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Black Skin, Red Masks: Racism, Communism and the Quest of Subjectivity in Ralph Ellison’
Invisible Man

Siavash Bakhtiar

Abstract
This essay aims at proposing a study of Ralph Ellison’s novel Invisible Man (1952), where the author focuses on the difficult journey of black intellectuals in quest for a strong black identity in post-war America. The theoretical reflection in this paper is based, in a first phase, on the philosophical and political perspectives of thinkers such as Jean-Paul Sartre, Maurice Merleau-Ponty and Frantz Fanon, whose works and debates have articulated an important source to understand the quest of subjectivity and intellectual consciousness in the 1950s, a period marked not only by the emergence of civil rights movement and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, but also the progressive replacement of Communism by alternative emancipatory currents such as existentialism, postcolonialism and (post-) structuralism. From this discussion, the essay indicates, how (post-) Marxist thinkers, like Etienne Balibar, investigate the limits of the a priori paradigms promoted by the traditional humanistic (natural law-positive law) and communist narratives (alienation-emancipation), which lack conceptual and historical efficacy when it comes to understand and respond to new (bio-capitalist) forms of discrimination, which constantly evolve according to the epoch and the place.

Keywords: American Fiction – Ralph Ellison – Racism – Marxism

Introduction

Fiction and revolution: the novel in its historical context

Since the Industrial Revolution and the emergence of French utopian socialism and Marxism in the nineteenth century, fiction and revolution have been closely linked. Both are acts of transformation of an old world into a new one. History proved that artists and intellectuals have always been prosecuted under revolutionary political regimes (especially under Stalinism); the reason may be that an artist is more likely to be aware of the limits of his own creation, of any human creation – politics included – to absolute reach objectivity. In fact, artistic creations are the field of a paradoxical phenomenon: the man refuses the imperfect world he lives in, but at the same time does not want to escape it – or more likely, cannot escape. Therefore, the dialectical movement between reality and fiction, in a way, helps the writer (and the reader) to understand his existence better and cope with it.

After World War II, the situation of Communist parties in the United States was not the same as in Europe. In both Italy and France (and in some Eastern European countries), the Communists had been the main opposition force to Fascism by leading underground operations at home whereas most liberal leaders and the ruling class went into exile. In contrast, the behaviour of American Communists during the war did not give them the same prestige as their European comrades. Indeed, they had lost much of their reputation by cooperating largely with the bourgeois liberals; and particularly by going against the civil rights movement during the war period. This movement was regarded by many Communist leaders and intellectuals as a threat to the war effort and it did not go better with the beginning of the Cold War period.1

Despite the difficult context, the Communist Party had still, at that time, many Afro-American members. Since the 1930s, after the massive exodus from the South to the North, and the quick proletarisation of many Afro-American communities,

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1 With the beginning of the Cold War, the American Communists became extremely vulnerable. The Communist party’s close ties with the Soviets had been dissolved by the Voohis Act in 1943 in order to reduce the label of the American Communists as foreign agents. However, this Act eventually ended up being beneficial to many ex-members of the Party, since it did protect them against the American expansionist post-war policy that often charged them as enemy agents. The Party, abandoned by its powerful liberal allies, and confronted to the “Witch Hunt” promoted by senator McCarthy, the American Communists had no time to develop a clear programme of action. Moreover, Khrushchev’s revelation about Stalin’s terror and the invasion of Hungary were serious strikes to the left-wing movements all over the world and especially for the American Communist movement which collapsed in 1957.
the Party has played a major role in their struggles and emancipation not only on a collective level, by taking part in the organisation of unemployment councils, but also on an individual one, by bringing significant moral support and material help to many artists and intellectuals, which did a favour to their artistic ambitions and their social acceptance into intellectual circles.

However, just after the WWII, there was a major obstacle between the quest for emancipation in the Afro-American communities and many Communists grandiose call for internationalism. As I pointed out earlier, the emergence of the civil right movement was a demand for a more local and national demand from elementary democratic rights. Such requests were often regarded with patronising eyes by some Party leaders who were aiming for a more global scale type of socio-economic revolution. This tension is well illustrated by Wilson Record who, in the last chapter of _The Negro and the Communist Party_, offers a harsh critique of the American Communists, and lists a series of the Party’s misbehaviour towards his community:

“The Communist Party of the United States, cast in the image of the mother organization, is a monolithic structure. (...) Its analysis of the Negro question, or of any other question, is never an independent one; and it is not an eclectic one, because it does not recognize the possible validity of any opposing point of view. (...) For the Party, analysis is a function of immediate program rather than its cause. (...) The real Negro question has remained essentially the same for decades: _it is the persistent issue of basic economic and political equality for our largest racially differentiated minority group_” (1951: 287).

