further, the existing evidence suggests that teachers' ICT self-efficacy and attitudes towards technology in education are mutually related to their ICT use in teaching and learning (Ertmer, 2005; Papasterigiou, 2010). In a study on the factors influencing the ICT integration, Sang, Valcke, Braak, and Tondeur (2010) showed that although teachers' attitudes towards ICT use were found to be the strongest predictor of technology integration, more confident teachers were more capable of and interested in using computers in real classrooms. On the other side, in a study on Swedish teachers' attitudes to and beliefs about using ICT in education, Player-Koro (2012) found that despite that self-efficacy and attitudes were mutually related to ICT use, a strong sense of self-efficacy in using computers in education influenced the use of ICT the most.

ICT Implementation in Different School Subjects and Educational Domains

Some studies show that implementation of ICT in teaching is more congruent with some school subjects and domains than others, and that teachers have been reluctant to accept a technology that seems incompatible with their subjects (sub)culture (Goodson & Mangan, 1995; Hennessy, Zhao & Frank, 2003). Goodson and Mangan (1995, p. 615) refer to 'subject area subcultures', as „the general set of institutionalised practices and expectations which has grown up around a particular school subject, and which shapes the definition of that subject as both a distinct area of study and as a social construct.” In other words, each subject community shares similar tools and resources, approaches to teaching and learning, beliefs and expectations (Hennessy et al., 2003). These characteristics are not necessarily limited

to specific school subjects, but refer to broader educational domains or fields (e.g. social studies, art, technological studies; as described in Goodson & Mangan, 1995).

Therefore, subject culture shapes also teachers' perception of ICT integration in the classroom and their attitudes about ICT in education. In some subjects or domains ICT is perceived as adding new value to teaching and learning and as being advantageous and meaningful, in others it is seen as being "just another tool" (Goodson & Mangan, 1995, p. 624), and in some subjects and domains ICT is perceived as detraction from teaching and learning basic skills in the subject (Hennessy et al., 2003). Some teachers even perceive that (over)use of ICT could lead to losing core features and values of subject culture. Therefore, teachers will be hesitant to change teaching practices if integration of technological innovations poles apart from attitudes and practices of their colleagues teaching in the same educational domain.

Studies show that different subject domains differ in their (sub)cultures. John and Baggott la Velle (2004) argue that science has been associated with new technologies for a long time, and that it has been one of the first subjects in which technology has been integrated. Mathematics has been also related to new technologies and in John and Baggott la Velle's study (2004) mathematics teachers were comfortable with ICT and open to ICT's transformative possibilities. Music and English (mother language) subjects have had weaker affiliation with new technologies, although teachers were positive about ICT potential. However, they perceived ICT as a potential challenge to core values of their subjects. History teachers have been most reluctant to use technology and they also felt (like English teachers) that humanistic nature of their subject might be threatened. Similarly, Hennessy et al. (2003) found that English teachers were more hesitant and anxious, and they showed lower levels of integration of ICT in teaching and learning practices, compared to science and mathematics teachers. Mathematics teachers were least reluctant to ICT implementation, but science teachers saw more educational benefits compared to other teachers.

Balanskat et al. (2007) cited Eurobarometer Benchmarking survey that showed that teachers teaching science, mathematics, and computer science and who are active in vocational education are the most intensive users of the computer in class (more than 50% of their lesson), compared literature and language teachers (who use it only 5% of their lessons), primary education teachers (17%), humanities and social science teachers (13%) and physical and artist/crafts education (16%).

However, more recent study by Karaseva, Pruulmann-Vengerfeldt, and Siibak (2013) showed that, in a sample of Estonian elementary school teachers, humanities teachers were more open about using the technologies and employed more various and student-centred learning activities, compared to science teachers that mainly relied on a teacher-centred instructional style. Similarly, Howard, Chan and Caputi (2015) examined the relationship between three subject areas (English, mathematics, science) and teachers' beliefs as one of the factors influencing secondary-level teachers' technology integration. Teachers' beliefs about how technology supports

learning and about the importance of ICT were analyzed. The findings indicated that English teachers held the strongest belief that ICTs supported learning, while science teachers reported stronger agreement than mathematics teachers regarding this belief. Compared to mathematics and English teachers, science teachers reported decline in their beliefs about the importance of ICT and were the only group of teachers reflecting a significant change in belief. Thus, these findings demonstrated that subject areas are not homogenous and they have unique trajectories over time in a technology-related initiative (Howard et al., 2015).

More comprehensive study, The Survey of Schools: ICT in Education, conducted by European Schoolnet (2014) revealed that European teachers of 8 and 11-grade students in general education mostly used different ICT-related activities during lessons only several times a month. Although differences among teachers in different domains were not large, the frequency of ICT use in classes depended on school subjects. The results showed that science teachers used ICT-based activities more frequently than mathematics and language classes. Mathematics and science teachers expressed similar levels of confidence in their operational ICT skills that were higher than confidence levels of language teachers. Teachers of different subjects also differed in perception of obstacles to the use of ICT activities in the classroom. However, they shared similar positive attitudes towards the use of ICT in the classroom and they all agreed that ICT has the positive effects on students' higher-order thinking skills, motivation, achievement, and competence in transversal skills.

To conclude, most of the teachers have mainly positive attitudes towards ICT use in learning and teaching, but they have still been reluctant in the implementation of ICT in their teaching practices. They perceive different barriers and obstacles that impede their use of ICT in the classroom. The effects of school-level and especially teacher-level barriers to ICT implementation in classroom have been examined a lot, but less attention has been dedicated to comparison of these variables in different educational domains. Studies conducted so far have not yielded unambiguous findings.

The Present Study

In Croatia, substantial efforts have been made to integrate ICT in the elementary and high-schools within the e-Schools program that is coordinated by the Croatian Academic and Research Network - CARNet. The e-Schools program is aimed at introducing ICT into the school system, naimly into 7th and 8th grades of elementary school that correspond to middle school, and 1st and 2nd grades of high-school, in the 2015-2022 period. Currently, the s-Schools pilot project (full name: "e-Schools: Establishing a System for Developing Digitally Mature Schools [pilot project]") has been implemented (2015-2018). The overall goal of the e-Schools program is to help strengthen elementary and middle school education system with the final aim of preparing students for future. One of the main direct objectives of the program is to develop digitally competent teachers prepared for the integration of ICT innovations in their own teaching practices. E-Schools "envisage a gradual, voluntary transition

to digital content, in which teachers will have the decisive role, as key stakeholders of each educational process, both in the past and in the future” (CARNet, 2017, retrieved from <https://www.e-skole.hr/en/e-schools/find-out-more/why-e-schools/>).

In order for teachers to successfully embrace technology into teaching process they have to overcome different barriers. Therefore, it is important to explore the barriers those teachers confront in their schools, especially on teacher and school levels (Bingimlas, 2009). In the present study we focused on some specific teacher-level barriers that seem to be most important (teachers’ attitudes towards ICT and self-efficacy in ICT use), as well on school-level barriers that might hinder successful implementation of ICT in learning and teaching practices.

E-Schools program is aimed mainly on STEM domains, as target beneficiaries of digital educational content and teaching scenarios that will be created within the program are middle and high-school students and teachers of STEM subjects (chemistry, biology, physics and mathematics). Hence, it was of our interest to explore the effects of their attitudes towards ICT use in classroom, their self-efficacy in the ICT use, and perceived school-level barriers on their ICT use for lesson preparation and classroom activities, as well as to compare them to attitudes and perceptions of teachers in other educational domains, such as humanities and social sciences. The assessment took place before the teachers had the opportunity to implement particular activities, digital content, and technology that has been developed and implemented during the pilot project. As such it might be informative for policy makers as it has focused on identifying potential barriers to meaningful ICT integration in teaching practices in different educational domains.

2. Methods

2.1. Participants

The sample consisted of 534 teachers (77.3% female) from 13 elementary (7th and 8th grade that corresponds to middle school, $n = 259$) and 7 high schools (1st and 2nd grade, $n = 275$) in Croatia. Teachers' mean age was 42.60 years ($SD = 11.47$).

In Table 1., demographic characteristics of the sample, giving both numbers and percentages of teachers in each category of gender, school level and teaching experience, as well as range, mean and standard deviations for participants' age, are presented separately for STEM, language education and other humanities and social sciences domain.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the sample

	STEM			Language education			Humanities and social sciences		
	N	%		N	%		N	%	
Gender									
Male	62	30.2		19	10.2		40	28.0	
Female	143	69.8		167	89.8		103	72.0	
School level									
Middle school	100	48.8		93	50.0		66	46.2	
High school	105	51.2		93	50.0		77	53.8	
Teaching experience									
Less than 10 years	89	43.4		71	38.2		56	39.2	
10-20 years	53	25.9		51	27.4		46	32.2	
More than 20 years	63	30.7		64	34.4		41	28.6	
	Rang e	M	SD	Rang e	M	SD	Rang e	M	SD
Age (years)	24-66	43.05	11.72	26-64	42.08	11.26	25-65	42.52	11.37

2.2. Measures

2.2.1. Attitudes towards ICT use in teaching and learning

Two scales were used to assess teachers' attitudes towards ICT use in teaching and learning. The perceived Benefits of ICT use in teaching and learning scale included fourteen items (Cronbach's alpha = .89) reflecting relevance of ICT use in teaching and learning and its positive impact on students' learning and motivation (e.g., "Students gain better understanding in what they are learning"). The perceived Risks of ICT use in teaching and learning scale included eleven items (Cronbach's alpha = .83) referring to a negative consequences of ICT use in teaching and learning (e.g., "ICT tempts students to learn superficially"). The response format for both scales consisted of a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

2.2.2. ICT self-efficacy

Teachers' self-efficacy in using ICT was measured using a seven-item scale (Cronbach's alpha = .91). The scale assessed the extent to which teachers perceive themselves able to competently use ICT in everyday instructional practice (e.g., "I am skilful in creating digital educational content for the subject I teach"). Participants rated their level of agreement with statements on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

2.2.3. School-level barriers to using ICT in teaching and learning

Teachers' perception of school-level barriers to ICT use in teaching and learning was assessed with six items (Cronbach's alpha = .87) reflecting a set of factors which adversely affects ICT use (e.g., equipment issues, school time and space organisation, accessibility to ICT, insufficient technical and pedagogical support). Items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

2.2.4. ICT use in teaching and learning

The scale used for the assessment of teachers' ICT use consisted of fifteen items (Cronbach's alpha = .93) asking about the frequency of a set of ICT based activities related to lesson preparation (e.g., „I use ICT to prepare exercises and tasks for students“), as well as a set of ICT based teaching activities with students in the classroom (e.g., problem solving activities, searching for additional information on internet, working in groups, exercises and practice, students presentations). For each activity, the participants had to specify how often they do it on a five-level scale with 1 meaning never; 2: several times a month; 3: once to twice a week; 4: more than twice a week; and 5: every day.

2.3. Procedure

The data were collected as a part of a larger baseline study conducted within the first phase of the "e-Schools" pilot project (Croatian Academic and Research network - CARNet). An online survey methodology was employed. The online questionnaire was group administered to teachers in their schools by school coordinators. Personal background data were also collected. The group session lasted approximately 45 minutes. Although the study was not anonymous, confidentiality was guaranteed to participants.

3. Results and Discussion

Correlations between teachers' attitudes towards ICT use, ICT self-efficacy, perception of school-level barriers to ICT use in teaching and learning and reported use of ICT based activities is shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Correlation between teachers' attitudes towards ICT use, ICT self-efficacy, school-level barriers and use of ICT

	Risks of ICT use	ICT self-efficacy	School-level barriers	Use of ICT based activities
Benefits of ICT use	-.24**	.35**	.02	.34**
Risks of ICT use		-.27**	.20**	-.20**
ICT self-efficacy			.01	.61**
School-level barriers				-.06
Use of ICT based activities				

Note. ** p < .001.

Teachers' use of ICT based activities was related to ICT self-efficacy and teachers' attitudes toward ICT use. Benefits of ICT use were positively related to perceived ICT self-efficacy, while risks of ICT were positively related to school-level barriers and negatively to self-efficacy and reported use of ICT based activities. Surprisingly, self-efficacy did not correlate with perceived school-level barriers. Although some authors (Becta, 2004; Bingimlas, 2009) argue that teachers' confidence in ICT use is closely related to several other barriers, such as technical problems and lack of access to ICT resources, that relation was not evident in our findings. However, our results show that self-efficacy was related to attitudes towards ICT and it highly correlated with reported use of ICT.

In order to test if the teachers' attitudes towards ICT use, ICT self-efficacy, and perception of school-level barriers to ICT use in teaching and learning significantly predicted their use of ICT based activities, separate simple linear regression analyses were performed for each of the educational domain. The results are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Summary of simple regression analyses for variables predicting teachers' use of ICT based activities in three educational domains.

	STEM n = 205			Language education n = 186			Humanities and social sciences n = 143		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
Benefits of ICT use	0.31	0.10	.18* *	0.14	0.08	.11	0.20	0.10	.14*
Risks of ICT use	-								
ICT self-	0.08	0.10		0.11	0.08	.08	0.06	0.10	-.04

efficacy	0.49	0.06	.49*	0.48	0.05	.60*	0.49	0.06	.57*
			*			*			*
School-level	-		-	-		-			.06
barriers	0.12	0.06	.13*	0.10	0.05	.12*	0.05	0.05	
R2	.37			.41			.43		
F	29.0			31.6			25.7		
	4**			9**			5**		

Note. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$.

The results of the regression analysis employed in a subsample of teachers in STEM domain indicated that the examined predictors explained 37% of the variance. The strongest positive predictor of use of ICT based activities was ICT self-efficacy, followed by the perceived benefits of ICT use. Teachers' perception of school-level barriers to using ICT in teaching in learning negatively predicted their ICT use.

Teachers' use of ICT based activities in the domain of language education was positively predicted by teachers' reported levels of ICT self-efficacy and negatively by their perception of school-level barriers to using ICT. The predictors explained 41% of the variance of language education teachers' use of ICT based activities.

Similar proportion of explained variance of the criterion variable was found in a subsample of teachers in other humanities and social sciences educational domain. Teachers' use of ICT based activities in this domain was positively predicted by the perceived benefits of ICT use, as well as by the level of their ICT self-efficacy.

In sum, the results revealed that the strongest positive predictor of use of ICT based activities in all educational domains was ICT self-efficacy. That result supports the findings of previous studies that emphasize the importance of teachers' confidence in using ICT (e.g., Balanskat et al., 2007; Becta, 2004), or their levels of computer self-efficacy (e.g., Buabeng-Andoh, 2012). Wastiau et al. (2013) also concluded that teachers who are confident in their digital skills and positive about ICT's impact on learning organize more frequent ICT-based activities with their students. Furthermore, the obtained findings are in line with the conclusion Player-Koro (2012) made about the stronger influence of ICT self-efficacy compared to the influence of teachers' attitudes towards technology on their ICT use in teaching practice. Self-efficacy can be developed through positive personal and vicarious experiences with technology, so teachers should be introduced to technology in small steps, providing them with opportunities to experiment and try new ideas (Ertmer, & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2010).

In our study, variables other than ICT self-efficacy i.e. perceived barriers and enablers only weakly predicted perceived use of ICT in classroom. Perceived benefits of ICT use significantly predicted the use of ICT in STEM and humanities and social sciences, while school-level barriers negatively predicted ICT use in STEM and in language education. Interestingly, perceived risks of ICT use did not have effect on ICT

employment for lesson preparation and for ICT-based activities in classroom. Although all variables relating to successful implementation of ICT in education should be mutually related, as described for example in Becta (2004) or Bingimlas (2009), it seems that in some educational domains certain factors have a more important role in ICT adoption by teachers. The observed differential predictions of teachers' ICT use based on perceived benefits of ICT use and the perception of school-level barriers to ICT use in three educational domains, correspond to the existing research showing that when it comes to technology integration in education, subject areas and educational domains are not homogenous (e.g., Howard et al., 2015). In line with the evidence on the adverse effect of barriers to the ICT uptake in classroom (Balanskat et al., 2007), teachers' perception of school-level barriers proved to be negative predictor of using ICT based activities in STEM and language education domain. Although supporting teachers in how to use the potentials of ICT in teaching and direct experience of how to handle ICT in classrooms is needed to enhance successful uptake of new technologies by teachers (Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2010), somewhat differential approaches could be fostered in different educational domains. Removing school-level barriers might not be a decisive factor, but could positively affect ICT uptake by STEM and language education teachers. Stressing benefits and usefulness of ICT use might be especially important for STEM teaches, and even for humanities and social sciences teachers as positive attitudes seem to be predictive of ICT uptake in those domains.

The effects of educational domains on teachers' attitudes towards ICT use, ICT self-efficacy, perceived school-level barriers to using ICT and use of ICT based activities were analyzed with univariate ANOVAs (Table 4.). Significant effects were followed up with multiple comparison tests using Fisher's LSD method.

Table 4. Mean differences on attitudes towards ICT use, ICT self-efficacy, school-level barriers to using ICT and use of ICT based activities between three educational domains.

	STEM n = 205		Language education n = 186		Humanities and social sciences n = 143		df	F
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD		
Benefits of ICT use	3.35	.49	3.25	.54	3.21	.49	2. 531	3.24 *
Risks of ICT use	3.20	.51	3.25	.55	3.23	.50	2. 531	0.42
ICT self- efficacy	3.78	.83	3.38	.90	3.32	.79	2. 531	16.4 6**
School-level barriers	3.32	.85	3.35	.88	3.17	.90	2. 531	1.83

Use of ICT based activities	2.50 ab	.83	2.29 a	.72	2.18 b	.68	2. 531	8.42 **
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Note. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$. Educational domain means within a row with the same subscripts differ significantly at the $p < .05$ or $p < .001$ level (Fisher's LSD test).

Educational domain had a significant effect on the perceived benefits of ICT use in teaching and learning, $F(2, 531) = 3.24, p < .05$. Post-hoc testing indicated that teachers in STEM domain reported significantly higher perception of potential benefits of ICT use than teachers in humanities and social sciences educational domain. Teachers in language education reported similar levels of perceived benefits of ICT use as the teachers in the remaining two groups. The differences on perceived risks of ICT use in teaching and learning between teachers in the examined educational domains were not significant, $F(2, 531) = 0.42, p = n.s$. Likewise, teachers in different domains did not differ in terms of their perception of school-level barriers to using ICT in teaching and learning, $F(2, 531) = 1.83, p = n.s$.

Further, educational domain had a significant effect on teachers' perceived self-efficacy in using ICT, $F(2, 531) = 16.46, p < .001$. Multiple comparisons showed that, compared to teachers in language education and other humanities and social sciences domain, teachers in STEM domain had higher levels of self-efficacy in using ICT in their daily work. Similarly, a significant effect of educational domain on teachers' self-reports on use of ICT as a teaching and learning tool was found, $F(2, 531) = 8.42, p < .001$. Teachers in STEM domain reported significantly higher frequency of ICT use than teachers in the remaining educational domains.

These results correspond to contemporary research notion that some educational domains are more likely to integrate ICT in teaching and learning than others and that they might have unique trajectories over time in the process of ICT integration in education (Howard et al., 2015). Although some of the more recent studies (Karaseva et al., 2013; Howard et al. 2015) show that humanities teachers were more open and supportive about using ICT in teaching practices compared to teachers of STEM domains, the results of our study are more in line with traditional notions that mathematics and science have been more closely related to new technologies (John & Baggott la Velle, 2004). Our results revealed that teachers in the STEM domain perceived themselves as more competent in ICT use compared to other two groups and also reported that they use ICT more often in lesson preparation and in classroom activities. The observed pattern of results in STEM domain is not surprising given the well established finding on favourable impact of both, the levels of ICT self-efficacy and positive attitudes, on teachers' choices regarding ICT use and adoption in general (Buabeng-Andoh, 2012).

Similar results were found in European Schoolnet study (2014) in which science and mathematics teachers expressed higher levels of confidence in ICT skills than language teachers, and science teachers employed ICT-based activities most

frequently. However, the results of our study also indicated that some differences could be noted between teachers in language education domain and teachers in other humanities and social sciences. Teacher in other humanities and social sciences (e.g. history, geography, philosophy, psychology, sociology...) reported the lowest levels of ICT self-efficacy and the least frequent use of ICT in teaching practices. ICT use in teaching social sciences subjects has been rarely explored, although some studies show that use of technology is rare among social studies faculty members and that more practical examples of technology integration in teaching practices should be provided (Bolick, Berson, Coutts, & Heinecke, 2003). Likewise, some studies exploring ICT uptake by humanities teachers showed that they have been quite reluctant to use technology (e.g. history teachers in study of John and Baggott La Velle [2004]). However, as previously mentioned, newer studies point to opposing conclusions (Karaseva et al., 2013).

Differences between different educational domains in attitudes towards ICT use in education obtained in our study were not as obvious as obtained differences in ICT self-efficacy and ICT use. Although STEM teachers saw more benefits of ICT use compared to humanities and social sciences teachers, teachers' perception of possible risks of ICT use in education did not differ in three educational domains. Likewise, teachers' perceptions of school-level barriers were similar regardless of domain. Compared to the remaining, internal, teacher-level factors influencing the use of ICT that were examined in the current study, perceived barriers were external, school-level factor. It is possible that teachers were therefore exposed to similar school-level barriers and thus were more likely to perceive barriers similarly regardless of their teaching domain. Although these two types of factors are generally related to each other (Tezci, 2011) in our study teachers' perceptions of school-level barriers were not related to their perceived benefits of ICT use and ICT self-efficacy.

As a whole, this study findings point in the same directions as previous research by showing that favourable attitudes towards ICT use in teaching practices and higher ICT self-efficacy both positively predict teachers' ICT use in daily teaching practice. Teacher perceived self-efficacy, that is not necessarily related to perceived school-level barriers, seemed to be of particular importance. Also, the results of the present study contribute to the relatively sparse evidence on educational domain specificities of ICT integration in teaching and learning.

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The EU: Big on Big Things and Smaller on Smaller Things

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Abstract

Welfare regime is composed of the social and economic policies that are adopted to protect and promote the economic and social well-being of its citizens. While neoliberal principles extend through globalization, welfare regimes have been suffering from this process since policies are developed with the emphasis on individual empowerment rather than collectively shared welfare. While spending a great deal of efforts not to lose its competitiveness, the European Union tries to create an alternative for the structure of its social policies. However, this attempt remains highly vulnerable due to the impact of capitalist economic system on development of EU social policy/model since the beginning of the EU integration process. This article analyzes the roots of underdeveloped social policy in EU history at three stages: explanation of underdevelopment of social Europe from several theoretical paradigms; examination of deep-rooted problems of European social policy within the dynamics of European integration; elaboration of EU modernization process; and clarification of this deficiency with the example of European Social Model deemed as a politically constructed project.¹

Keywords: Social policy, Welfare regime, European integration, Modernization, Empowerment of Individuals, Activation.

Introduction

Within the severe capitalism, welfare state has evolved into a mix of social and economic policies in order to tame pure market capitalism and to decrease or lighten its possible inhuman effects on the ‘social citizens’ - if still exist any in today’s capitalist world. In the same direction, Jacques Delors introduced for EU member states the ‘European Social Model’ in the mid-1980s as an alternative to the American

¹ One of the most important case supporting this argument is: Case C-438/05 of European Court of Justice: International Transport Workers’ Federation and Finnish Seamen’s Union v Viking Line ABP and OÜ Viking Line Eesti, judgment of 11 December 2007.

form of the severe capitalism (Jepsen, Pascual, 2005). The EU has been comparatively seen as a unique example of political and economic body that manages its economic growth by increasing social justice and equity in today's competitive world. However, even if EU, as a union, struggles for creating an alternative and for maintaining social justice in its societies, the ideology behind capitalist economic system has a great impact on development of EU social policy/model. This article tries to respond the question of '*How the roots of underdeveloped social policy at EU level can be explained?*' The analysis goes through three stages. First of all, how different scholars reflecting different theoretical paradigms explain the reasons of underdevelopment of social Europe is briefly discussed. In this part, arguments are built on multidimensional explanations of David Bailey. Deep-rooted problems of European social policy are scrutinized at the second stage by examining in detail the dynamics of European integration through its judicial power: European Court of Justice (ECJ). The leading explanations of Richard Münch shed a light on this part of research to understand the formation of market based citizen point of view at European level. Finally, European Social Model, assumed as a politically constructed project, is reviewed as an example to identify how the logic behind development of social Europe: the mechanisms of activation and flexibility and therefore instruments of employability and flexicurity are settled in the EU discourse.

During the recent times of crisis in the EU, the underdeveloped social policy is being reflected in several speeches of EU leaders. Former President of EU Commission Barroso, in his State of the Union address, on 11th September 2013 at European Parliament, questioned:

*"Do we want to improve Europe, or give it up? My answer is clear. Engage! If you don't like Europe as it is. Improve it! As any human endeavor, the EU is not perfect. Controversies about the division of labor between the national and European levels will never be conclusively ended. Not everything needs a solution at European level. Europe must focus on where it can add most value. It does not have to meddle where this is not the case. **The EU needs to be big on big things and smaller on smaller things**"* (Barrasso, 2013, September 11).

This part of the speech of former President of EU Commission may have several implications for different EU scholars. But from the social policy perspective, it reflects several indications of historically constructed obstacles to Social Europe. The basic question here is whether the values of social solidarity and collectively shared welfare are bigger or smaller things.

'Solidarity' comes with the social market capitalism of Europe and is widely considered as an essential aspect of European integration (Gerrits, n.d.). However, even if this understanding of solidarity highlighting *social market* is expected to sustain collectively shared welfare, it is underlined several times in leaders' speech of EU as a cement for *economic union*. The subordination of socialness to the primacy of economics is becoming more obvious. For instance, President of EU Commission, Jean

Claude Juncker, in his annual State of the European Union Speech on 14th September 2016 stated:

“Solidarity is the glue that keeps our Union together. The word solidarity appears 16 times in the Treaties which all our Member States agreed and ratified...Our European budget is living proof of financial solidarity...The euro is an expression of solidarity. Our development policy is a strong external sign of solidarity... We often show solidarity most readily when faced with emergencies.”

Explaining the Obstacles to Social Europe

The guiding principle of welfare state in European countries has been maintaining status security (ex. protection of workers during the period of illness, unemployment or retirement) (Offe, C. 2003). After 1980s, it gradually forfeits even this main guiding principle during the adaptation of pure market capitalism in order not to lose its competitive power at EU level. For this reason, some scholars describe the social policy of the EU as an empty shell (Falkner in Bailey, 2008) and a constitutional asymmetry between policies promoting market efficiencies -which prevail- and policies promoting social protection and equality (Scharpf in Bailey, 2008). On the process of understanding main obstacles to Social Europe, David Bailey (2008) provides a clear picture of how several scholars reflecting different theoretical paradigms explain the reasons of underdevelopment of social Europe. He combines the series of obstacles identified by several theoretical paradigms to explain this deficiency of EU. Seven different explanations of different paradigms are specified concerning the obstacles to Social Europe:

According to *neo-functionalism*, EU focuses on market integration in the historical development of European integration and thus social policies are put in the subordinated position. They also believe that economic integration can and will have a spillover effect on greater social policy integration (Jensen; Threlfall; Conant in Bailey, 2008).

The underdevelopment of European social policy is also explained by the *ongoing divergence between national economic and/or political conditions within the various states* (Scharpf; Goetschy; Mosher; Trubek in Bailey, 2008). With respect to this perspective, differences in national economies and political situations result in the adaptation of different welfare regimes, which obstructs the integrated social development at EU level.

The Open Method of Coordination (OMC) School, on the other hand, believes that national divergence is an obstacle but can be overcome through alternative ‘softer’ forms of cooperation such as OMC (Ferrera; Zeitlin in Bailey, 2008).

New institutionalism points out the impact of the highly complex institutional configuration of the European Union in understanding the limits of EU social policy (Geyer, 2010). The implementation requiring multiple and complex procedures in EU

institutional structure complicates the involvement of several social actors into the process. On the other hand, similar to neo-functionalists, new institutionalists argue that EU's initial focus to economic matters creates a path dependence through market confirming rather than market-correcting policies and as social policy developments are seen as an intervention to the market, these policies are emerged in the agenda of EU as something to be avoided.

Critical democratic approach, similar to new institutionalists, blames the non-participatory nature of much of European level decision making (Warleigh in Bailey, 2008). As known, decisions are taken without sufficient contribution of social partners. Therefore, they do not reflect the interests of real partners being affected by the process.

Identity based explanations focuses on the dominance of national identities while explaining the underdevelopment of Social Europe. According to them, as there is no European identity, civil society participation is low at European level and this makes social policy implementation at EU level impossible.

Marxist scholars explain the obstacle to Social Europe in terms of the dominance of capital over labor within European capitalism (Carchedi in Bailey, 2008). Therefore, according to them, the main intention of European integration is to limit market correction policies and to prevent any intervention in order to make the market more profitable. That's why social Europe is underdeveloped.

All these explanations illustrate one dimension of the social problem of Europe. David Bailey, thinking in the same way, combines all and constructs three levels structure: EU wide social stratum, political stratum and institutional stratum with the method of critical realism which asserts that social realities are created by social structures and relations. Assuming that EU-wide social relations existing in a deeper stratum than political relations stratum which abide in greater breadth than institutional stratum, economic interest based EU wide social relations generated political relations and then institutional relations in the same direction: prioritizing economic gain. In fact, the assertion of Bailey suggests that the obstacle of Social Europe is derived from the *institutional obstacles to EU level social policy making* that has been formulated through political relations of member states and capitalist relations of production of its societies.

In order to scrutinize this point of view, the second part of this article analyzes the main driving force of European integration in its institutionalization process and its impact on development of European social policy.

Empowerment of Individuals through EU law

The main driving force of European integration is to design European single market without interventions and not to protect but to empower individuals through several mechanisms. Richard Münch (2008) indicates how European law has emerged in

close connection with economic needs of market integration and how European Court of Justice's jurisdiction has contributed to the change of solidarity and construction of European society basing on individual empowerment and activation.

Münch (2008) argues that increasing specialization and cross-border labor division result in intensive international trade and thus economic integration, but it is believed that market transactions cannot automatically result in the transformation of solidarity and legal order because solidarity change brings great power struggle and market transactions cannot have spillover effect over solidarity change. For this reason, transnational solidarity is created by transnational elites through construction of transnational institutions promoting superimposition of transnational solidarity on national societies by creation of European law. The European law is designed to advance individual autonomy in line with the model of market exchange and save the individuals from traditionally established national limits.

While national law reflects the cultural traditions, European law excludes itself from national law and includes rules to strengthen the individuals. As a result, uniform cultures are polarized and transnational ties are built between individuals and this explains how European society and new type of solidarity are emerged. This new type of solidarity emphasizes on the values of interdependence in purely and simply economic terms.

During this transformation, in order to eliminate any possible resistance and conflict between national and transnational forces, Münch (2008) explains clearly that the process has been legitimized in four steps.

The need of institutionalization of European judicial power in order for the elites to proceed with their transnational project.

The requirement of establishing a leading idea and concept of control in order for the transformation of solidarity to be acceptable by national and transnational forces. The constructed leading idea is the spread of values free movement and nondiscrimination.

Establishing a dominant European legal community and turning politics into juridical technique.

Turning functional adjustment into constructing a legitimate order

Concerning the institutionalization of European judicial power, as known, the preliminary position of European law strengthens gradually. Moreover, ECJ's decisions on direct effect and supremacy of law provide a guarantee for the legitimate power of European legal order. It also plays a crucial role on legal harmonization of national laws. Therefore, basing on these powerful tools, ECJ shifts juridical power from national to European level and creates legal framework for market integration

by eliminating any obstacle in front of the open competition, specialization and European labor division.

At the second step, free movement and non-discrimination principles fostered by European law are able to replace the traditional ideas of national welfare because these concepts shift the power in favor of competitive companies and single individuals if they seek the advantages of European market without national barriers. Both free movement and non-discrimination are designed to bring economic self-sufficiency for individuals (In fact, free movement was seen simply as economic activity rather than citizenship right before 2000s) (Münch, 2008). These principles are applied frankly to remove trade barriers, but are fostered as basic principles of justice. Therefore, they are perceived as legitimate principles by competitive companies and individuals that promote competition on European level and provide legitimate framework for them to increase European division of labor.

At the third step, it is explained that *aquis communautaire* is created by European elite of academics, judges and lawyers and they provide a legitimate power for ECJ which is also given a big role to overcome the lack of legal harmonization and remove the obstacles to integration project. Therefore, it successfully converts the matters into technical terms and enlarges its impact area. After this process, national resistance has been weakened and is seen as search for interests. However, legal reasoning has turned the politics into juridical technique and is seen as more logical on promoting European single market. Consequently, ECJ has been able to construct autonomous European legal framework that national governments cannot reach and affect this framework. Moreover, functional differentiation of EU law becomes a power struggle with national forces for the formation of legal order. This is the basis of transforming national legal traditions into transnational ones.

At the final and the most important step, it is noted by Richard Münch (2008) that European legal order is designed with the emphasis on individual achievement, equality of opportunity and individual empowerment rather than status security, equality of results and collective and shared welfare. The European law constructs a society from market citizen point of view and, therefore, ECJ takes into account empowered, knowledgeable individuals and disregards the others that do not fill the minimum standards for the competitive economy. Moreover, protecting these people's rights below the standards is not the aim of the European law as the protection logic is against the competitive single market.¹

The individuals are expected to use their liberties on the market to realize their own ideas, values and interests. This is the message given by European law in its jurisdiction. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that European law strengthens the

¹ See social pillar of Europe 2020 Strategy targets:
https://ec.europa.eu/info/strategy/european-semester/framework/europe-2020-strategy_en#featuresofthetargets

individuals against their community of origin and it institutionalizes individualism because main point promoted by European legal order is self-realization of individual. It is appropriate for market citizen of liberalism rather than political citizen of republicanism or social citizen of social democratic welfare state (Münch, 2008). Therefore, this *structural change of solidarity* excludes the values of equality of living standards and protection of the individual by the state. Moreover, greater inequality is the inevitable consequence of this structural change. Therefore, construction of this order is costly and highly debated process but ECJ jurisdiction has been made a great contribution to set this transformation.

To sum up, ECJ plays important role on European integration and construction of European society *on the basis of empowerment of individuals*. It has been successfully institutionalized by transnational elite, has gained legitimacy through spread of the values of free movement and non-discrimination and it can be easily considered as capable to shift solidarity from national to European level by converting the national citizens to market citizens or market actors.

Therefore, according to Münch, both European institutions and European law are designed to adapt the European society to new structure of market economy by trying to create a European identity from market citizen point of view. It is not then surprising that current attempts of developing social Europe do not contain principles of equal distribution of wealth and public responsibility for those incapable to obtain minimal provisions for a decent life. Moreover, it is not surprising that in 2013, former president of EU Commission underestimates the social dimension of European Union integration project by declaring that '*the EU needs to be big on big things and smaller on smaller things*'

The EU, from the beginning of its integration process, has removed itself from pursuing such a welfare regime that the political and economic organization take an active role to protect and promote the economic and social well-being of its citizens. This removal can be observed in the process of construction of European Social Model.

Modernization of EU and European Social Model (ESM) as a Political Project

As indicated in the initial part of the article, in the capital world, welfare regime has evolved into a mix of social and economic policies in order to tame pure market capitalism and to decrease or lighten its possible inhuman effects on the 'social citizens'. The guiding principle of welfare state of European countries was to secure and to protect individuals (Offe, 2003). This logic of protection means providing social benefits for the individuals against market contingencies through social security programs. At this point, Offe (2003) explains this structure of security by resembling the concept of welfare state to the building that has three floors and a roof.

According to him, the ground floor contains provisions regulating access to labor markets and to jobs and issues of health and safety at work. The second floor is the scene

of provisions pertaining to the social security of the wage worker outside of work and in the absence of income out of currently earned wages (transfer payments or day care services). On the third floor, the institutional devices are intended to deal with the decline of workers' capacity to defend their income (against inflation or increases in productivity). Finally, the roof of building is a set of policies designed to protect the various status- conferring and security arrangements explained in other floors. (Offe, 2003).

The state, as a reason for being, has an important role on building this structure, namely, on providing this type of security to its citizens in order to maintain the social justice in the society. This role cannot be sacrificed under the concept of self-realization of the individual. It can be logically questioned why state, as a political organization, exists if all individuals are considered as actors of market and market is able to regulate itself. Similarly, the legitimacy of European Union, as a supranational body, is questioned while it is transforming itself a regime of stabilization of member states to regime of modernization of the Union itself. The former was mainly based on supportive social regulation while the latter is based more on promoting transformation of social models under the guideline of neoliberal flexibilisation and deregulation (Hermann, Hofbauer, 2007).

European Commission declares that such a modernization is becoming urgent due to the challenges on financing social protection systems and responding to the needs of an older population in terms of working conditions, health, and quality of life (Jepsen, Pascual, 2005). This modernization has emerged in the EU in order to respond the changes as follows:

'Economic integration has diminished the capacity of member states to use traditional economic policy instruments and thus has complicated the achievement of self-defined social policies;

Demographic and societal changes (the ageing population and entry of women to labor market) has changed the balances in social protection systems in terms of health and pension spending and long-term care servicing (which was carried out by women);

Changes in European/world production model that means long-term planning is impossible and risks are unpredictable.' (Jepsen, Pascual, 2005).

With the aim of legitimizing minimal social policies, the EU argues - in the consideration of these changes - that promotion of the flexibility and concentration on promotion of the management of risks by individuals - rather than protecting against them - are inevitable.¹ Therefore, EU raises the ideas of activation, flexicurity, partnership in order to convert national social policies into an instrument for

¹ Thailand Food Innopolis is a global food innovation hub focusing on research, development and innovation for food industry. It is fully equipped with qualified human resources and facilities to support food producers of all scales, be it local, regional, or global. We provide a platform to strengthen your business and also to innovate your food industry.

optimizing the adjustment of social protection systems to market forces at transnational level (Jepsen, Pascual, 2005).

Fostering such a modernization and making the individuals active at transnational level, the formation of European Social Model is seen as an example on how European identity is being promoted based on shared social problems and solutions *but not on values*. The Commission's 1994 White Paper on social policy (COM (94) 333) described a 'European social model' in terms of principles that include democracy and individual rights, free collective bargaining, the market economy, equal opportunities for all, and social protection and solidarity (Eurofound, 5 May 2011). However, Maria Jepsen and Amparo Serrano Pascual argue that ESM can be regarded as a political construction in the framework of a demand for legitimacy generated by EU project while facing new challenges (Jepsen, Pascual, 2005).