Record attacks the behaviour of many orthodox Marxists whose ideological paradigm did not consider the specificities of the Afro-American struggle, which was often relegated as a sub-category of the main economic struggle.

It is in the middle of this very tense social-political landscape that Ralph Ellison wrote and published his magnum opus, _Invisible Man_, in 1953. The composition of the novel is very close to the picaresque genre and embraces various topics: from existentialism, the entry into adulthood, to the emergence of jazz as mass culture. It is worth mentioning that the style, based on a rich intertextuality, is often livened up by dreamlike and surrealistic passages.

The novel can be read like a _Bildungsroman_ where an unnamed protagonist narrates, in a voice similar to that of Dostoyevsky’s underground man,¹ his eventful existential journey. Like a modern Candide,² the narrator, despite his attempts to win patronage and respect, earns only humiliation and disappointment in his quest for identity. In his slow descent to hell, he discovers the perversion and corruption of the leaders of the main institutions of the society: education (Dr. Bledsoe and Mr. Norton), industrial capitalism (Emerson) and political organisation (Brother Jack). He starts his memoirs from the moment he won a scholarship to attend a prestigious school in the South. The irony being that he ends up being involved in a ‘battle royal’ – a fight that involves more than two people – organised by the same people who gave him the study award. Then, after being unjustly expelled from college, he moves to New York, where he becomes involved in a political organization, called ‘the Brotherhood’ (which is an allegory of the Communist Party in the United States), in his effort to help the black community of Harlem. Nonetheless, he understands later on that he has been manipulated by the Brotherhood in order to get him involved, in spite of himself, in an apocalyptic destroying urban riot in Harlem.³ Ultimately, he faces the fact that he lives in an absurdly shifting world thanks to the tragic death of his friend, Tod Clifton, killed by a policeman.

Like his predecessor the novelist Richard Wright, Ellison depicts in his novel the problem of “black” isolation. But his goes even further, since the protagonist in _Invisible Man_ is not a random Afro-American individual; he is also an artist and an intellectual. This artistic dimension brings its share anxiety and complexity to the modes of expression of the narrator, whose personality changes: according to the context, he “performs” different roles, using different “masks,” in his quest for recognition and visibility in society (Sang Ong-Van-Cung, 2013: 40). He witnesses also the other characters’ masquerades: he is destabilised by the hypocritical discourse of Dr. Bledsoe and Mr. Norton; he also attends the nihilist performance of the nationalist leader Ras the Exhorter. But one of the most striking episodes is Tod Clifton’s public performance of peddling Sambo dolls: the act is an allegory of his manipulation by the Brotherhood, his message through

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¹ See Notes from Underground (1864).
² See Voltaire’s philosophical novella _Candide : ou l’Optimisme_ (1759).
³ The reader can see a clear analogy with the Harlem riots of 1935 and 1943. The first riot was due to the rumour that a white shopkeeper had beaten a young Puerto Rican shoplifter. The shooting of an Afro-American soldier by a policeman was the cause of the second riot, where hundreds of people were arrested and six were killed.
his comical action is therefore that he prefers to live out of history, rather than being a slave of the Brotherhood doctrine. I will come back to this passage in the next section.

*Invisible Man* can also be read as a surrealist fiction. In *Shadow Act*, Ellison argues that realist and naturalist fictions were inadequate to portray the diversity of (Afro-) American life:

“[T]he very ‘facts’ which the naturalists assumed would make us free have lost the power to protect us from despair. (…) The diversity of American life with its extreme fluidity and openness seemed too vital and alive to be caught from more than the briefest instant in the tight well-made Jamesian novel” (103).

In other words, Ellison intends in his fiction to offer a mirror effect of the outside world, as one can find in realism, but to depict what is behind the obvious, visible and rational: a complex chaotic universe of diversity.