The emergent socio-economic problems and the methods to tackle them bear ESM as a means of achieving the objective of constructing self-styled European social policy identity. The European institutions have successfully europeanized the rising challenges and put them into the agenda of all its member states. The concepts such as workfare is relabeled as activation, flexibility as flexicurity, globalization as knowledge-based society and corporate governance as social corporate responsibility while the reality/philosophy behind these concept remain the same – *without no value addition* (Jepsen, Pascual, 2005). In this process, European institutions pairs up the common challenges and creates common tools to solve these problems instead of spreading common values. For instance, they provide so called instruments (work first policies, employability, flexicurity, investing in people) that will allow individuals to find ways of adapting to changing economic and social conditions (Jepsen, Pascual, 2005). However, these activation policies that follows a 'workfare' approach will aggravate the problems, not reduce them (Seikel, 2017).

Therefore, EU institutions - similar to their previous attempts - aim to bring together the individuals - rather than member states - on responding new economic changes and solving the social problems. European Social Model is just one of the examples of these attempts. Then, similar to ECJ case law, this formation can be considered as a political project that fosters a European identity based on principles of market capitalism.

Conclusion

The EU plays a significant role in transforming the solidarity of its citizens to the transnational level while subordinating social rights to economic rights. For the sake of sustaining its competitiveness, social issues are being considered as less important when compared to issues that can bring economic benefits. The EU, as a supranational body, builds and implements political and institutional projects to achieve these objectives. In these projects such as constitution of European case law or even European Social Model, social dimension of the Union has been regarded as a *tool* in

order to guarantee well-functioning of the economic integration. The ones who evaluate the EU as a unique example of political and economic body that manages its economic growth by increasing social justice and equity in today's competitive world should be aware of the fact that this uniqueness comes from the culture created after a political, economic and social struggle of the societies, mainly working classes, in some European member states.

This struggle brought and guaranteed several social rights in European continent. The European Union, as a supranational body, has a weakening effect to implementation of social welfare mechanism in these member states. The Union promotes the flexibilization of labor policies, narrowing social protection coverage, privatization of public services with the concern of efficiency and competitiveness. Unlike many other policies, social policies at EU level are nonbinding policies that are implemented in order to solve the problems emerged after neoliberal integration process such as unemployment, poverty and social exclusion.

Therefore, before coming to the efficiency of European social policy, it is more logical to ask: Is there a social policy at EU level or what makes policies social for European society now?

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Endnotes

¹ Barrasso (2013, September 11). Make the case for Europe. Daily News of 2013.09.11 European Commission- 11/09/2013. Retrieved from <http://europa.eu/rapid/midday-express-11-09-2013.htm>

² One of the most important case supporting this argument is: Case C-438/05 of European Court of Justice: International Transport Workers' Federation and Finnish Seamen's Union v Viking Line ABP and OÜ Viking Line Eesti, judgment of 11 December 2007.

³ See social pillar of Europe 2020 Strategy targets: https://ec.europa.eu/info/strategy/european-semester/framework/europe-2020-strategy_en#featuresofthetargets

Cooperation and Coopetition as a Tools Which Could Improve Leading Startups all over the World

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Abstract

Building own business is a long-term and laborious process. A person who leads a startup tries to start with building own business by taking first steps toward financial independence. Analyzing conditions in Poland, on average every second startup sells its services abroad, admittedly it is good news, although half of them do not export at all. Half of the startups which export their services and goods generates more than 50% of their revenues outside Poland. Very interesting is the fact that 60% of exporters have conducted their foreign sale since the moment of establishing their business. On which markets do they sell their services? It turns out that the most popular are markets in the European Union (54%), including the United Kingdom 14% and Germany 9%. Only about 25% of Polish startups exports their products and services to the United States. Taking the United States into consideration, in 2008 the USA lost their leading position in the number of startups which are newly created and achieving success in business. Currently in terms of the number of new startups the USA is on a quite distant place after Denmark, Finland, Sweden, Hungary, New Zealand, Israel or Italy. In short, more companies were closed than created, so it was, as a matter of fact, like in Poland. Therefore, the condition to improve the development of startups both from Poland and other countries all the world is to increase cooperation and coopetition.

Keywords: cooperation, coopetition, company, startup

Introduction

The fashion for startups has been developing all over the world for a few years, also on the Polish market. This modern form of new enterprises or germinating ideas for venture is to stimulate economy and to induce a lot of people to set up their own business activity, for their own account. Cash is not necessary to set up a startup. Launching a startup also does not require funds regardless what the venture concerns, whether it is IT or any other trade idea. However, the idea itself may

obscure a rational shattering it or preventing objective evaluation of the chances to succeed on the market. Obviously, even the most crazy ideas may be a success but the probability is rather small. Excessive belief in the success of the venture may hinder apparent threats and drawbacks, therefore the phase of searching and elaborating the project is essential. Building own enterprise is a long and laborious process. When analysing Poland's condition, yearly every second startup exports its products and services and half of them gets over 50% of their revenues from investments made outside Poland. In terms of other countries, when in Poland such ventures may only be closed, in the USA new, great projects start. Although also there in 2008, i.e. since the global financial crisis was spreading to a bigger scale, they lost their leading position in the number of newly started and successful enterprises.

Nowadays, according to the Gallup Organisation it is on far twelfth place behind such countries as Denmark, Finland, Sweden, Hungary, New Zealand, Israel or Italy. According to the US Census Bureau in 2014 for the first time crossed two curves: the number of start-ups and liquidated entities, i.e. more companies were closed than started. The criterion for startups is that they function and employ at least one employee. Till 2008 the number of startups was on average about 100,000 higher than liquidated firms. In 2014 400,000 companies were set up and 470,000 were closed¹. Therefore, the aim of this article is to try and verify the research hypothesis that cooperation connected with coepetition may positively influence the development of startups worldwide.

Cooperation is generally defined as joint action of at least two entities which is this way strive to a better realisation of their aims or achieving a common goal. Coepetition, on the other hand, is a process consisting in simultaneous clash of two contrary relation: competition and cooperation².

It is cooperation connected with elements of competition that is necessary for the startups to stay in the market, i.e. rising startups should cooperate more with big corporations what may enable them to survive difficult situations connected with fluctuations of economic situation. Startups owners to transfer their activity to a higher level should mind the environment that surrounds them. Therefore, they ought to cooperate with other economic entities with similar goals and be surrounded by people who go in the same direction to build relations exceeding usual frameworks. Companies starting their economic activity should look for other companies which could provide mentor guidelines, support and inspiration.

¹ M. Bengtsson, S. Kock (2000). Coepetition in Business Networks- Cooperate and Compete Simultaneously. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 29, 411; J. Cygler (2009). *Kooperencja przedsiębiorstw. Czynniki sektorowe i korporacyjne*. Warszawa: Szkoła Główna Handlowa w Warszawie, 15

²http://www.statsoft.pl/textbook/glosfra_stat.html?http%3A%2F%2Fwww.statsoft.pl%2Ftextbook%2Fglose.html (August 12, 2016)

1. Research methodology

In this elaboration was used research method including material analysis and synthesis. The applied method allowed to prove that the condition to improve the functioning of startups and at the same time their development both in Poland as well as worldwide is cooperation connected with cooperation which increase the chances to succeed in business.

The applied analysis is a statistical procedure allowing to quantitatively determine the influence of cooperation and cooperation on the level of startups development regarding their number in particular countries, innovation level, profitability, the number of clients and business partners. Material synthesis connects specified elements comprising the research problem which is low level of startups development in Poland in relation the rest of the world. In this case synthesis forms holistic cognitive treating of the analysed research problem in the process of conducting business activity. Therefore, this part of the research method is a specific combination with comparative analysis of business entities regarding the above mentioned factors.

The tool used in this article is the so called „standardized effect”, i.e. the effect expressed in a convenient standardized units. Standardized effect for independent trials in conducting the *t*-tests is the difference of means divided by a standard deviation. In the analysis of the *t*-test effect size there are the following sections of the standardized effect¹:

- very small effect ($E_s < 0,20$),
- small effect ($0,20-0,50$),
- medium effect ($0,50-0,80$),
- large effect ($E_s > 0,80$).

Comparing the amounts of the above economic magnitudes calculated for particular startups giving the basis to formulate alternative hypothesis confirming the fact how much cooperation in connection with cooperation contributes to improvement of their functioning enables more or less precise verification of the above hypothesis, however it does not allow to fully state whether the obtained results give optimal solution. Therefore, analysis and synthesis of material is essential to determine this.

2. The problem of startup creation

Startup is an enterprise which fulfils at least one of the two conditions²:

¹ J. Picken (2017). From **Startup** to Scalable Enterprise: Laying the Foundation. Business Horizons, 60 Issue 5, 587-589

² K. Rockwood (2017). Is That Startup Spirit Sagging? You Can Build it Back Up. Inc, 39 Issue 7, 68

1. It belongs to digital economy sector, what means that information processing or derived technologies comprise at least one or more of the key elements of its business model,
2. It creates new technological solutions in IT/ICT, i.e. connected with the Internet and information technologies.

As it was mentioned in the introduction, the fashion for start-ups has been developing for a few years and also on the Polish market there are more and more such initiatives. This modern form of newly created enterprise is to stimulate economy and to induce a lot of people to set up their own business activity, for their own account. Cash is not necessary to set up a startup. Launching a startup also does not require funds regardless what the venture concerns, whether it is IT or any other trade idea.

Owing to zero investments in the market examination and at the same time receivers' expectations, one may expand their knowledge and gain new skill and experience without losing money if the idea turns out to be unsuccessful. If the venture fails, one may gain by saving on investments. It is also some kind of a motivation and determination test to project implementation. However, as it turns out, nothing comes easy and even the best ideas require adjustments to receivers' needs. Besides being the persistence and patience test, time devoted for communication and collecting market data together with their analysis is a test for creativity and flexibility towards one's ideas. No financial outlays are necessary on this stage for the idea to evolve, but searching investors who would like to put financial means into a rising enterprise is of key importance. Very often at this stage the idea becomes profitable, even certain of success or requires taking risk due to the market dynamic and too many independent factors. In the first case, investors will find themselves. Owing to a lot of research and pilot tests of products, the startup becomes known and often even recognisable, in demand. To its development only capital is necessary¹.

Every year there are many competitions for startups. On the Polish market there are a few organisations of this kind, such as ²:

- Lewiatan Business Angels,
- Amber Business Angels Network or
- Supraregional Business Angels Network – Innovation.

Besides private investors, foundations created to support entrepreneurship and also EU funds for innovative ventures are a popular form of startups funding. JEREMIE, created by the European Commission, the European Investment Fund and European

¹ <http://bestcapital.pl/czy-warto-inwestowac-w-startupy/> (July 22, 2015)

² C. Klingbeil, T. Semrau (2017). For Whom Size Matters- The Interplay Between Incubator Size, Tenant Characteristics and Tenant Growth. *Industry & Innovation*, 24 Issue 7, 735-736; L. Wang, F. Zhou, Y. An (2017). Determinants of Control Structure Choice Between Entrepreneurs and Investors in Venture Capital-Backed Startups. *Economic Modelling*, 63, 218

Investment Bank, is one of such funds. Also government financial resources may be useful. There are grants from District Employment Agencies for launching own business activity. Means from assistance funds are usually low-interest loans non-repayable if the project is a success.

The rules for spending the money are diverse. On a different basis operate business incubators, so popular on higher education facilities and created by special economic zones. The latter facilitates access to knowledge, office, software, etc. There is a wide range of opportunities for a future entrepreneur. An alternative to investors or sponsors are loans and credits for companies, however it is extreme taken into consideration many possibilities even such as Venture Capital¹. Polakpotrafi.pl or other crowdfunding websites are a popular form of looking for investors on the Polish market. In the case of startups it is very often easier to find an investor through project promotion on crowdfunding websites. Halfway solution between crowdfunding and sponsoring is to offer shares in profit or shares in the company in return for the project support². Additionally, it should be taken into consideration that without own capital to start a project implementation one may rarely find an investor who will not want something in return. More and more often it is possible to use online know-how of many organisations, business incubators, business chambers and associations, institutes of economic development in exchange for a share in the future profit of the company. Support offered by experienced entrepreneurs, businesspeople has diverse character, starting from organisational knowledge concerning economy, finances through marketing and on specialist knowledge from a given domain ending. Even if there are no particular amounts of money, this type of help is also valued.

When creating startups without financial means it is not certain that they will not be needed in the future. Due to their online popularity, the majority of start-ups is totally cost-free. The only expense and investment is the idea, time and work put into the creation of virtual products such as mobile application, website, blog, service, etc. In the case of such activity it is always worth trying and observing to what extent the market will accept the offer and in which direction it will evolve. Then there is a chance for success because nothing important is missed. Perceiving market and recipients' behaviour for whom the start-up is designated, a bad idea may be abandon or alter so that it could fit the market.

It is worth emphasizing that as a rule at the beginning a startup does not have to be profitable. Profit is a derivative feature of a beginning enterprise. A model startup is a situation in which income zeroes out the expenses. If the entrepreneur is able to earn on a given project at the beginning it does not mean that in the following years they will not find any legal or economic obstacles. Ventures with non-established position reach the top as quickly as they fall down. Therefore, profits should be used

¹ T. Brown, E. Boon, L. Pitt (2017). Seeking Funding in Order to Sell: Crowdfunding as a Marketing Tool. *Business Horizons*, 60 Issue 2, 190

² <https://e-biznes.pl/jak-zalozyc-start-up-bez-srodkow-wlasnych/> (December 22, 2015)

for evolution and development, adjusting and improving the product. No one has ever created an ideal product or service which could not be improved¹.

Analysing the number and state of startups in the world it is worth mentioning that in the Silicon Valley, the startup capital city of the world, between San Francisco Bay and San Jose, there are registered offices of such companies as: Apple, Facebook, Tesla, Intel, Lockheed Martin, HP, Google, Netfliks, eBay and many more other innovative firms which started their economic activity as startups. It is not possible to copy the Silicon Valley in a different part of the world but “bridges” may be built to facilitate the flow of know-how and capital. Israel deals with it really well. In Tel Aviv there are about thousand startups, one for each 19 m². The biggest corporations such as IBM, Facebook, Google or Deutche Telekom have their corporate seats and research centres there and what is more there are many accelerators in the city, i.e. ventures helping a company in speeding its development. Almost every week there is an event for startups. Key role played Israeli government which in the ‘90s decided to start Yozma programme. 10 Venture Capital funds were created, each with 20m USD budget, investing in companies in the initial phase of development. Special tax conditions were offered to encourage foreign investors. In China, on the other hand, there is a fast growing percentage of people using different kinds of online services and mobile devices. China has its own equivalent of Google, eBay, Facebook and YouTube. 25% of the world’s startups has been created and is operating there and their value is exceeding 1bn USD².

Korean start-ups develop equally rapidly, although a bit less spectacularly. Government is very helpful in this matter. Recently it has announced that Seoul will spend almost 66bn USD to subsidize the activity of startups and innovative companies in the following years. Also in some regions local governments offer help. Young entrepreneurs may use the help of mentors owing to several dozens of accelerating programmes. Startup community has been growing since 2010 and the Silicon Valley seems to notice it. One of the most significant accelerator from the Silicon Valley – 500 Start-ups has its representatives in Seoul and offers not only 4-month mentoring programme but also invests in startups. More and more often to Korea go representatives of American funds³.

In Poland operate about 2.7 thousand start-ups. The majority manufactures software and offers its products and services to companies. European research show that Polish startups are rather new – average time of operation does not exceed 2 years. This put Poland on the third place in Europe regarding the youngest enterprises, right

¹ <http://businessinsider.com.pl/finanse/firmy/startupowe-stolice-gdzie-powstaja-startupy/6e74kt4>
(May 29, 2016)

² <http://businessinsider.com.pl/finanse/firmy/startupowe-stolice-gdzie-powstaja-startupy/6e74kt4>
(May 29, 2016)

³ A. Skala, E. Kruczkowska (2017). Raport. Polskie startupy 2016. Warszawa: Bank Citi Handlowy, 8, 11, 24-25, 52

behind Romania (1.3 years) and Italy (1.7 Years). Polish startups are in majority young companies at an early stage of identifying customers' needs and are mostly created with subsidies from European funds¹.

The majority of startups (77%) conducts its sale in Business to Business model (B2B). In this group there are also startups which sell to companies and individual clients, i.e. they implement mixed model (26%). As a result it might be stated that "pure" B2B model implements half of the researched entities and 18% sells only in the Business to Consumer model (B2C). Start-ups from category "other" realize variations of the models mentioned (B2B2C, B2G, etc.). It is worth noticing that every third researched start-up offers its services in the popular SaaS model (Software as a Service) and more importantly the majority (59%) is micro-entities. More than $\frac{3}{4}$ sells to business and only half of them offers its products or services to big companies, including huge corporations. Additionally, over 47% of startups are exporters who conduct foreign sell since the beginning of their activity. Therefore, there is a polarization of the group of exporting startups: first numerous group exports a lot and the second group, i.e. in majority micro-entities, not much. The least is exporters who balance the sale on domestic and foreign market, 54% exports to EU countries, 3% of them exports to Asia and only 1% to Russia what is understandable in connection with embargo put on Poland by Russia as well as Russia-Poland relations.

To sum up the above considerations, it should be firmly stated that the process of building startups is not easy. The biggest problem is the lack of funds for development. There is also the lack of faith in success what is partly connected with no ability to connect interesting and innovative ideas with good marketing. Additionally, especially Polish startups cooperate with big corporations in a very small degree, what will be discussed in the further part of this article.

3. Tools supporting startups development all over the world

There are a lot of tools supporting startups development not only in Poland but worldwide. Two of them need to be emphasised: cooperation and cooptation, completing each other. Cooperation which is broadly defined collaboration helps in making contacts between start-ups created by micro-entities and big, international corporations. Such economic entities are able to teach big companies a lot about creativity and ingenuity. Cooptation results from simultaneous clash of two contrary relation: competition and cooperation. The process of establishing cooperation between the researched entities in inseparably accompanied by broadly understood competitiveness which induces to implement innovative solutions used by both new startups as well as big concerns or holdings.

¹ D. Acemoglu, P. Aghion, R. Griffith, F. Zilibotti (2007). Vertical Integration and Technology: Theory and Evidence, Institute for Empirical Research in Economics University of Zurich. Working Paper Series, 342, 2

3.1. Cooperation as a determinant influencing the process of establishing active start-ups

Enterprises starting their economic activity to function efficiently need not only proper resources management, elaborated budget or proper finances control but also good communication, fluidity between particular departments and different size entities. To do so they need to elaborate cooperation strategy consisting in technological and organisational connection of production and distribution with sales or other processes connected with startup functioning.

Many experts from economy and finances believe that technological advance and globalisation contribute to internal organisation of a company. In this case smaller companies are favoured because they seem to be more flexible compared to big entities. Small and medium-size enterprises have in particular the possibility to increase the level of innovation due to cooperation with big corporations on a global scale¹.

With reference to the above, the influence of cooperation on the development and through this on the activity of startups is researched with regard to employment, innovation, profitability, the number of clients and business partners. The data concerning arithmetic mean, median and standard deviation is presented in the table below (Table 1)

Table 1. The influence of cooperation on the startups development in 2010-2017

	Country	Increase of employment level	Increase of innovation level	Profit ability	Increase of the number of clients	Increase of the number of business partners
MEAN case 1-189	Lesotho	0.71957672	0.396825397	0.433862434	0.582010582	0.661375661
MEDIAN	Lesotho	1	0	0	1	1

¹ M. Bengtsson, S. Kock (2000). „Coopetition” in Business Networks- Cooperate and Compete Simultaneously. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 29, 411-426; J. Cygler (2009). *Kooperencja przedsiębiorstw. Czynniki sektorowe i korporacyjne*. Warszawa: Szkoła Główna Handlowa, p. 15-16; A. Ejsmont (2016). *The Deliveries Chain and Value Added in Context of Coopetition Between The Service and Industrial Companies in Poland and UE*. *European Journal of Economics and Business Studies*, 6, 201

case 1-189						
SD case 1-189	54.7037476	0.45039915	0.490538649	0.496922874	0.494538448	0.474498853
VALID_N case 1-189	Kosovo	189	189	189	189	189
SUM case 1-189	36855	136	75	82	110	125
MIN case 1-189	Afghanistan	0	0	0	0	0
MAX case 1-189	Zimbabwe	1	1	1	1	1
_25th% case 1-189	Dominica Republic	0	0	0	0	0
_75th% case 1-189	San Marino	1	1	1	1	1

Explanation: 1- affects, 0-does not affect

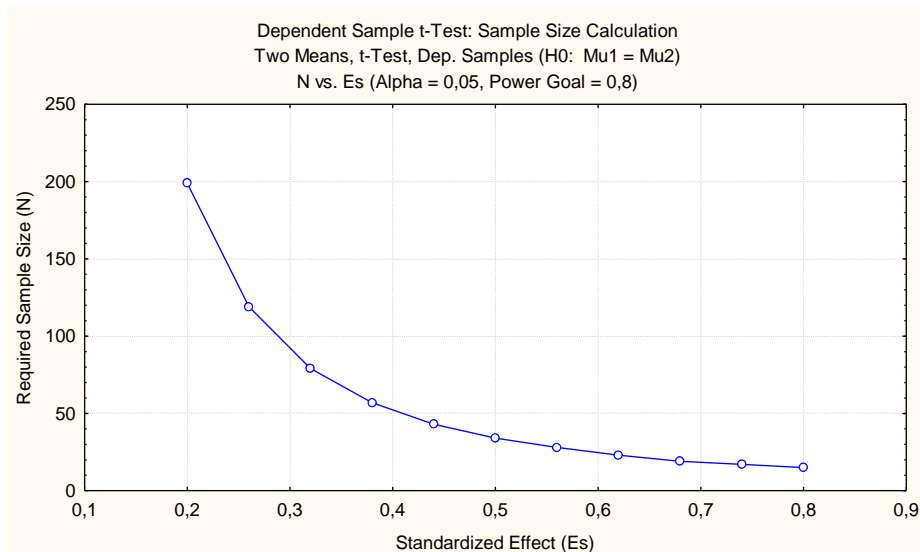
Source: Own elaboration on the basis of Doing Business. Equal Opportunity for All (2017). Washington: A World Bank Group Flagship Report, 114-117, 188-192; <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database> (September 9, 2017)

Based on the data from Table 1 it may be firmly stated that in such countries as Lesotho, Kosovo, Afghanistan, Zimbabwe, Dominica Republic and San Marino the influence of cooperation on the development of startups had significant importance with regard to the level of employment, innovation, profitability, the number of clients and business partners. However, countries such as the USA, Switzerland, Japan or even China were characterised by increased level of cooperation on the above factors. In these countries the biggest number of startups were registered and at the same time these countries have enhanced level of innovation and as a result profitability, increased level of employment, number of clients and business partners growing every year. Additionally, the analysis and synthesis of this material indicated that in these countries broadly understood cooperation on a massive scale has been developing between big corporations and smaller startups.

With reference to the above, taken into consideration the data concerning the influence of cooperation on the development of start-ups all over the world in 2010-

2017 in the context of increasing employment, level of innovation and profitability as well as the number of customers and consequently the number of business partners, to research the influence of cooperation on the above factors *t*-test was conducted for dependent trials where two dependencies were compared: the level of innovation and profitability as well as the number of employed, customers and business partners. The data are presented in Graph 1 (Graph 1).

Graph 1. Dependence of standardised effect on cooperation among startups in 2010-2017



Source: Own elaboration based on Doing Business. Equal Opportunity for All (2017). Washington: A World Bank Group Flagship Report, 114-117, 188-192; <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database> (September 9, 2017)

In the context of testing statistical relevance, a null hypothesis was formulated stating that cooperation with big corporations does not influence development increase of generally smaller startups in the context of enhancing employment, innovation level, profitability as well as the number of customers and business partners, what is opposite to what the author wanted to demonstrate. In the analysed case, very small standardised effect amounting to 0,00106482 with the power of test for the required sample size $N= 188$ on the level of 0.8000 confirms the reliability of alternative hypothesis stating that the condition to increase the influence of cooperation on the development of startups all over the world is intensified cooperation of the researched entities with big corporations.

3.2. Coopetition as a determinant influencing the process of establishing active startups

There is no unequivocal definition of coopetition in the strategic management literature. Mostly quoted is M. Bengtsson and S. Kock's definition in which coopetition is a simultaneous relation of competition and cooperation appearing between competitors. This paradox causes that at least two independent parties cooperate with each other in order to achieve common benefits and do not stop being competitors. The complexity of cooperation and competition results from simultaneous application of contradictory relations between enterprises consisting in trust and conflict. As a consequence, there is a paradox in which competing sides need to trust each other, engaging in cooperation, sharing information, experience and cooperation risk. Owing to this both parties may integrate their actions to achieve intended benefits and at the same time realise individual strategic aims¹. Simultaneousness of these two phenomena of competition and cooperation also causes interdependence of their relations. Therefore, competitors cooperate in some functions of the value chain, i.e. common production, marketing, B+R, information systems but they compete in others, such as customer service of products offer. Another element of M. Bengtsson and S. Kock's definition is the competitive character of both parties. This means that coopetition concerns relation of direct competitors who very often offer similar groups of products or whose offer is addressed to the same customers regarding demand and geography.

With reference to the above, the influence of coopetition on the development and at the same time on the activity of startups worldwide regarding employment, innovation, profitability, the number of customers and business partners was researched on the basis of analysis and synthesis. The data concerning arithmetical mean, median and standard deviation is presented in the table below (Table 2).

Table 2. The influence of coopetition on the development of startups in 2010-2017

	Country	Increase of the level of employment	Increase of the level of innovation	Profitability	Increase of the number of customers	Increase of the number of business partners
MEAN case 1-189	Lesotho	0.71957672	0.396825397	0.433862434	0.428571429	0.582010582
MEDIA N case	Lesotho	1	0	0	0	1

¹ Sala, Shpëtim: **Italian-Albanian-Greek Dictionary** (Transliteration and Albanian Dictionary) II, West Print, Tiranë, 2013.

1-189						
SD case 1-189	54.7037476	0.45039915	0.490538649	0.496922874	0.496186062	0.494538448
VALID_N case 1-189	Kosovo	189	189	189	189	189
SUM case 1-189	36855	136	75	82	81	110
MIN case 1-189	Afghanistan	0	0	0	0	0
MAX case 1-189	Zimbabwe	1	1	1	1	1
_25th% case 1-189	Dominican Republic	0	0	0	0	0
_75th% case 1-189	San Marino	1	1	1	1	1

Explanation: 1- affects, 0- does not affects

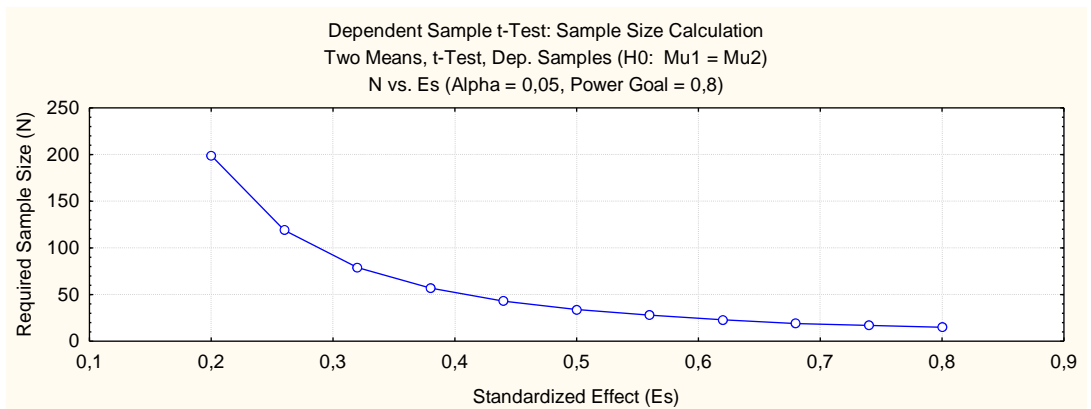
Source: Own elaboration on the basis Doing Business. Equal Opportunity for All (2017). Washington: A World Bank Group Flagship Report, 114-117, 188-192; <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database> (September 9, 2017)

On the basis of the data included in Table 2 it may be firmly stated that in such countries as: Lesotho, Kosovo, Afghanistan, Zimbabwe, Dominican Republic and San Marino the influence of cooperation on the development of startups, similarly as previously researched influence of cooperation, was significant with regard to the level of employment, innovation, profitability, the number of customers and business partners. On the other hand, countries such as: the USA, Switzerland, Japan or even China were characterised by increased level of cooperation on the above factors. In these countries the biggest number of startups were registered and at the same time these countries have enhanced level of innovation and as a result profitability, increased level of employment, number of clients and business partners growing every year. Additionally, the analysis and synthesis of this material indicated that in

these countries broadly understood cooperation on a massive scale has been developing between big corporations and smaller start-ups.

With reference to the above, taken into consideration the data concerning the influence of cooperation on the development of startups worldwide in 2010-2017 in the context of increasing employment, level of innovation and profitability as well as the number of customers and consequently the number of business partners, to research the influence of cooperation on the above factors, using Statistica programme, *t*-test was conducted for dependent trials where two dependencies were compared in the same way as in the case of cooperation. The data is presented in the graph below (Graph 2)

Graph 2. Dependence of standardised effect on cooperation among startups in 2010-2017



Source: Own elaboration on the basis of Doing Business. Equal Opportunity for All (2017). Washington: A World Bank Group Flagship Report, 114-117, 188-192; <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database> (September 9, 2017)

In the context of testing statistical relevance a null hypothesis was formulated stating that cooperation with big corporations does not influence development increase and at the same time the activity of generally smaller start-ups in the context of enhancing employment, innovation level, profitability as well as the number of customers and business partners, what is opposite to what the author wanted to demonstrate. In the analysed case, very small standardised effect amounting to 0.00251692 with the power of test for the required sample size $N = 188$ on the level of 0.8000 confirms the reliability of alternative hypothesis stating that the condition to increase the influence of cooperation on the development of startups worldwide is intensified cooperation of the researched entities with big corporations.

Summary

When conducting business activity, a young company faces many legal and economic difficulties which have impact on such aspects as: the level of employment and

innovation, generally understood profitability connected with achieving profits of making loss, increased or decreased number of customers and consequently business partners. Therefore, the tool which could help new startups in their activity on international markets is cooperation and coepetition. The lack of the possibility to finance the activity from the beginning, lack of including in the business plan innovative ideas and necessity to intensely promote products or services are the most common problems which startups around the world have to deal with on a daily basis. Cooperation connected with coepetition is to facilitate the start to the researched entities by broadly understood cooperation interlaced with competing with big, international corporations.

With reference to the above, on the basis of analysis and synthesis of collected material, the influence of cooperation and coepetition on the development and at the same time the activity of startups worldwide was researched with regard to employment, innovation, profitability, the number of customers and business partners. The conducted research firmly indicate that in such countries as Lesotho, Kosovo, Afghanistan, Zimbabwe, Dominican Republic and San Marino the influence of cooperation and coepetition on the development of startups was very significant regarding the above mentioned factors. However, such countries as the USA, Switzerland, Japan or even China were characterised by bigger influence of both types of tools facilitating start-ups activity on the above factors, all the more that these countries have the biggest number of startups and at the same time they have increased level of innovation and consequently profitability, increased level of employment and growing number of customers and business partners.

T-test for dependent trials was conducted, using Statistica, in which two dependencies were compared: the level of innovation and profitability as well as the number of employed, customers and business partners. In the context of testing statistical relevance a null hypothesis was formulated stating that cooperation connected with coepetition with big corporations does not influence the development increase of generally smaller startups in the context of enhancing employment, innovation level, profitability as well as the number of customers and business partners, what is opposite to what the author wanted to demonstrate. In both analysed cases standardized effect was very small what confirmed the reliability of alternative hypothesis stating that the condition to increase the influence of cooperation and coepetition on the development of startups worldwide is intensified cooperation of the researched entities with big corporations. However, the influence of coepetition on startups activity was bigger than in the case of cooperation because the value of the standardised effect was higher and amounted to 0.00251692 whereas in the case of cooperation it was only 0.00106482. With reference to the above, the conclusion is that competition connected with broadly understood cooperation becomes a bigger motivator in the development of economic activity conducted by startups all over the world.

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Supervision of Learners with Intellectual Disabilities in a Special School: *in Loco Parentis* of Teachers as a Wellness Perspective

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Abstract

This chapter addresses a study that was conducted at a special school for learners with intellectual disabilities in the Bojanala region of South Africa's North West Province. After all, the learners are the heartbeat of the school; in their absence, the school, its buildings and facilities, and even the teachers would be rendered pointless. The aim of this study was to explore ways in which learners are supervised and cared for, considering their mild, moderate and (in a few cases) severe intellectual disabilities. This longitudinal study took place over a period of three years and was embedded in a community engagement project conducted at a particular special school in said region. Due to the nature of a project, action research was selected as the approach most likely to yield useful results over an extended period of time. Additionally, Hettler's Wellness Theory (1980) was used as the theoretical framework by which to investigate how this school's teachers and other personnel adhered to the *in loco parentis* principle - i.e. teachers' legal imperative to assume some of parental functions and responsibilities, including protecting learners' physical and psychological wellbeing. As such, the school management team (SMT) and teachers made up the study's participants. Data were collected by means of questionnaires, interviews and observations. In their encounters with the school management team, the researchers realised that it is particularly crucial to ensure learner safety at special schools. Initial findings also revealed that most of the teachers employed at the school had not received training on teaching at a special school. Furthermore, teachers indicated that they were aware of their specific roles, stating that they only needed to be reminded of what they needed to do in order to ensure learner safety at all times. They pointed out that they simply followed the duty roster with regard to learner safety. This entails teaching learners about dangerous objects like garden utensils and how to remove them from the school premises in addition to adhering to the school safety

policy. The teachers further revealed that 24-hour security personnel were employed by the school and that the school premises were bordered by a fence. Meanwhile, the SMT indicated that, although the school did have a safety policy, threats to learner safety persisted. For example, learners were not provided with protective equipment while working in the workshops. The SMT listed the potential consequences of this unsafe school environment as physical injuries, bullying, kidnapping, arson, harassment, and teen pregnancies. Since the study was transformative in nature and action research was relevant, there was a need for intervention. Thus, the findings of the study were shared with the SMT. Furthermore, it was clear from conversations with teachers that they needed intervention, including in-service training. The intervention process was discussed with the school management team and all staff members. It was patently obvious that the majority of the teachers and some of the management team did not have specialised training in special needs or inclusive education and that they were not aware of the needs of learners with intellectual disabilities. The SMT thus highlighted the need for training for all staff members in how to adhere to the *in loco parentis* principle.

Keywords: Intellectual disabilities, wellness, health promotion, safety, *in loco parentis*, supervision, bill of rights, professional teaching staff, behavioural problems, special school.

Introduction

Intellectual disabilities are defined by their advent during a crucial developmental period of the sufferer. They are characterized by sub-average intellectual functioning, with sufferers testing with Intelligent Quotient (IQ) scores of 70 below and demonstrating deficits in at least two areas of adaptive behaviour; i.e. communication, self-care, home living, social skills, self-direction, learning, leisure and work (Intellectual Disability Rights Service, 2009, pp. 1).

Meanwhile, education becomes meaningful only when learners, regardless of their intellectual capacity or abilities, are able to pursue their educational rights in an environment that is both safe and secure (Joubert, 2015, pp. 153). Public school educators are obligated to supervise learners for the full duration of the school day; this includes time spent participating in extra-mural activities. Moreover, extra care is needed when dealing with intellectually disabled learners since many of them, especially those suffering from autism, are unable to care for themselves as well as other children are able. As such, South African common law dictates that educators must assume the responsibility to care for children from their parents while they are at school or involved in official school activities. Note that educators are not expected or allowed to replace parents, but they are accountable for anything that happens to learners while they are at school. Roos, Oosthuizen and Smit (2009, pp. 126) posit

that the *in loco parentis* principle obligates educators to carry out caring supervision over learners' the psychological and physical welfare, since they are impressionable and immature persons. In keeping with this, Coetzee (2007, pp. 74) argues that educators are vested with both "delegated" and "original" authority to take good care of the children placed in their charge. Teachers are supposed to ensure their duty of care on learners as *bonus paterfamilias* (i.e. to act as any reasonable person would act given the circumstances). This duty begins when the first learner arrives at the school in the morning and continues until the last learner has left the school in the afternoon. Geographically, the bounds of teachers' responsibilities extend to a few meters beyond the boundaries of the school premises; i.e. the immediate vicinity of the school.

Theoretical Framework

The perspective that guided the study in question was Hetler's (1980) Wellness Theory, as expounded on by Van Lingen (2000), which defines wellness as a continuous process of holistic development based on personally determined goals. Hetler (*ibid.*) adds that there are six dimensions pertinent to human development: physical, emotional, social, spiritual, intellectual and career wellness. According to Myers, Sweeney and Witmer (2000, pp. 252), meanwhile, wellness is:

A way of life orientated toward optimal health and well-being in which body, mind and spirit are integrated by the individual to live life more fully.

This theoretical framework was of great use to the researchers in the study at hand as it helped them to better understand the ways in which the SMT and teachers supported learners in their holistic development across all wellness dimensions. The framework also assisted researchers in identifying gaps in teachers' knowledge and skills, hindering their ability to provide adequate learner support.

Legal Framework for Learner Safety

In the Republic of South Africa, the supervision of learners with intellectual disabilities in special schools is governed by the following legal framework:-

1. The 2007 United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and Optional Protocol

The preamble to the United Nations *Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities* (2007) reaffirms that all human rights and fundamental freedoms as well as the needs of persons with disabilities are to be fully guaranteed without discrimination. In terms of Article 10 of this document (*ibid.*) :

[The] parties reaffirm that every human being has the inherent right to life and shall take all necessary measures to ensure its effective enjoyment by persons with disabilities on an equal basis with others.

Moreover, Article 12 of the *Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities* (*ibid.*) holds that the life of a disabled person matters just as much as that of his or her able-bodied counterpart. In most circumstances, disabled children rely on able-bodied persons to assist them both mentally and physically to safely navigate dangerous environments. Unsafe environments therefore pose a particular threat to the disabled person's right to life.