Inspired by W. E. B. Du Bois and the Harlem Renaissance movement, Ellison aims to establish alternative version to the social and cultural reality depicted by mainstream (White) intellectuals and writers: “[h]is task then is always to challenge the apparent forms of reality – that is the fixed manners and values of the few, and to struggle with it until it surrenders its insight, its truth” (ibid: 106). The aim is then to shed a little light on the tensions with the social matrix where ethno-racial, gender and class identifications circulate, which are illustrated in the novel by the use of colloquialism, irony and surrealism, show the reader the intrinsic heterogeneity of inter-individual interactions.

**Towards a phenomenology of (social) visibility**

From the very title of the novel, the reader understands that the text will be dealing with an ambiguous condition: how can one be a man be invisible; especially, if one knows that the protagonist is a black man? In the first chapter, the narrator presents himself as an individual whose identity if split between two modes of (re)presenting himself to the world, and especially to the white members of the Brotherhood. In the following chapters, Invisible Man, being a social marginal, has to face what Jerry G. Watts calls the ‘victim status syndrome’, which is based on an oppressor-oppressed interrelationship:

“The victim status hinges on the desire of the victimized to obtain from the victimizer recognition of their victimized status and the willingness of the victimizer both to accept the victimized as their creation and to grant to the victimized the desired recognition. In the process, the humanity of the victimized is supposedly affirmed, but the superiority of the victimizer is not challenged. (…) Indeed, the greater the appeal or demand for redress from the oppressor, the greater the implied concession of the moral superiority of the oppressor’ (1994: 17).

In other words, thanks to the relationship between the Brotherhood elite, the victimized individual obtains social acceptance and material benefits, but at the high cost of moral autonomy. Throughout the novel, the protagonist is so concerned about white recognition that eventually he ends up by being exhausted by the simulacra of performing with different masks. There are several examples in this performativity in the novel: for instance, at the beginning of the novel, the ‘battle royal’ passage depicts the paradoxical behaviour of the white dignitaries of a southern city: they invite the protagonist to deliver a speech and then get him involved in a humiliating fight with other black youths just for their entertainment. Another striking passage depicts how a war veteran advises Invisible Man to use a double discourse in order to get out of his naive word vision:

“Come out of the fog, young man. And remember you don’t have to be a complete fool in order to succeed. Play the game, but don’t believe it - that much you own yourself. Even if it lands you in a strait jacket or a padded cell. Play the game, but play it your own way – part of the time at least. Play the game, but raise the ante, my boy. Learn how it operates, learn how you operate” (1995: 153-154).

It is the same struggle for recognition that is at the centre of Frantz Fanon’s preoccupation about questions of black identity and self-definition in *Black Skin, White Masks* (1952). The French thinker from Martinique refers to Hegel’s master-servant paradigm in his analysis of the black man condition in the colonial context. Fanon, basing his thought on the passage on ‘LORDSHIP and BONDAGE’ in *The Phenomenology of the Mind*, concludes that identity is directly linked with recognition. However, the peculiarity of the hierarchical system that exists between a black man and a white man is what pushes Fanon to state that Hegel’s dialectical model of the master and slave does not apply to the historical experience of the black individuals:

“The Negro wants to be like the master. Therefore, he is less independent than the Hegelian slave. In Hegel the slave turns away from the master and turns toward the object. Here the slave turns toward the master and abandons the object” (1967: 25).
The situation of the black slave is different from the white slave’s because the black consciousness is a *dominated consciousness* (conscience dominée), where the black individual is fascinated, mystified, by the white; therefore, he tries desperately to seduce the latter in order to be recognized as “white” himself (see Duhamel 1984). In other words, the struggle is much more difficult for the black “slave” since the white master has imprinted his word vision in the black consciousness. Referring to his experience in France, Fanon asserts that “[t]he black man has no ontological resistance in the eyes of the white man” (1967: 110). The consequence is that in the post-colonized context, his rebellion against his master does not liberate himself, because the black has been alienated both physically and the psychologically: “The upheaval did not make a difference in the Negro. He went from one way of life to another, but not from one life to another” (ibid.: 220).