2. The Constitution of South Africa, 1996

a. The right to education (Section 29)

In terms of Section 29 of *The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa* (1996a), all South Africans have the right to basic education. This right can only be fulfilled in a safe school environment. The State must therefore ensure that public schools are free of drugs, weapons and other potentially dangerous elements. When Government fails in this mandate, many learners are forced to drop out of school to protect their own safety and are thus deprived of their right to basic education. Parents cannot be forced to enrol their children in schools where threats to their children's lives and wellbeing abound. Moreover, educators cannot provide learners with basic education if their own right to safety cannot be guaranteed.

b. Equality (Section 9)

The Constitution advocates the right to equal protection and benefit under the rule of law. Section 9(3) (Republic of South Africa, 1996a) states the following:

The State may not unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds, including race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language and birth.

Disabled children in South Africa are among those groups of people who qualify as previously disadvantaged. Therefore, as per the current dispensations affirmative action policy, special attention is paid to this group when it comes to matters such as employment and education to protect them against unfair discrimination. The Criminal Justice Support Network (CJSN) (2009) defines discrimination as follows:

[Discrimination] is treating a person, or group of people, less favourably than others would be treated in same circumstances because of their membership of a particular group, such as having a disability or being a woman.

Thus, any form of negligence in terms disabled children's safety on the part of educator may amount to unfair discrimination.

c. Human Dignity (Section 10)

Section 10 of *The Constitution* states that "everyone has inherent dignity and the right to have their dignity respected and protected" (Republic of South Africa, 1996a). Bullying and sexual violence violate the human dignity of disabled learners. Female

learners, in particular, are often forced to drop out of school to escape violent school environments (Prinsloo, 2009, pp. 53). To combat this, user-friendly infrastructure and approachable social services personnel should be put in place to ensure safe schooling environments for disabled learners. The absence of such infrastructure and social services can be regarded as a serious infringement on the disabled learner's right to human dignity.

d. The right to life (Section 11)

Although Section 11 of *The Constitution* states that, “everyone has the right to life” (Republic of South Africa, 1996a), unsafe school environments continue to pose threats to the right to life of learners. For example, corporal punishment and bullying, among others, can be considered violations of this section. When learners are left unsupervised, the risk of them fighting and or otherwise injuring themselves becomes far greater. This is evidenced by the proliferation of media reports of stabbings, bullying, and rape in South African public schools over the past several years.

e. Freedom and Security of Person (Section 12)

In terms of Section 12 of *The Constitution*, the freedom and security of a person refers to their being safe from all forms of violence, torture, and cruel, inhuman and/or degrading treatment (Republic of South Africa, 1996a). This applies as much to intellectually disabled learners as to any other South African citizen. Thus, name-calling and other forms of degrading treatment and discrimination based on their disabilities amounts to infringement of this right.

f. Privacy (Section 14)

In terms of Section 14 of *The Constitution*, infringement on a person's right to privacy includes accessing their personal information in order to divulge it to third parties (Republic of South Africa, 1996a). The personal information of disabled learners is of a particularly sensitive nature and so must be handled with care in order to remain confidential, in keeping with this section of *The Constitution*. It is the responsibility of the school management team, together with the teaching staff, to ensure that learners' privacy is maintained.

Nevertheless, it should be noted that, in terms of Section 36 of *The Constitution*, no right is absolute and can be limited provided the limitation is reasonable and justifiable (Republic of South Africa, 1996a). In all human rights, safety comes first. This simply means that an individual's right of to privacy can be limited if preserving this right may endanger the individual's safety or that of other citizens. For example, if it is suspected that a learner has brought drugs or weapons to school, their right to privacy must be infringed upon to enable a search of their person and property.

g. Safe environment (Section 24)

Barry (2006, pp. 111) posits that the legal duty of care vested upon schools requires that they take action to prevent any foreseeable harm to learners in their charge. The

SMT is responsible for drawing up a duty roster to ensure that all educators are involved in supervision. Such a roster will also serve as evidence of accountability in case of any incidents in which learners are harmed or threatened with harm.

3. The South African Schools Act, 84 of 1996

Section 8(a) of the *South African Schools Act* (84 of 1996) (Republic of South Africa, 1996b) advocates the search for and seizure of drugs and weapons in schools and other public areas. Moreover, the Minister of Education permits schools to utilise search devices for this purpose and to contact that South African Police Services (SAPS) to conduct random searches. In such cases, a police official may, without a warrant, conduct a search of any public school premises, provided there is sufficient reason to suspect the presence of such contraband. All people within the public school at the time of operation may be subjected to a search. Any weapons and/or drugs found during the search will be seized.

4. The Regulations for Safety Measures at Public Schools (2001) as amended in 2006

In 2001, the Minister of Education declared public schools to be violence- and drug-free zones in terms of Section 61 of the *South African Schools Act* (Republic of South Africa, 1996b). Safety measures must thus be in place in order for schools to remain free of drugs and other dangerous objects. These safety measures should be ensured in the school safety policy and should include the following:

- a. People are prohibited from carrying dangerous objects onto the public school premises.
- b. Illegal drugs are forbidden on the public school premises.
- c. No person must be allowed to enter the public school premises under the influence of alcohol or drugs.
- d. No form of violence or unrest will be allowed on public school premises.

In keeping with the *South African Schools Act* (Republic of South Africa, 1996b), school safety policies should also allow police officers to conduct random searches, as discussed under Point 3.

5. The Children’s Act, 38 of 2005

The Children’s Act, 38 of 2005 is derived from Section 28 of *The Constitution*, which holds that the best interests of the child are of paramount importance in all matters pertaining to the child. As such, Section 9 of the *Children’s Act* (38 of 2005) (Republic of South Africa, 2005) states that in all matters concerning the care, protection and wellbeing of a child - the child’s best interests are of paramount importance. According to Joubert (2015, pp. 169), Section 10 of the *Children’s Act* (Republic of South Africa, 2005) states that every child of such an age, maturity and stage of development as to be able to participate in any matter concerning that child, has the

right to participate in an appropriate way, and that views expressed by the child must be given due consideration. In other words, within the context of this study, the law requires that the learner's voice be heard in all matters pertaining to his or her educational. Within this paradigm, it is clear that more serious attention needs to be paid to hearing the voices of intellectually disabled learners, lest their disabilities prevent them from effectively communicating their needs and desires.

Research Methodology

The study in question was embedded in a transformative-pragmatic paradigm, which employed both quantitative and qualitative methods for data collection. To ensure adherence to the relevant ethical considerations, the project was cleared by the University of South Africa ethics committee and the Bojanala regional office of the North West Province Department of Education. Participants included the school management team and teachers at a special school for learners with intellectual disabilities in that region. The researchers used questionnaires, interviews and observations for a data collection. Manual thematic content analysis, as outlined by Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit (2004, pp. 179), was used to analyse the data. Frequency tables were compiled based mainly on teachers' perceptions of how supervision was conducted at the school, whereas more in-depth data was obtained from both the SMT and the teachers. Out of this, the following themes emerged:

- Inadequately qualified educators;
- Safety concerns related to learner transportation;
- Safety concerns in workshops and the garden;
- The importance of effective feeding and health schemes;
- The need for a functional roster for playground supervision

Risk Environment

School Playground

The school playground is the place where learners usually spend their leisure time during and after school hours. Schools are required to take reasonable steps to assess and respond to potential risks of harm to their learners (Barry, 2006, pp. 113) and this responsibility extends beyond the bounds of the classroom. School managers should ensure the presence of educators on the playground whenever they are in use by learners. Indeed, Joubert (2015, pp. 179) posits that the *in loco parentis* responsibility of educators starts from the time the learners enter the school premises and continues until the last learner leaves at the end of the school day.

Sports Grounds

Most school extra-mural activities take place on site on the school sports grounds, where injury in the normal course of play is inevitable for learners participate in school sports (Joubert, 2015, pp. 179) such as athletics, soccer, rugby, netball, cricket, and so forth. In light of this (and to prevent more serious injuries) educator

supervision of the sports grounds supervision is essential. Such supervision is even more important in special schools, where disabled learners may be uniquely vulnerable to injury. In addition, all schools must obtain signed consent forms from parents before allowing learners to participate in school sporting activities. Joubert (2015, pp. 174) asserts that the following information should be included in such consent forms:-

1. The purpose of the school activity;
2. The nature of the school activity undertaken;
3. The full fixture of the school activity with the name of the supervising educator and his or her contact details;
4. The kind of transport, accommodation and food arrangements that have been made for away-from-school activities.

It is important to note that schools are not allowed to request parents to sign indemnity forms, exempting the school and educators from liability for damages. Such forms, even if they are signed by parents or learners, are not legally binding and the school will still be obligated by law to provide compensation for damages.

Transportation of Learners

Although the majority of South African learners currently utilise public transport, there are a number of learners whose parents bring them to and fetch them from school. In this regard, Section 5.10.1 of the Department of Education's *Guidelines to ensure quality education and support in special schools and special school resource centres* (2007a) states that a special school must provide transport for all those learners who require transport in order to be able them to access the school. The guidelines further recommend that the transport subsidy for special schools, both residential and non-residential, should be evaluated regularly to ensure adequacy. Furthermore, transportation companies that convey learners to and from school should register with the school, since their activities are interconnected with those of the school. In this regard, the Department of Basic Education's *Regulations for Safety Measures at Public Schools* (Department of Basic Education, 2007, schools must ensure that the following conditions are met:-

1. The drivers of such vehicles are in possession of valid driver's licences and professional driving permits.
2. The transport company or the owner of the vehicles provides the school with the following:
 - a. Insurance and roadworthy certificates for each vehicle;
 - b. Passenger liability insurance documentation.
3. The vehicle transporting learners has a fire extinguisher.

Additionally, certain challenges are posed when learners are dropped off outside the school premises since somebody needs to monitor them until they enter the school. Schools should thus ensure that all learners (including both those who use public transport and those who are transported by their parents) are both dropped off and collected inside the school yard to ensure their safety before and after school.

Workshops and Craft Centres

Learners are taught practical skills such as woodwork in school workshops and craft centres. Whilst these are very valuable skills to impart to learners with intellectual disabilities, the kind of equipment and substances involved in such activities can pose serious threats to learners' safety. In terms of the South African *Occupational Health and Safety Act* (85 of 1993), learners, like employees, are entitled to a safe working environment and it is the school's duty to ensure that potential hazards and risks are eliminated or at least mitigated (Republic of South Africa, 1993). Woodwork tools like saws, jointers, boring machines and the like can cause injuries if learners do not use them properly and the noise and sawdust that they produce can also be detrimental to learners' wellbeing. Learners with strong allergies can develop serious respiratory problems such as chronic bronchitis if they are repeatedly exposed to sawdust and persistent exposure to loud noises can cause permanent damage to learners' hearing. Therefore, personal protective equipment (PPE) such as dust masks, respirators and earmuffs must be provided to learners under the supervision of educators to ensure the proper use of PPE and adherence to sound health and safety practices.

Garden

At the special school where this study was conducted, as part of the focus on gardening as a learning area in the curriculum, each learner is assigned a portion of the school yard in which to cultivate a garden. As with woodwork, this valuable practical learning experience does pose some safety hazards. Garden tools such as spades, garden forks, and hoes used to loosen the soil can be dangerous; especially when they are used by intellectually disabled children. Learners working in the garden thus need educator supervision to minimize the risk self-injury and injuring to others. Additionally, the proper PPE, such as gloves and safety boots, must be provided to learners to further minimise the risk of injury.

Road Safety

The special school in the study is situated in a rural area along a main road, which learners coming from the village have to cross in order to gain entry to the school. This situation poses a serious threat to learners' safety as there are no traffic signs or road markings to clearly indicate a pedestrian crossing, and there is no scholar patrol on duty to assist learners in crossing the road before and after school. This situation is especially disconcerting if one considers the fact that intellectually disabled learners often need more assistance in such situations than their able-bodied counterparts do. This is yet another instance by which we are reminded that even

learners with only mild intellectual disabilities have significant difficulty in effectively managing their lives without sufficient support and training.

Access to School Premises

All schools ought to have well-trained security guards at their points of entry to control access to the premises. Security guards employed in special school must receive additional training on how to interact with intellectually disabled learners (Department of Basic Education, 2007b). All people entering the school premises are subjected to searches. It is advised that visitors be required to produce identity documents and provide their details before they are granted entry to the school. Collection of children from the school must also be monitored to ensure that the right child is collected by the right parent or designated person. The school will be held liable if any child goes missing during school hours.

Requirements for safe environment in Special schools

Trained staff

The Department of Basic Education's *Guidelines to ensure quality education and support in special schools and school resource centres* (2007b) advocate that staff in special schools should include professional teaching staff as well as professional and non-professional support staff to ensure a learning environment and support structure suitable for children with special needs.

1. Professional Teaching Staff

Special schools require well trained professional educators who are specifically qualified to teach intellectually disabled learners. The safety and scholastic development of intellectually disabled learners can be jeopardised if they are supervised by educators who know nothing about their needs. Prospective staff members must be thoroughly screened before they are appointed to ensure that they suitable to work with children with special needs (Department of Basic Education, 2007b). According to the aforementioned guidelines (Department of Basic Education, 2007b), professional teaching staff should have the following skills if inclusive education is to be supported:

- A first degree or diploma, which includes training on special needs or inclusive education;
- Training in the development of Inclusive Learning Programmes;
- Engagement in ongoing professional development related to the needs of the learners;
- Competence in the methods of communication utilised by the learners in the school.

It is also recommended that learning support teachers and teaching assistants be included on the teaching staff. Special schools should adhere to the teacher-learner ratio recommended by the Department when appointing teachers.

2. Psychologists

Individuals with intellectual disabilities often also suffer from associated mental illnesses (Intellectual Disability Rights Service, 2009) and therefore require the support of a psychologist. Psychologists can easily diagnose and assess the nature of both the intellectual disability and the mental illness and subsequently recommend the most appropriate modes of support. At times, intellectually disabled people may have more than one disability that, in the absence of a psychologist to make a proper diagnosis, often goes undetected. It should be noted that a single psychologist can be appointed at District level to oversee a number of special schools rather than focus on just one school. Through partnership with psychologists, special schools can ensure optimal safety and support for all learners, since each learner's particular needs can be identified and understood.

3. Social Workers

The services of the social workers are inevitably required when one is dealing with intellectually disabled learners, particularly when those learners demonstrate behavioural problems. Among other services, social workers, like psychologists, can provide counselling to learners. It is the responsibility of the social worker to liaise with learners' parents and guide them to the appropriate support channels. Intellectually disabled learners who pose a threat to the safety of other learners can also be directed to social workers.

4. Nursing Staff

As nursing staff are fairly scarce, it is recommended that health professionals be appointed by the District and stationed at special school resource centres to ensure their accessibility to multiple schools (Department of Basic Education, 2007b). More importantly, nurses should be required to pay regular visits to special schools to ensure that prescription medication, where relevant, is being administered correctly. Ensuring the safety of intellectually disabled learners in class and surrounding is not only dependant on educators creating a safe physical environment; learners' internal functioning must also be regulated and this internal regulation is often performed by medication.

Recommendations for a Maintaining a Safe Special School Environment

Schools should draft simple posters outlining their safety policies and procedures and display these in all classrooms. This will assist in maintaining a risk-free environment for staff and learners. Unsafe conditions must be identified and reported to the school office immediately. It is the responsibility of educators to provide sufficient supervision in the classroom. Under no circumstances should intellectually disabled

learners be left unattended in the classroom or on the school grounds. As such, principals should refrain from calling educators to the office during class time and staff meetings should be scheduled for after school, once the learners have already gone home. Additionally, the security of the building and perimeter fences should be checked regularly.

Discussion of Findings

Inadequately Qualified Educators

The researchers found that, of the 22 teaching staff members employed the school, only four had qualifications specialising in inclusive education. Eighteen of these educators only had generic three-year teaching qualifications, with only the aforementioned four teachers being qualified at NQF Level 8. The challenge was that it was not easy for the four relevantly qualified teachers to guide or teach the other 18 staff members how a special school should be run. These less qualified staff members were frustrated by the need to teach these learners in a more holistic way than they had been trained to do. As Hetler (1980) explains, for all wellness requirements to be satisfied at a special school, teachers need to make sure that every learner's intellectual, emotional, social, physical, and spiritual potential is unleashed in addition to preparing them to be eligible for employment upon completion of their schooling. Teachers expressed their desired for skills development interventions to better prepare learners for gainful employment. The challenge is to prepare students to enter the workforce by the time they graduate at age 21 so that they can support themselves financially, without having to rely solely on government disability grants. Furthermore, teachers were worried about the teacher-to-learner ratio in their classrooms, with the large class sizes making it difficult for them to supervise learners properly. As such, they expressed the need for assistant teachers to be employed at the school to provide support in this regard.

Safety Concerns related to Learner Transportation

The study revealed that almost half of the learner population used public transport facilities to travel to and from school. It was clear that the school's minibus was not sufficient to transport all learners. Learners from neighbouring villages travelled on the backs of *bakkies* (small trucks) with canopies not designed or intended for this purpose but rather for the transportation of goods. Due to socioeconomic constraints, parents had no choice but to depend on this highly unsuitable and even dangerous mode of transportation for their children. Sadly, no staff member raised the issue of the clear need for a school learner transportation service, despite the fact that they were all aware of these issues and many even transported learners themselves. This situation is clearly having a very negative impact on learner safety.

Safety Concerns in Workshops and the Garden

Learners in the various skills classes were grouped according to their abilities and interests in order to prepare them for the most suitable careers. Unfortunately, the classrooms, workshops and outdoor spaces where welding, electrical work, carpentry, needlework, and gardening skills were taught only accommodated learners with mild intellectual disabilities. In other words, only those learners who possessed of the intellectual capacity to understand workshop safety practices and to take the necessary precautions were truly safe in these environments. Nevertheless, it was encouraging to discover that all learners were supervised by teachers at all times in these environments. This is significant as the inadequate safety precautions made it necessary for an adult present to prevent accidents. With regard to gardening, teachers encountered the challenge of learners wanting to water the garden during teaching periods when they became bored with academic subject matter. Teachers allowed this, despite the risk involved in these learners being left unattended.

The Importance of Effective Feeding and Health Schemes

Kwatubana and Nel (2014) assert that a health-promoting school eliminates health hazards in the school and its surrounds. The school in question indeed complied with such a definition of a health-promoting school. The kitchen where food was prepared was clean, despite water shortages, thanks to the diligence of the kitchen staff. Learners also washed their hands before they ate their meals and teachers supervised the serving process as well as the collection of dirty dishes. No learner was allowed to eat while standing or outside of the classroom in order to ensure close monitoring. School meals were especially important because some of the learners only ate at school due to impoverished home environments. The vegetable garden in the school premises meant a great deal because learners knew that, after the harvest, their crops would form part of their meals. Hence, they took special care of the garden and watered it regularly.

The Need for a Functional Roster for Playground Supervision

The only formal roster that was availed to researchers was the one used for formal sports training or when there were matches at the school premises. Most often, due to staff shortages, children played alone on the sports field with no supervision during break times. Teachers complained that they were supervising children who were eating in the classroom and were unable to supervise those playing outside the classrooms. This poses a serious challenge to teacher learner ratio at a special school for learners with intellectual disabilities.

Intervention

Since the project involved both research and the community, it was necessary to perform the research before sharing the findings thereof with the SMT and teachers. The nature of the project called for action research, which is more concerned with

practice than with theory (Townsend, 2010). Furthermore, as Wood (2014, pp. 667) asserts:

Action research contributes to improving social situations, while simultaneously generating knowledge that can influence educational practice and research in a significant way.

The researchers asked the school management team to outline their needs and where they needed immediate intervention. Their immediate needs lay in the area of teacher roles and responsibilities regarding supervision and to help teachers to understand their *in loco parentis* responsibilities. To address this, the researchers organised a workshop for the entire staff on supervision and *in loco parentis* responsibilities in relation to the various roles pertinent to learner safety within the school premises.

The intervention was initiated in terms of holding a number of workshops in areas where knowledge and training gaps has been identified. The workshops covered transport safety, safety in workshops, hygiene and health matters, and children's rights in general. Evaluation was done to measure how successful the intervention workshops were and the findings were satisfactory in that they initiated a reasonable change at this special school.

1. Transport and Safety

The first workshop was on the safety of the learners during their transportation between their homes and the school. Some of the learners travelled in vehicles of various descriptions, whilst others who lived in the village simply walked to school. Neither road signage nor road markings were in place to inform drivers about children that are crossing the road from the village. To ensure the implementation of adequate solutions, the school management team included this item in their parents meeting so that the issue of safe learner transportation was thoroughly discussed and addressed. Some parents volunteered to monitor the transport used by the learners in addition to ensuring that the rules of the road were respected.

2. Safety in Workshops and the Garden

The school has the following workshops: welding, carpentry, bricklaying, and electrical work. In all of these workshops, certain precautions must be taken to eliminate the risk of injury. The second workshop was thus on safety in the workshops, where learners are exposed to hazardous substances such as dust, heavy machinery, and hand tools. Safety rules and warning signs were posted on the walls of the workshops and these rules were explained to and continually reinforced with learners each time they entered the workshops.

Meanwhile, in response to concerns with regard to the safety of learners while gardening, teachers were made aware of the importance of supervising learners when they are using garden tools and pesticides, and even when they lay fertilizer. The school did not have a garden and so the researchers assisted the teachers and all the

learners who were interested in planting one. These interested teachers and learners were also given training by a facilitator organised by Unisa's Chance2Advance initiative. One of the primary values of this initiative was its strong ability to prepare learners for career wellness. Subsequent to receiving the training on gardening, two learners from the school found employment in this field in the nearby town.



Image 1: Learners under supervision of teachers and facilitator on how to start a crop garden

(2013 Unisa Community engagement intervention)

3. Teacher and SMT Roles

The whole responsibility of ensuring a safe environment in school is vested in the school management team (SMT). The researchers therefore instituted the intervention initiative of training the SMT on learner supervision. The training was aimed at making the SMT aware of its duties and responsibilities as expected in terms of its *in loco parentis* role; i.e. teachers are required to honour their duty to care for learners as *bonus paterfamilias*. This duty begins when the first learner arrives at the school in the morning and continues until the last learner leaves the school in the afternoon. It is extended to a few meters beyond the school yard, within the vicinity of the school. Each educator's duty to care for learners must be included in his or her job description, to remind him or her that it is their lawful obligation. When drawing up the school duty roster, the SMT must ensure that it indicates the names of teachers who are on supervision duty at the school entrances and surrounding areas.

As mentioned, sports ground supervision is of also paramount importance in special schools. Classes left without an educator descend into chaos, especially in the case of learners with special needs. Teachers were encouraged to implement what they had learnt and informed that, after three months, the research team would return to the school to evaluate the safety measures put in place.

This intervention will benefit the school in that teachers now understand their roles regarding learner safety at the school and will practise what they have learnt. Moreover, the school management team will be able to allocate teacher duties (especially those that involve learner supervision at break times) more appropriately

and effectively. It will also benefit the learners in that the teachers will be more careful in dealing with safety issues that impact them in the future.

4. Career Wellness

Since teachers expressed concerns about how to prepare learners for future careers, the researchers organised facilitators for to train the learners in computer literacy and pedicure and manicure skills. The teachers were also trained in those skills so that they could supervise learners during their practical activities for those subjects. The training was done over a period of five days from 08h00 to 14h00 each day. All those who attended training received certificates from Chance2Advance. For teachers, this training was credited as continuous professional development.

Evaluation after Three Months

After a period of three months, the researchers visited the school in order to give support and guidance where necessary. It was found that the teachers and the school management team had sought sponsors to buy the necessary material where they needed to improve their situation. They had also advertised posts for teachers with various skills in promoting career wellness for learners with intellectual disabilities. Workshop environments had become far safer. Although there was a lack of some items like safety boots, the school had managed to obtain safety hats for bricklayers, glasses for welders, and two sewing machines. The school's training hair salon was also equipped with the necessary supplies. The SMT and teachers were applauded for their initiative in these areas. The crop garden had improved significantly and learners took great pride in the sense of ownership and achievement they derived from planting and tending to the garden when they saw the crops growing. The vegetables from this garden were harvested and cooked as part of healthy break-time meals for learners. In this way, physical wellness was promoted, with the garden initiative contributing towards healthy eating patterns for the learners.

The following images demonstrate some of the successes achieved through the action research project at this school.



Image 2. An improved garden after three months



Image 3. After a while, bricklayers had the material to use and all had safety hats



Image 4. Two sewing machines were secured and learners sewed their own netball uniforms



Image 5. Protective/safety glasses were worn by learners when welding

Conclusion

This chapter has repeatedly emphasised the fact that learners have the right to basic education in terms of Section 29 of *The Constitution* (Republic of South Africa, 1996a). This right can only be fulfilled in a safe school environment. The intervention was thus framed within the essence of education law embedded in the German concept of

geborgenheit. Cassells (as cited in Oosthuizen, 2009, pp. 16) explains that, in the German language, the term infers more than its direct English translation as “security”; it encompasses a web of concepts including “salvage”, “salve”, “save”, “rescue”, “shelter”, “shield”, “hide”, “conceal”, “being saved”, or “being in safety”. Teaching and learning for children can only take place in an environment that is free of fear and the risk of harm.

Learners’ wellness in all dimensions is crucial irrespective, of their situation or abilities. Nevertheless, the current study demonstrated the particular need for holistic development for learners with intellectual disabilities. The researchers, in using action research, were able to support the school management team and teachers by intervening where information, training and infrastructure gaps were identified. The school also realised its need to seek help and support from other organisations so that the learner is developed holistically. As the old expression goes, “it takes a village to raise a child”. Indeed, special schools need an extensive network of stakeholders in order for all the wellness needs of learners to be met. In action research, lessons learnt for participants promote self-reflection and the development of problem-solving skills (Zuber-Skerrit, 2011) that promote lifelong learning. The efforts of teachers to outsource skilled teachers and resources has greatly benefited the school and enabled it to improve despite the challenges inherent in its rural location. When learners exit the school at the age of 21, they will be adept in one or two key skills, imparted to them during through this holistic approach to their education.

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Students' Cultural Background as a Determinant of Various Categories of Social Behaviour

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Abstract

The aim of this research was to assess in which way the cultural background of students should be taken into account working with students as well as the adjustments of school activities by the school management, and what differences are possible to be noticed in regard to their cultural background. The empiric part of the research covered the sample of students of United World College in Mostar, comprising of 124 examinees coming from total of 47 different countries, but wider part of the research covered and comparisons with 67 students of Gymnasia Mostar, in total, the sample consisting of 191 examinees. In this piece of work, only the results considering the characteristics of students of United World College Mostar. Employing of Hofstede's operationalization's of national cultures, the students have been, in respect to culture they come from, grouped according to established dimensions: Individualism – Collectivism, Power Distance index, Uncertainty Avoidance index and Masculinity vs. Femininity. Within separate dimensions the comparisons have been carried out regarding to the level of expressed social distance toward the others, level of empathy, intercultural sensibility, locus of control and the assertion of parental control and emotionality dimension. Using t-test, and descriptive statistics, differences between the students have been stated regarding to considered criteria variables, while Pearson's correlation coefficient was used for variable being in linear relation.

Keywords: students' cultural background, intercultural sensitivity, social distance, empathy, locus of control

Introduction

Contemporary researches are rich with the intentions of establishing a relation between characteristics of culture and personality traits as a member of a culture, although serious scientific critics could be mentioned for the majority of tries of presenting of national characteristics. In essence, it is needed, or challenging at least, to try to establish some of national characteristics (Hofstede, 2001, 2005; Rot, 2008). Certainly, every generalization should lead to dangerous and scientifically inadmissible generalization and stereotypes, but thanking to endeavour being left behind the American sociologist Riesman, anthropologists Kardiner, Linton, Mead, Inkeles and Levinson, as well as in the area of ex-Yugoslavia Jovan Cvijić, today we have an opportunity to talk about „basic personality structure“, „modal personality“, „national character starting from personality concept as relatively lasting and organized system of dispositions“, and common „psychological characteristics of inhabitants of the Balkan peninsula“ (all according to Rot, 2008). Emphasizing the importance of caution with establishment of national characteristics as well as complexity of such kind of research, Inkeles and Levinson (1969, according to Rot, 2008:153) suggest that such researches should be oriented not according to establishing of global personality but some behavioural categories such as: relation to authority, understanding of own self, self-respect, the main forms of anxiety, aggressiveness, the ways of cognitive processing and alike. Cultural background of the examinees has been possible to be examined in various ways, but for the purpose of this research we called upon Hofstede’s standpoint (2001, 2005) on national dimensions of culture, social distance, and traditional results by Rotter on locus of control (according to Pennington, 2004; Sue and Sue, 2008). One of the most entire researches of characteristics of cultures national dimensions is one being offered by Geert Hofstede in period from 1967 to 1973, and his researches he appended with those dating from 90s and 2000s. Firstly, these researched had been conducted within the frame of IBM international corporation with basic intention to establish differences arising from various cultures from the aspect of management and organizational culture. Later on, Hofstede had broadened up the understanding of national dimensions to different everyday behavioural standards and functioning within the family upbringing, school, and society in general. In order to determine more as precisely as possible, the characteristics of studied cultures, Hofstede called upon earlier works and researched conducted by Ruth Benedict, Margaret Mead, Alex Inkeles and Daniel Lavinson, developed and with time, modified Values Survey Model dividing 40 countries on the basis of four dimensional scores within 12 clusters. Applying both correlation and factor analyses, Hofstede has succeeded up-to date to collect and compare the results on nearly 90 cultures. For the term *dimension* as an aspect of culture, he decided out of two reasons: empiric measurability in regard to different cultures and ideal types description that are, this way, easier to be understood. In respect to culture characteristics on the basis of researched he had carried out starting from late 60ies up to date, Hofstede produces thesis as the all

cultures could be placed into bipolar scales of Power Distance Index, Uncertainty Avoidance Index, Collectivism / Individualism, Masculinity vs. Femininity and Long Term Orientated vs. Short Term Orientated cultures. For the purpose of analysing gathered data within this study, the comparison of national cultures characteristics has shown very appropriate one, also in accordance with suggestions given by Inkeles and Levinson, especially since the research itself had been conducted at the international school United College in Mostar, Bosnia and Herzegovina (here within referred as UWC Mostar) attending by the students from the entire world as the name itself suggests.

The aim of research

Within the scope of a large-scale study of the impact of the International School United World College Mostar to the local community (Alić, Cerić and Habibović, 2017), the importance of cultural background was separately analysed in respect to a sequence of criterion variables such as: the assertion of parents' behaviour, intercultural sensitivity, social distance, locus of control, empathy, the resistance to stress, anxiety and tendency to depressive mood. In theoretical part of the analyses, we leaned upon Hofstede's model of national culture dimensions in a way that we classified the students in regard to cultures they originate from, but at the same time with appreciation of the categorization that the author of this theory Geert-Hofstede (2001, 2005) had established on the basis of large-scale researches. During the results interpretation, it was especially interesting to compare data gained from the previous researches (Alić, Cerić and Habibović, 2013, 2015), in which, using similar instruments, observed different categories of social behaviour of students and youth originating from Bosnia and Herzegovina living in the USA and in some European countries. The aim of this research was to establish in what way a cultural background of students should be taken into consideration working with them, what adjustments are needed from the school management to be done in regard to school activities, and what differences are possible to be noticed among the students in respect to their cultural background.

Methodological scope of research

The research has element of both qualitative and quantitative analyses. In this research, a non-experimental transversal lay out has been used, in which we relied on the interview with single students, focus groups, polling using standardized scales of evaluation, analysing of available historical data of UWC Mostar, analysing of theoretical information and statistical data processing. The empirical part of the research covered a sample of UWC Mostar students comprising of 124 examinees, out of which 75 females, 45 males, while 2 examinees stated to be bipolar-bisexual. Students of UWC Mostar are coming from 47 different countries but the biggest group is that comprising of 39 students coming from Bosnia and Herzegovina. We have stated as the students at UWC Mostar as their mother tongue mentioned 34 different world languages, 55% actively use or consider English to be their second language.

By the use of Hofstede's operationalisations of national cultures, according to the culture they come from, we grouped students in regard to stated dimensions: Individualism vs Collectivism, Power Distance Index, Uncertainty Avoidance Index, and Masculinity vs. Femininity values. During the research, the following questionnaires were used: a questionnaire on general information of examinees; perception scale of family relationships with 25 items through which the examinees evaluate dimensions of emotionality and control both of mother and father– Alpha Cronbach for mother's emotionality is 0,771, father's emotionality 0,795, for mother's control 0,898, while Alpha Cronbach coefficient for father's control is 0,967; Empathy scale (Baron-Cohen, 2012) - Alpha Cronbach coefficient 0,837; 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, according to Fritz, Mollenberg, & Chen, 2002) - Alpha Cronbach coefficient is 0,833; The locus of control / externality scale (Bezinovic, 1990) - Alpha Cronbach coefficient is 0,833; Social distance scale; and DASS21-Alpha Cronbach coefficient in this research for anxiety scale is 0,786, stress scale 0,787, and depression scale 0,852. The Alpha Cronbach values had shown for majority of applied questionnaire equally high values as well as in our earlier researches (Alić, Cerić and Habibović, 2013, 2015).

Analyses and interpretation of research results

From the talks with some of employees of UWC Mostar, the assertions of the students of Gymnasium Mostar but also from the citizens, we have noticed numerous examples of differences among students from other countries in regard to specific behaviour of the members of local community. These differences attracted our attention and animated us into more detailed analyses of cultural background of students as a determinant of possible miss / understanding within the situation of cultural contact. The behaviour of students in respect to an attitude toward the authorities, established norms, responsibility take over, competition, independency, or the ability of cooperation with students from other cultures, significantly vary from the usual behaviour of young people of this region and is greatly conditioned by cultural partakes that characterize the students. It is also noticed as students from some cultures are not able to function together, i.e. students coming from cultures being competitively directed in prospect to others have problems whenever they have to cooperate within same groups. In regard to the evaluation of emotionality dimension and father and mother control respectively, we employed the scale of perception of family relationships, and in regard to the results gained above and under arithmetic mean, we have grouped the results of examinees into four parental styles: authoritative (high and balanced level of emotionality and control), permissive /high emotionality and low control), authoritarian (low emotionality and high control), and indifferent (low emotionality and low control of parental behaviour). Naturally, the perception of parental emotionality and control should be observed in compliance to the perception of parental role the examinees had already adapted in their culture

background and in this matter, numerous parental behaviours could be valued as authoritarian in one culture but in other as authoritative.

For instance, Arabs would call the education *terbijeh*, which in simplified and free translation would signify the education/upbringing of soul in regard to compliance and spiritual slavery with the final goal of serving God. In the logic of English language, this term could not be literally translated without „unpack of cultural mental software” keeping in mind that education/upbringing in Arabic culture is based on religious and philosophical foundations which nourishes different system of beliefs and values in that culture. Similarly, we can determine ourselves toward the dimensions of control and attention due to differences comprising from diversities formed within the cultural programming of the members of different cultures. While in the USA literal usage of the term *control* would provoke negative connotations, in Asian cultures, *control* and *training* could be considered as an integral part of enculturation. In these cultures, the accent is upon spiritual maturation based on the values and beliefs that are differently defined in the West. Along with that, it is important to emphasize as the typology of parental styles could never be considered as static category since the perception of authoritative parenthood significantly changes with members of Chinese, Japanese and Arabic cultures living in Europe and in the USA, therefore, a conclusion imposes as the usage of these terms has primarily socio-cultural context (Alić, 2012:209).

Taking into consideration that we had previously established the significant connection between cultural background of students and their readiness for cultural contact, we checked up to which extent the students' cultural background could be related with the sequence of considered criterion variables. Clearly, it is rare opportunity to analyse the members of different cultures, so such possibility and access to examinees coming from numerous different cultures, has been special research challenge. For this part of our analyses we used the suggestions of Alex Inkeles and Daniel Levinson on the possibilities of study the number of behavioural categories, and Hofstede's model of national dimensions of cultures in a way we classified students according to the cultures they originate, but taking into appreciation the operability of national cultures being established by Geert Hofstede the author of this theory after his vast research work. In this way, the students coming from 47 countries have been included in this research being grouped according to established dimensions: Individualism vs Collectivism, Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, and Masculinity vs. Femininity values. The position of each culture studied is presented in charts in Figure 1. and Figure 2.

Figure 1. The overview of Power Distance Versus Individualism/Collectivism (adapted according to: Hofstede, 2005:83.)

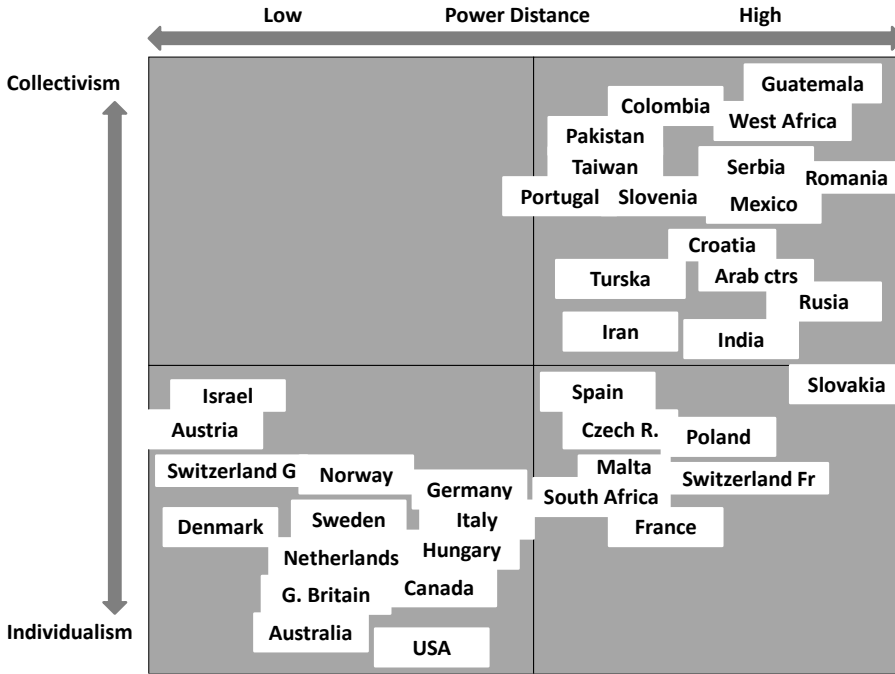
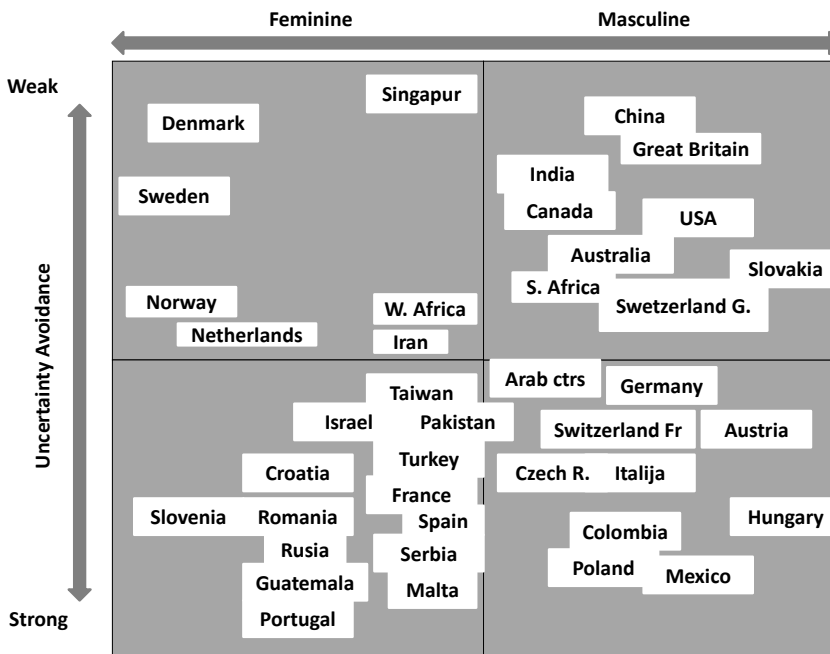


Figure 2. The overview of Masculinity/Femininity Versus Uncertainty Avoidance (adapted according to: Hofstede, 2005:187.)