Feeling that he has been betrayed by all the sectors of society, the narrator faces two options in his understanding of a (black) individual’s relationship with his fellow humans, two ways of developing a theory of his social insignificance, of his invisibility. On the one hand, he considers man as a subject in the world, where he does not have any superior position and his understanding of the phenomena of his life is limited to the contingent elements composing his existence – a position close to Maurice Merleau-Ponty’s phenomenological philosophy, which I will explain a bit later. On the other hand, the oppressed individual chose to seek shelter in a voluntary exile in reaction against a dehumanizing society; a radical escape into a self-imposed ostracism from society in a quest to find a position of an authentic identity. At the end of the novel, Invisible Man seems to be resigned to the latter of these two phenomenologies of his invisibility, and chooses to follow the example of his assassinated friend Tod Clifton who chose to make a parody of the notion of history:

“The stewards of something uncomfortable, burdensome, which they hated because, living outside the realm of history, there was no one to applaud their value and they themselves failed to understand it. What if Brother Jack was wrong? What if history was a gambler, instead of a force in a laboratory experiment, and the boys his ace in the hole? What if history was not a reasonable citizen, but a madman full of paranoid guile and these boys his agents (…) For they were outside, in the dark with Sambo, the dancing paper doll; taking it on the lambo with my fallen brother Tod Clifton (Tod, Tod) running and dodging the forces of history instead of making a dominating stand” (1995: 441)

One cannot help noticing the similarity of this form of ontological revolt with the Sartrian – or even a Nietzschean – will to power. On can find in *Being and Nothingness*, the idea is that the absolute communion between the Being and the given, the authentic bond between the individual and the society, is always fragmented, interrupted, by the necessary intersubjective communication: “[t]he challenge to authenticity, to understand the existential postulates of the situation which determined the limits of man’s freedom, his freedom to choose to be himself as he chose himself to be, and not merely as others allow him to be” (Gendzier 1973: 30). This Sartrian influence should not come as a surprise, especially if one knows the intellectual collaboration between Fanon and Sartre; Fanon was struck by *Anti-Semite and Jew* (1943), where he found a lot of analogies between antisemitism and colonial racism, which he will use in *The Wretched of the Earth* (1961), to which Sartre will contribute by writing an extensive preface (see Balibar 2005, Mornet 2006). Nonetheless, one has to imagine that Fanon was still very suspicious of the potential possibilities of the Satirian “will” (volonté) for a black *Being*. Is there any authentic way to get through the false conditions imposed by society to reach a true and lucid (black) consciousness? The real issue is focused on Sartre’s concept of authenticity that Sartre takes from Heidegger:

“It is agreed that man may be defined as being having freedom within the limits of a situation, then it is easy to see that the exercise of this freedom may be considered as *authentic or inauthentic* according to the choices made in the situation. Authenticity, it is almost needless to say, consists in having a true and lucid consciousness of the situation, in assuming the responsibilities and risks that it involves, in accepting it in pride or humiliation, sometimes in horror and hate” (Sartre 1948: 90).

Rather than a quest for authenticity, based on a very Eurocentric notion of “lucid consciousness,” it seems that Fanon – and Ellison at the same time – is looking for an ontological concepts – such as the notion of “négritude” or Du Bois “double consciousness” – that prepares, as Etienne Balibar points out that “Fanon’s work seems like an early reversal of the reversal that had moved from a scientific analysis of ‘race’ to an analysis of ‘racism.’ (…) It is a way of bringing the challenge straight to the heart of the discriminatory discourse that, for Blacks, is never external, but introjected, constitutive of their ‘personality’; it was a way to make heard not only a ‘point of view’ but also the ‘trembling voices’ of the oppressed” (2005: 25).

In the same way, the narrator of *Invisible Man* is exposed to the same internal dilemma: he is aware of the necessity of individual freedom outside of the corrupted society, but implicitly he knows that his existence as an “invisible” man does
not make sense without the human collective. Eventually, he becomes aware of the new possibilities of his life; as soon as he abandons the radical negation of personality imposed by the Brotherhood, he discovers new modes of performing freedom:

“...I believed in hard work and progress and action, but now, after first being ‘for’ society and then ‘against’ it, I assign myself no rank or any limit, and such an attitude is very much against the trend of the times. But my world has become one of infinite possibilities” (1995 576).