We have carried out the calculation of connection of the observed criterion variables by using Pearson's coefficient of correlation, taking into consideration they are on interval or ratio measurement scale that are in linear correlation. Using Pearson's correlation coefficient, possible correlations are checked up between the variables: evaluation of emotionality and control dimensions of father and mother, level of social distance, empathy, intercultural sensitivity, inclination to anxiety, depressive moods, stress, as well as national dimensions of culture. It is affirmed that in respect to the evaluation of mother's emotionality there are no statistically significant differences in regard to national dimensions of the culture, (Table 1.).

Table 1. Extract from correlation matrix for dimensions of parental emotionality, parental control and cultural dimensions

Scales		Individualism vs. Collectivism	Power distance index	Masculinity vs. Femininity values	Uncertainty avoidance index
Dimension of mother emotionality	Pearson	.026	-.016	-.018	-.052
	Correlation				
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.775	.859	.845	.577
	N	119	119	119	119
Dimension of mother control	Pearson	.262** ¹	.285**	.289**	.133
	Correlation				
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.004	.002	.001	.150
	N	119	119	119	119
Dimension of father emotionality	Pearson	.202* ²	.018	.072	.045
	Correlation				
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.033	.852	.454	.641
	N	111	111	111	111
Dimension of father control	Pearson	.131	.229*	.240*	.181
	Correlation				
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.170	.016	.011	.058

Regardless to cultural differences, the examinees highly evaluate mother's emotionality. The differences are visible in control mother's behaviour where the correlation at level $P > 0,01$ has been noticed with examinees coming from collectivistic cultures ($r=0,262$; $p=.004$), but controlling mother has been evaluated

¹ *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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

to a higher extent by examinees coming from high power distance index ($r=0,285$; $p=.002$), and examinees from cultures in which femininity is more emphasized ($r=0,289$; $p=.001$). Statistically significant correlation at level $P<0,05$ ($r=0,202$; $p=.033$) has been noticed with the evaluation of father's emotionality coming from collectivistic cultures. In regard of father control dimension, correlation at level $P<0,05$ has been noticed with examinees from power distance index ($r=0,229$; $p=.016$) as well as with the examinees coming from the cultures where femininity values are more emphasized ($r=0,240$; $p=.011$).

In Table 2., an extract from correlation for national dimensions of culture and observed criterion variables, empathy, locus of control, intercultural sensitivity, inclination to depressive and anxiety moods and the resistance to stress have been shown.

Table 2. Extract from correlation matrix for national culture differences and observed criterion variables

Scales		Individualism vs Collectivism	Power distance index	Masculinity vs. Femininity values	Uncertainty avoidance index
Social distance	Pearson Correlation	-.289** ¹	-.289**	-.165	-.194* ²
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.003	.093	.048
	N	104	104	104	104
Empathy	Pearson Correlation	-.155	-.167	-.084	-.189*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.097	.074	.370	.042
	N	116	116	116	116
Locus of control	Pearson Correlation	.205*	.226*	.220*	-.051
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.026	.014	.017	.582
	N	118	118	118	118
Intercultural sensitivity	Pearson Correlation	-.244**	-.180	-.117	-.068
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	.051	.207	.467
	N	118	118	118	118
Depressiveness	Pearson Correlation	.128	.184*	.077	.104
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.167	.046	.410	.261
	N	118	118	118	118

¹ *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

² World Economic Forum, 2006, Global Competitiveness Report 2006-2007, p.26

Anxiety	Pearson	.139	.205*	.091	-.080
	Correlation				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.133	.026	.326	.392
	N	118	118	118	118
Stress	Pearson	.143	.147	.129	.048
	Correlation				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.122	.113	.163	.603
	N	118	118	118	118

Statistically significant correlation between the level of social distance at $P < 0,01$ has been noticed at examinees coming from individualistic cultures ($r = 0,289$; $p = .003$), the examinees coming from low power distance index ($r = 0,289$; $p = .003$). Also, a significant correlation at level $P < 0,05$ in relation to lower social distance is noticed with examinees coming from cultures of low uncertainty avoidance index ($r = 0,194$; $p = .048$). The previous correlations confirm the expectations as cultural background has strong impact to social distancing and building up ex-group relations. The correlation between the level of empathy and national dimensions of culture has been noticed only in regard to dimensions of uncertainty, on level $P < 0,05$ ($r = 0,189$; $p = .042$), while the examinees coming from low uncertainty avoidance index cultures gain somehow higher scores on empathy scale. We assume that such difference could be attributed to differences in early attributions of children's' behaviour knowing as in cultures with low uncertainty avoidance index a smaller usage of negative and obtrusive attribution. Correlations between externality of locus of control and cultural dimensions at level $P < 0,05$ are found with examinees coming from collectivistic cultures $r = 0,205$; $p = .026$), cultures of high power distance index ($r = 0,226$; $p = .014$), and cultures in which femininity values are emphasized ($r = 0,220$; $p = .017$) from which it could be stated as the examinees coming from these cultures incline to external locus of control.

In respect to intercultural sensitivity, statistically significant correlation at level $P < 0,01$ has been found with examinees from individualistic cultures only ($r = 0,244$; $p = .008$).

The inclination to depressive moods is more pronounced with examinees coming from higher power distance index at level $P < 0,05$ ($r = 0,184$), while the inclination to anxiety is also statistically significant at level $P < 0,05$ ($r = 0,205$; $p = .026$) with examinees coming from cultures of higher power distance index. These data could be related to the fact that the students coming from cultures of higher power distance after coming to the new culture, have far more difficulties to integrate into new context.

The connection between social distance, locus of control, depressiveness, anxiety and stress shows a dependence, extroversion and building up ex-group relations with students from individualistic cultures of low power distance and low uncertainty

avoidance index. Unlike of students from collectivistic, students from individualistic cultures are more directed to outer groups that was also explained in literature as a characteristic of individualistic cultures. Higher level of inter-group interaction in collectivistic cultures, differences in building up inner and outer group relations effect to social distance, intercultural sensitivity, a concept of mental health, but also to the estimation of the importance of parental dimensions. Although there is a correlation on the scales of depressiveness, anxiety and stress only between depression and anxiety with examinees coming from the cultures of higher power distance, it is noticeable that students from collectivistic cultures on these scales gain higher scores that could be explained by social context they presently reside – it favours to higher extent to the students from collectivistic social context, but they do not get it sufficiently.

As a continuation of the analyses we present comparisons between the level of expressing the social distance, locus of control, empathy and intercultural sensitivity, for all poles of national culture dimensions respectively.

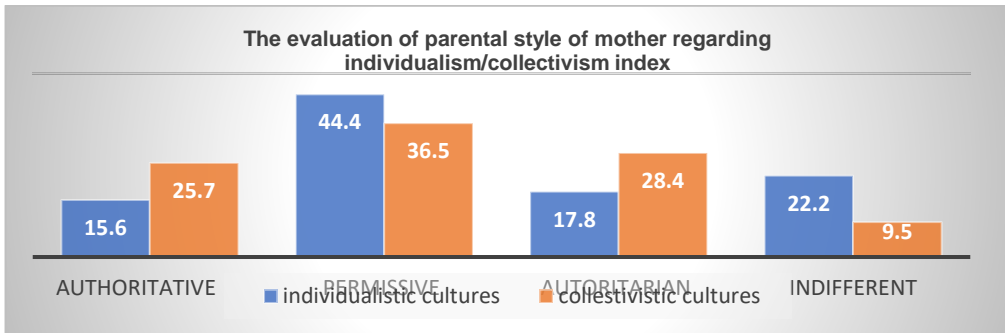
Dimension individualism – collectivism

Hofstede considers dimensions individualism versus collectivism in opposed terms of defining the relationships among individual and community, and those relationships differ considering the nature of social structure, development of sense of belonging to the community but also a positioning of own, individual comprehension related to the community. Within this dimension, as Hofstede says, individualistic cultures promote the concept in which everybody should firmly grasp the destiny in its own hands, so the individual efforts build into the integrity of social system, while collectivistic cultures are more inclined to subject of the individual to community, acceptance of common destiny and relying on each other. The differences in defining and everyday practical living of cultural practices are recognizable in the field of children upbringing rituals, symbols the members of cultures use on everyday basis, but also in determination towards the parents and other important persons. Thus, the practice of upbringing and education of children in collectivistic cultures puts an accent on subordination to the group or collective, because of what are more present strategies modelling the concept of shame. In individualistic cultures, it is emphasized to rely on own potential, endeavour, self-initiative and generally speaking, higher responsibility and feeling of own control of events and activities.

Such ritual symbolic solutions if formed by the usage of a language. In English, first person in singular is written with capital letter “I”, while Hofstede, referring to Chinese-American anthropologist Francis Hsu (2005:93), says that the closest word in Chinese for the first person singular – “Ren” that besides the individual also includes the entire social-cultural surrounding an individual lives in, so the individual being introduced to others actually introduces to entire primary social circles.

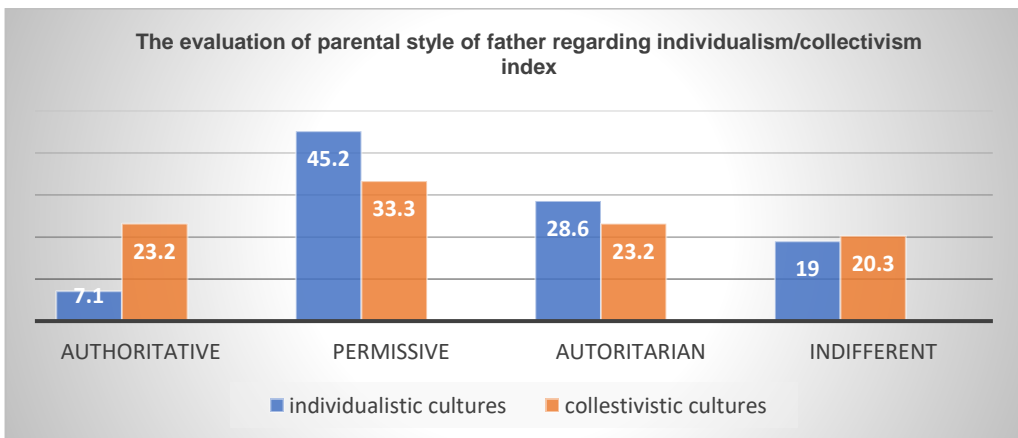
Non-adaptability to the local culture in regard to all variables that influence on the perception of UWC Mostar in the eyes of local community we have checked whether the students are coming from either individualistic or collectivistic cultures. From Figure 3., it is visible as students coming from individualistic cultures evaluate mother in higher extent as permissive (44.4%), indifferent (22.2%), while students coming from collectivistic cultures, evaluate in high percentage authoritativeness (25.7%) and authoritarianism (28,4%) of mother.

Figure 3. Differences between evaluation of parental style of mother regarding dimension individualism/collectivism index



The examinees coming from individualistic cultures significantly evaluate father as being permissive (45.2%) and indifferent (19%) than the children coming from collectivistic cultures. At the same time, much more authoritativeness (23,2%) has been evaluated with the examinees from collectivistic cultures, contrary to only 7,1% authoritative fathers in individualistic cultures (Figure 4.).

Figure 4. Differences between evaluation of parental style of father regarding dimension individualism/collectivism index



The examinees coming from both cultures almost equally consider father and mother being permissive, but the authoritativeness of father in relation to mother's has been far higher evaluated with examinees from individualistic cultures although there are no statistically significant difference among students in regard to evaluation of mother's behaviour, the difference is clear to be noticed in respect to extent of presence of parental strategy according which in individualistic cultures a high emotionality is dominant, but low control, while in collectivistic cultures a controlling behaviour of mother is more present. The continuation of the analyses brings the comparisons between the level of social distance expression, locus of control, empathy and intercultural sensitivity. In Table 3. it is visible as the differences are noticed between the all variables considered, except for the level of empathy.

Table 3. Differences between criterion variables regarding dimension individualism vs. collectivism

Scales	National dimension of culture	N	M	δ	SE M
Social distance	Individualism	43	8.02	1.472	.224
	Collectivism	61	6.74	2.469	.316
Locus of control	Individualism	45	17.0000	4.90825	.73168
	collectivism	73	19.2603	5.51772	.64580
Empathy	Individualism	44	47.48	11.987	1.807
	Collectivism	72	43.75	11.405	1.344
Intercultural sensitivity	Individualism	45	102.288	6.53530	.97422
	Collectivism	73	97.1781	11.5293	1.3494
				6	1

t-test I - K	t	df	p
Social distance	3.051	102	.003
Locus of control	-2.316	116	.023
Empathy	1.675	114	.097
Intercultural sensitivity	2.714	116	.008

Higher interaction in collectivistic cultures, differences in building inner and outer group relations effect on social distance, intercultural sensitivity, a concept of mental health but also on the evaluation of the importance of parental dimensions. All of these variables according to their aftereffect are of importance for the total influence that school through its employees and students gains in regard to local community, but also the influence that through the organizational school culture and activities affect the students at UWC. This is confirmed by proportions obtained by t-test.

Social distance is statistically significantly lower with students from individualistic cultures at level $p < 0,01$ ($r = .003$, $df = 102$). The difference is noticeable when we compare it with average score, thus with students from individualistic cultures it is 8.02 with SD 1.472, while with students from collectivistic cultures it is 6.74, and SD 2.469. Students from collectivistic cultures show statistically higher evaluation for dimension of mother control at level $p < 0,01$ ($r = .002$, $df = 117$). Students from collectivistic cultures show statistically higher evaluation for dimension of emotionality of father at level $p < 0,05$ ($r = .003$, $df = 109$). Although there are no statistically significant differences, it is interesting comparing the average scores to notice as students from collectivistic cultures consider of greater importance dimensions of emotionality of mother also and father control that confirms the thesis on importance of appreciation of cultural differences in building up the relationships, and differences leading from it in regard to evaluation of social distance and intercultural sensitivity as well as variables being important as criteria in the process of accepting or rejecting the others.

There is statistically significant difference in inclination to external locus of control. Namely, we notice that at level $p < 0,05$ ($r = .023$, $df = 116$) students from individualistic cultures incline to internal, but students from collectivistic cultures incline to external locus of control. Although, there are no differences in regard of empathy, it is noticeable that students from individualistic cultures gain higher scores on empathy scale. In respect to sub-scales of intercultural sensitivity, statistically significant difference has been found at sub-scale of interaction concernment at level $p < 0,01$ ($r = .003$, $df = 116$), sub-scale of appreciation of cultural differences at level $p < 0.05$ ($r = .042$, $df = 116$) and sub-scale of interaction kindness at level $p < 0,01$ ($r = .002$, $df = 116$) in favour of the students from individualistic cultures. Also, a statistically significant difference is noticeable at level $p < 0,01$, ($r = .008$, $df = 116$) in respect to entire intercultural sensitivity in favour of students from individualistic cultures.

On the scales of depressiveness, anxiety and stress there are no statistically significant differences, but it is noticeable that students from collectivistic cultures gain higher scores that could be explained by social context they presently reside at – it more favours to students from individualistic cultures. Students used to pursue the elements of collectivistic social context but they do not get it sufficiently. That brings us to conclusion as, generally speaking, organizational culture of UWC inclines to partakes of individualistic cultures, and in such circumstances students from individualistic cultures cope much easier.

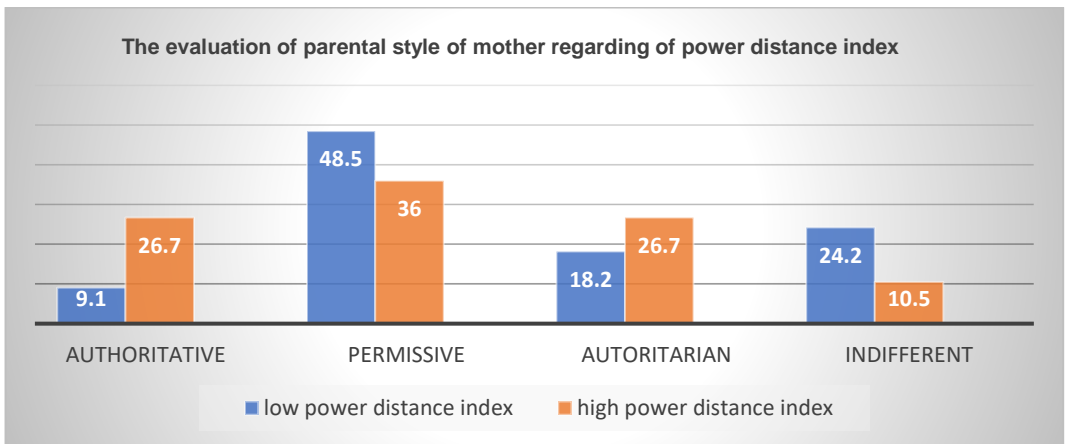
Dimension of power distance index

Defining the extent of power distribution (in a family, school, organization, society...) is diametrically opposed within cultures of high and low power distance index. So, in cultures with highly emphasised power distance index, education of children is directed to obedience, subduing, resigned appreciation of authority of superiors, grownups and older. The all relationships are based upon the principle submissive –

superior so in cultures where relationships are defined in this way, it is accepted as cultural norm from all participants. In cultures with high distance power index are dominant autocratic leadership, patronizing and commandment, thus an abuse of power is often. Opposing to such, in cultures with low index of power definition an inclination to equality, bigger freedom of individual choices, earlier becoming independent or appreciation of choices of every single individual are present. Hofstede brings as in such cultures a participative or democratic style are dominant ones, directing and inducing, negotiation and persuasion, thus the abuse of power is rare one. A need for independency in cultures with low power distance index is very early programmed into *mental software* of children.

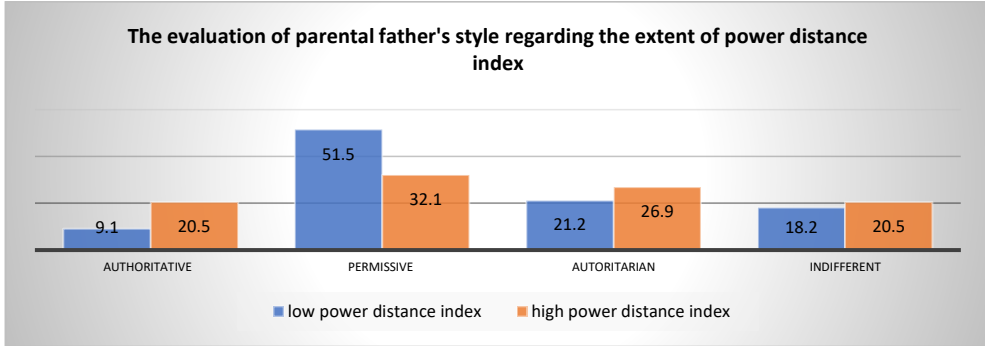
Dimensions of power distance index are noticeable in all institutions of society. Family structure and communication, and architectural layout of homes family live in, architecture of schools, classroom layout, forms and methods of learning as well as the relationship between teachers and students vary in accordance to the extent of defined power. Judging by the distribution of the results of evaluation on parental mother's behaviour and in cultures of low power distance index, far more represented are permissive (48,5%) and indifferent (24,2%) styles, while in cultures of high power distance index noticeably higher evaluations are of authoritativeness (highly expressed balance of emotionality and control (26,7%) and authoritarianism – high control, low emotionality (26,7%) (Figure 5.).

Figure 5. Differences between evaluation of parental style of mother regarding dimension of power distance index



In cultures of low power distance index, a father has been evaluated in significantly higher percentage as permissive (51,5%), but in indifferent (18,2%), while, as expected, in cultures of high power distance index authoritativeness (20,5%) and authoritarianism of father (26,9%) are being significantly higher evaluated. (Figure 6.).

Figure 6. Differences between evaluation of parental style of father regarding dimension power distance index



Such results are in accordance with the expected and statistically significantly different at level of 5%, so it is possible to conclude as the cultural programming of *mental software* in respect to relations to authority and cultures of low power distance index significantly impact on low controlled parental behaviour, and consequently also to expected relationship towards authority with children coming from such cultures. In respect to comparisons of key criteria variables, using t-test the differences in regard to all variables, except for the extent of empathy has been stated. (Table 4.).

Table 4. Differences between criteria variables regarding dimension power distance index

Scales	Power distance	N	M	δ	SE M
Social distance	Low	32	8.22	1.263	.223
	High	72	6.85	2.395	.282
Locus of control	Low	33	16.4545	4.99431	.86940
	High	85	19.1529	5.37079	.58254
Empathy	Low	32	48.31	13.010	2.300
	High	84	43.96	11.036	1.204
Intercultural sensitivity	Low	33	102.0606	7.30984	1.27248
	High	85	97.9882	10.95064	1.18776

t-test of Power distance index	t	df	p
Social distance	3.051	102	.003
Locus of control	-2.578	116	.012
Empathy	1.803	114	.074
Intercultural sensitivity	1.970	116	.050

Social distance is statistically significantly lower with students coming from cultures of low power distance index at level $p < 0,01$ ($r = .003$, $df = 102$). The difference is notable

when we compare it with average score gained, so with students coming from cultures of low power distance index is 8,22 with SD 1.263, but with students coming from cultures of higher power distance index is 6.85, and SD 2.395. Students from cultures of higher power distance index statistically highly evaluate dimension of mother's control at level $p < 0,01$ ($r = .006$, $df = 109$). There is no statistically significant difference at empathy extent although a higher score has been visible with students coming from cultures of low power distance index. There is statistically significant difference in regard of inclination to external locus of control. Namely, we notice as at level $p < 0,05$ ($r = .012$, $df = 116$) students of low power distance cultures incline to internal, but students from higher power distance index incline to external locus of control. In respect to sub-scales of intercultural sensitivity, statistically significant difference has been found at scale of interactivity engagement at level $p < 0,05$ ($r = .013$, $df = 116$) and sub-scale of interactivity attentiveness at level $p < 0,01$ ($r = .010$, $df = 116$) in favour of students from cultures of low power distance index. Also, statistically noticeable is difference at level $p < 0,05$ ($r = .050$, $df = 116$), in regard of entire intercultural sensitivity in favour of students from low power distance index. On scales of depressiveness and anxiety we could notice statistically significant difference at level $p < 0,05$ ($r = .019$, $df = 116$) in regard to inclination to depressiveness, and at level $p < 0,05$ ($r = .014$, $df = 116$) in regard to inclination to anxiety, meaning that students coming from higher power distance index cultures are more inclined to depressive and anxiety conditions. This refers to possible conclusion as the entire organizational culture of UWC Mostar is closer to students coming from cultures of low power distance index, and less favours to students coming from high power distance index cultures. It is also possible to conclude that these data indicate eventual affinity on one side as well as the attitude to cultural norms that build up the entire relationships as at school, so at the school board.

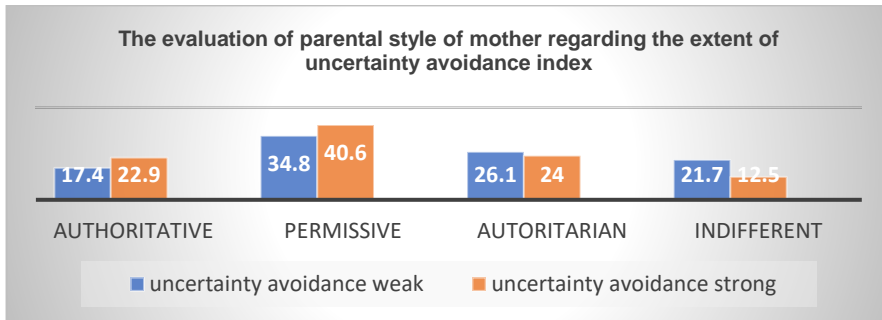
Uncertainty avoidance index

Disapproval or affirmation of boundaries of freedom and security are the integral part of repertory parental children disciplining starting with early age. A disapproval of initiative is a way of direct impact to will traits and when the will is affirmed, then it has to serve of accuracy and meticulousness. This way, in cultures of high power distance index contrary to uncertainty, the concept of absolute truth is developed which rests upon certain premises and if we follow it without prior examination and curiosity, the success will not be failed. Contrary to this, in cultures with low uncertainty avoidance index an exploring and tasting of own success that often means a risk take over and personal responsibility.

According to Hofstede (2005:174), it reflects upon the readiness of risk take over and everyday routine change taking into consideration a dominant presence of /non/ avoidance of uncertainty. Permissive style is the most present in cultures of high uncertainty avoidance index (40,6%), more emotionality affects to somehow more emphasized authoritative style of upbringing (22,9%), while in cultures of low

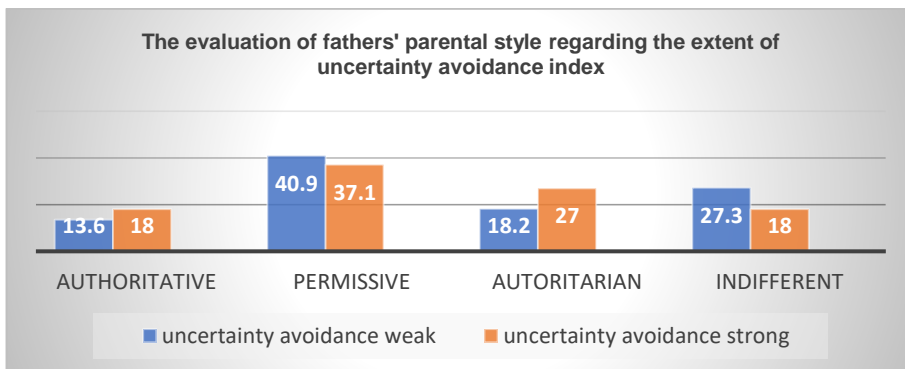
uncertainty avoidance index there is more over-estimated indifferent parental behaviour (21,7%) (Figure 7.).

Figure 7. Differences between evaluation of parental style of mothers regarding dimension uncertainty avoidance index



The examinees from low uncertainty avoidance cultures, in percentage, evaluate somehow higher permissiveness (40,9%) and indifferentness of father (27,3%), while authoritativeness (18%) and authoritarianism (27%) and somehow over-estimated in cultures of high uncertainty avoidance (Figure 8.).

Figure 8. Differences between evaluation of fathers' parental style regarding dimension uncertainty avoidance index



Obviously that the rise of permissiveness also in cultures of high uncertainty avoidance index could be related to global tendency of impact upon parents in a sense of suggesting of higher expression of emotions, but competency that depends on expressing of carefulness as a consequence has lowering down of controlling behaviour out of fear the expressed authoritativeness could negatively reflect upon children development.

The comparison of t-test showed statistically significant difference at level $p < 0,05$ in regard to expressing the social distance and empathy (Table 5.).

Table 5. Differences between criteria variables regarding dimension of uncertainty avoidance

Scales	Uncertainty avoidance				
		N	M	δ	SE M
Social distance	Low	22	8.09	2.022	.431
	High	82	7.05	2.205	.243
Locus of control	Low	23	18.9565	6.06389	1.26441
	High	95	18.2632	5.23534	.53713
Empathy	Low	22	49.73	10.920	2.328
	High	94	44.10	11.697	1.206
Intercultural	Low	23	100.521	10.5738	2.20480
	High	95	98.7895	10.1382	1.04017

t-test			
Uncertainty avoidance	t	df	p
Social distance	2.002	102	.048
Locus of control	.552	116	.582
Empathy	2.057	114	.042
Intercultural sensitivity	.729	116	.467

Social distance is statistically significantly lower with students from cultures of low uncertainty avoidance index at level $p < 0,05$ ($r = .048$, $df = 102$). The difference is notable when we compare it with average gained score, so with students from cultures of low uncertainty avoidance index is 8.09 with SD 2.022, and with students from cultures of high uncertainty avoidance index 7.05, and SD 2.205.

Students from cultures of low uncertainty avoidance gain higher scores on empathy scale, so we find here a statistically significant difference at level $p < 0,05$ ($r = .042$, $df = 114$). There is also statistically significant difference at sub-scale of interaction attentiveness at level $p < 0,05$ ($r = .050$, $df = 116$) in favour of students from cultures of low uncertainty avoidance that is, at the same time, the only difference within considered field of intercultural sensitivity. In respect to other variables, this dimension of national culture is of no great importance.

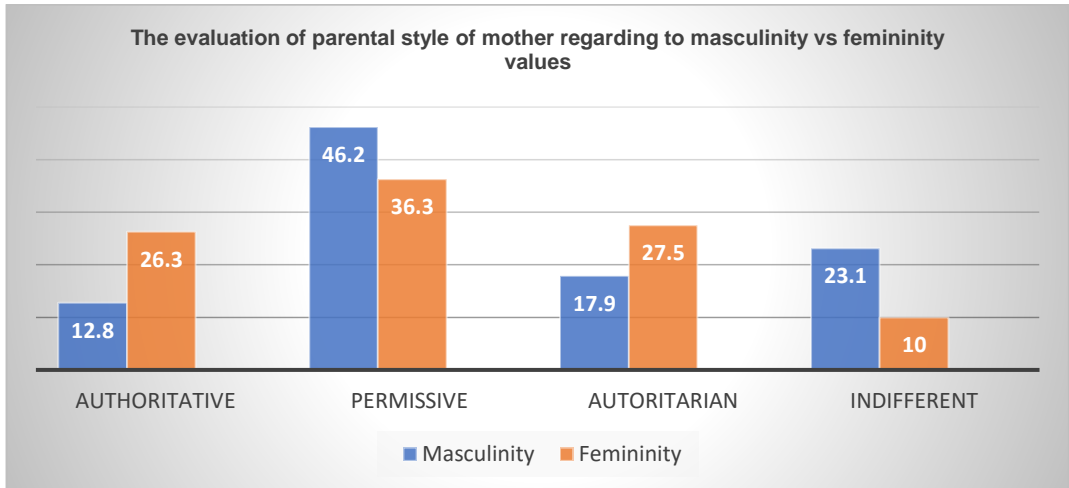
Dimension masculinity –femininity values

According to Hofstede, by identification with sex roles a mental software of masculine and feminine values is programmed. But, masculinity vs femininity values as cultural dimensions must not be identified with domination of either sex, but sex itself symbolises some attributes.

So, in cultures with dominant masculine values, results, prestige, money and aggressiveness (contentiousness) are appreciated unlike those with dominant feminine values where social position, development of adequate emotional relations, as well as the ability for forgiveness and sympathy are appreciated. When masculine ideals are dominant ones, competence, rivalry, market and economical advantage or calculation are in the first plan. Such life philosophy is emphasized even with family planning and children upbringing. So, it is possible that one culture affirms individuality, self-confidence, independency (individualism and low power distance index), but simultaneously the masculine values of domination and rivalry, along with the part of feminine population can promote masculine dimension. Because of that, Margaret Mead has established that in the USA a sexual attraction rises at males towards successful women, but in a case of failure, the attraction falls down in a contrariwise manner. At the same time, in individualistic cultures where masculine values are affirmed, greater is a number of single mothers who decided to rise their children without any support and relying on males.

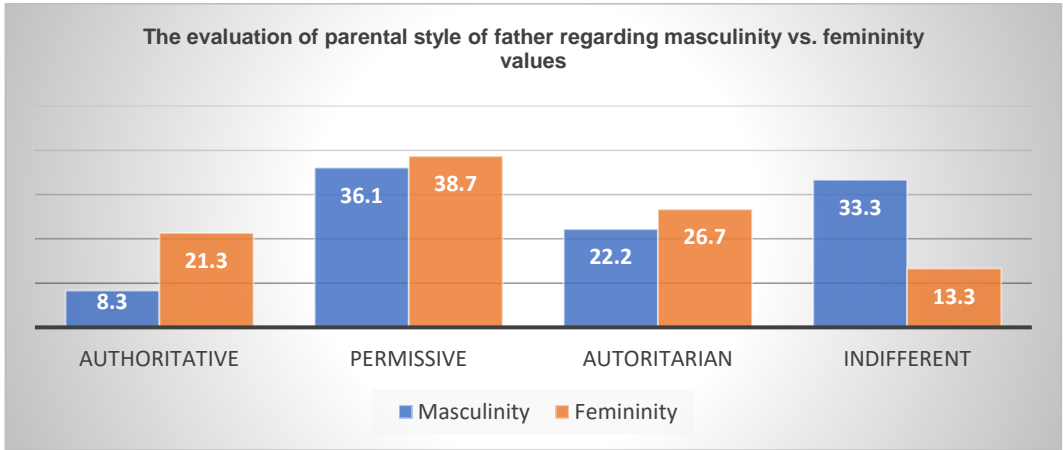
A descriptive account of evaluation of parental style of mother showed that in cultures with emphasized masculine values much more permissiveness (46,2%) and indifferent (23,1%) of parental behaviour. (Figure 9).

Figure 9. Differences between evaluation of parental style of mother regarding to masculinity vs. femininity values



From the differences in evaluation of dimensions of emotionality and controlling father, among examinees, the attention is pointed out especially to emphasized evaluation of indifference of father (33,3%) in cultures with pronounced masculine values (Figure 10.).

Figure 10. Differences between evaluation of parental style of father regarding masculinity vs. femininity values



Data that in cultures where much more attention is given to emotional relationships but less to competition and market competition far more authoritative (21,3%) (in relation to 8,3% in cultures of masculinity values) and authoritarian (26,7%) parenthood, fits in Hofstede's descriptions of this national dimension (Figure 10.).

As it is visible from Table 6. in which the differences between criteria variables regarding dimension masculinity vs. femininity values are presented, there is no difference in regard to social distance as well as the entire intercultural sensitivity. By additional check-up (that are not mentioned in table) a significant statistical difference has been noted in evaluation of mother's control dimension at level $p < 0,01$ ($r = 0.000$, $df = 117$) and father control $p < 0,01$ ($r = .003$, $df = 109$ in favour the students coming from cultures where feminine values are dominant ones).

Table 6. Differences between criteria variables regarding dimension masculinity vs femininity

Scales		N	M	δ	SE M
Social distance	masculinity	37	7.76	1.949	.320
	vs femininity.	67	7.00	2.296	.281
Locus of control	masculinity	39	16.7179	5.10907	.81811
	vs femininity.	79	19.2278	5.35640	.60264
Empathy	masculinity	37	46.59	11.805	1.941
	vs femininity.	79	44.49	11.694	1.316
Intercultural sensitivity	masculinity	39	100.8205	8.25856	1.32243
	vs				

	femininity.	79	98.2911	10.98852	1.23630
t-test M-F values	t	df	p		
Social distance	1.695	102	.093		
Locus of control	-2.470	116	.016		
Empathy	.899	114	.370		
Intercultural sensitivity	1.270	116	.207		

There is statistically significant difference in regard to inclination to external locus of control. Namely, we notice as at level $p < 0,05$ ($r = 0.16$, $df = 116$) students coming from cultures with dominant feminine values incline to external, but students coming from masculinity values incline to internal locus of control.

On sub-scales of intercultural sensitivity, a statistically significant difference has been found on sub-scales of interaction engagement at level $p < 0.05$ ($r = .003$, $df = 116$) and sub-scale of interaction attentiveness at level $p < 0,05$ ($r = .014$, $df = 116$) in favour of students coming from cultures with dominant masculinity (data have not been shown in table). It means that it is expected from students coming from cultures of competition, rivalry, struggle for primacy to have higher level of readiness to participate, but also higher level of reciprocity and circular stimulating during the interaction.

Final discussion

Researchers from these regions rarely get an opportunity to analyse the members of different cultures, so the possibility and admission to the examinees coming from 47 different countries has been special research challenge. For this research, we used the suggestions of Alex Inkeles and Daniel Levinson on possibilities of studying a certain number of categories of behaviour of members of different cultures, as well as Hofstede's model of national dimensions of culture. In regard to evaluation of emotionality and parental control, it was noticed that examinees coming from individualistic cultures, cultures of low power distance index, low uncertainty avoidance index and cultures with stressed masculinity values consider their parents to be far more permissive, but also indifferent ones. Somehow higher extent of evaluation of father's control is expressed by examinees coming from collectivistic cultures, cultures of high power distance index, high uncertainty avoidance index and cultures with emphasized femininity values. The students attending the international school choosing an early separation and distance from prime social entity, coming from families in which, regardless to cultural specificity, somehow more liberal rules are practiced, they statistically prove that the majority of students have evaluated their parents as permissive ones (low control but high emotionality). The connection between social distance, locus of control, depressiveness, anxiety and stress shows the dependence on extroversion and building up ex-group relations with students coming from individualistic, cultures of low power distance index and low uncertainty avoidance index. Unlike the students from collectivistic, students from individualistic

cultures are far more directed to external groups. A higher level of inter-group of interaction in collectivistic cultures, and differences in building up of inner and outer-group relations, effect on social distance, intercultural sensitivity, concept of mental health, but also on evaluation of the importance of parental dimensions. Correlation between locus of control and cultural dimensions have been found with the examinees coming from collectivistic cultures, cultures of high power distance index and cultures with stressed femininity values. Thus, it is possible to state that examinees coming from these cultures incline to external locus of control. Although on scales of depressiveness, anxiety and stress there is correlation only between depression and anxiety with examinees coming from cultures of high power distance index, it is noticeable that students coming from collectivistic cultures on these scales gain higher scores that could be explained by social context they presently reside – it favours in great extent the students coming from individualistic cultures, the students used to collectivism search for the elements of collectivistic social context, but they do not get it in satisfactory sense.

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