Towards the end, the protagonist seems to be less inclined to the Sartrian position, and has a fresh look of his condition, which is closer to the first phenomenology of invisibility I have mentioned earlier. This incarnated position, enmeshed in the world, with an acceptance of its possibilities and its limits is closer to Merleau-Ponty’s than to Sartre’s world view. As Merleau-Ponty states in Sense and Non-Sense:

“L’Être et le néant is first of all a demonstration that the subject is freedom, absence, and negativity and that, in this sense, there is nothing. But that also means that the subject is only nothingness, that he needs being to sustain himself, that he can only be thought of against a background of the world” (72-73)

Besides, Merleau-Ponty states that isolation and communication are not completely antagonistic concepts since one knows that existence is nothing with others. There is not such a thing as authentic individuality since one cannot really escape his lifeworld (Lebenswelt); a certain degree a human presence exists in every moment of our life. Therefore, Ellison’s protagonist, even in his hole, is still in contact with society; he uses language to write his story since language is the phenomenal field used by the being to communicate with others. Merleau-Ponty writes in Signs (1960):

“Another characteristic of this half century’s investigations is the recognition of a strange relationship between consciousness and its language, as between consciousness and its body. (...) In our day, language is of a piece with the writer; it is the writer himself. It is no longer the servant of significations but the act of signifying itself, and the writer or man speaking no longer has to control its voluntarily any more than living man has to premeditate the means or details of his gestures” (232).

It is therefore interesting to noticing that, when confronted with the absurdity of his existence, the narrator of Invisible Man feels despair and wants to flee from the oppressive society. But, more than just a failed student, a betrayed ex-Brother, he is, first and foremost, an artist. By writing his memoirs, his implicit project is to use literature as a channel to communicate with the society. Even if a society based on white hegemonic system, even if language – through speech – can be the vehicle used by the discrimination imposed by a (White) elite; there is a hope to change it because language overcomes ethnic, cultural or religious differences since it is one of the fundamental conditions of human existence. As Fanon states, in his very poetic way:

“And if I cry out, it will not be a black cry. No, from the point of view adopted here, there is no black problem. Or at any rate if there is one it concerns the whites only accidentally. It is a story that takes place in the darkness, and the sun that is carried within me must shine into the smallest crannies” (1967: 29).

Fanon, Merleau-Ponty and Ellison/Invisible Man share this common desire to communicate because they believe in humanity; they never abandoned the idea that individual experience of one can be understood by all. This movement back to a more primitive or inner world is emphasized in burning the symbols of his false identity: his college diploma, Clifton’s doll, the paper with his brotherhood name, etc. But this is only a transit zone, as Michael Lynch asserts:

“He chose his temporary life underground primarily as a means of survival. But he concludes that he needs the world above as the natural element of his freedom, as the context in which he can be responsible to others, as the only place where he can fulfil himself through loving” (1990:184).

1 It is important to remind here that in spite of their philosophical and political collaborations – especially in the literary journal Les Temps Modernes – the process in order to get to the consciousness of the word follows different paths for Sartre or Merleau-Ponty: “The being relation [rapport d’être] in Sartre, who is a philosopher of the imaginary and of the unreal, is shaped by the negativity; rather, it is pure negativity: it is nothingness [néantisation]. The Sartrian consciousness is nothing but unhooking toward the being, a ‘hole’ (...). Quite on the contrary, the being relation, in Merleau-Ponty, who is more a philosopher of the perception, is fundamentally anchorage, inscription, incarnation. (...) Therefore, on the one hand, existence is struggling; on the other hand, it is cohesion” (Cayemaex 2003: 3, my translation).
From Race to Racism: the limits of Communist and Humanist anthropological models

Maurice-Merleau Ponty’s work is not only an interesting toolbox for a phenomenological analysis of the “invisibility” in *Invisible Man*, it also offers a great source for a critique of totalitarian Communist regimes that have generated forms of biological and cultural discrimination. Once very close to the French Communist Party, he was among the first Western intellectuals to openly criticize the ideological line imposed by the Comintern, first in *Sense and Non-Sense* (1948) and then in *Adventures of the Dialectic* (1955), where he develops a critique of vulgar interpretations of Marx. Merleau-Ponty’s essays help to grasp the political atmosphere of *Invisible Man*, because the same criticism of orthodox Marxist ideology can be found in the novel.

Whereas Sartre never stopped being a compagnon de route of the Communist Party, even trying to create a bridge between his existentialism and communism, despite the crimes related to it;¹ Merleau-Ponty, on the contrary, refuses to take side: he goes for a third position, a position that gives the possibility for new possibilities. He says that the solution to get of this conflict is to be found in a non-communist left movement:

“A-communism is a necessary condition for knowledge of the U.S.S.R because it confronts what we know of communist reality with communist ideology; and it is, at the same time and without paradox, the condition of modern critique of capitalism because it alone poses Marx’s problems again in modern terms. (...) For us as non-communist left is this double position, posing social problems in terms of struggle and refusing the dictatorship of the proletariat” (1974: 225-226).

Merleau-Ponty praises for another reading of Marx: he accepts Marxist ideas about the liberation from capitalist alienation, but rejects the concept objective science, because “[a] Marxist conception of human society and of economic society in particular cannot subordinate it to permanent laws like those of classical physics, because it sees society heading toward a new arrangement in which the laws of classical economics will no longer apply” (1964:126). This position is close to what (post-) Marxist thinkers, like Etienne Balibar, try to do by highlighting that Marx’s philosophy was not meant to be read as a doctrine, where “revolutionary practices take over all thought,” but rather a “critical philosophy [that] is not just a reflection on the unexpected in history, but it has to think its own determination as an intellectual activity” (Balibar 2007: 115, 120).

Before going further, it is important to remind that Ellison was also associated with the Communist Party for a while; but, eventually, he took his distance because of its lack of respect for individual and artistic freedom and autonomy. This was partly due to its anti-intellectual bias imposed by the Comintern, the Party never completely trusted the writers. Ellison’s suspicions about the party, extended to the legitimacy of proletarian fiction and social realism. As Lynch points out:

“Although both communist ideology and naturalism colored Ellison’s polemical essays and fiction of the late thirties and early forties, his rather rapid evolution toward a more individual-oriented and a more affirmative vision indicated a break with his formative influences. (...) The prevailing darkness of naturalism, even with the element of hope provided by militant collectivism, did not suit Ellison for long. He became dissatisfied with the defeatism of the typical naturalistic story, in which impersonal forces overwhelm the individual” (1990: 65, 68).

Ellison’s modernist ideas about literature and the role of the writer were still considered to be forms of individualistic elitism by some Marxist intellectuals who kept a social-economic approach to culture. Ellison regards these critiques as paternalistic discourses; he gives his response to these ossified views in his essay ‘The World and the Jug’ (1964: 107-143). Besides, as already mentioned, in *Invisible Man*, Ellison uses various references to jazz, folklore and colloquial voices to show that existence is always paradoxical and is also based on cultural realities that cannot be denied, even by the materialistic ideology of the Brotherhood. wants to show that Black artists are more than victims. By the gradual acceptance of all aspects of the existence of a discriminated individual, *Invisible Man*’s protagonist becomes aware of the deficiency of dogmatic Marxism o answer what he experiences. At the beginning of the novel, he feels ashamed of the poor southern black people; like for instance Jim Trueblood, who narrates in a very colloquial and naive manner an incestuous act with his daughter. Besides, the decision of eating yam on the street: while before it would have been embarrassing, this act is another symptom of the freedom newly gained (Ellison 1995: 68-70).

Exposure to the limits of the Brotherhood's authoritarian ideology occurs throughout the narrator's story. He tells his continuously confrontation with Brother Jack's authoritarian discourse, who tries to convince him that individual feeling and ideas are not allowed since the leaders provide all the ideas:

“So you’ve heard it,” he said. “Very well, so now hear this: We do not shape our policies to the mistaken and infantile notions of the man in the street. Our job is not to ask them what they think but to tell them!” (…)

“The leader. As leader of the Brotherhood, I am their leader.”

“But are you sure you aren’t their great white father?” I said watching him closely, aware of the hot silence and feeling tension race from my toes to my legs as I drew my feet quickly beneath me. “Wouldn’t it be better if they called you Mase Jack?”” (ibid.: 473).

The narrator progressively unveils the Brotherhood’s cynical and murderous betrayal of the black people, when the leaders of the movement justify murder and violence by scientific necessity and historical materialism.

Violence is another important theme in Ellison’s novel. After moving to New York, Invisible meets the Brotherhood, which seems to be a good way for many Afro-Americans to get out of the vicious circle of the victim status, since Marxism gives them tools to struggle for their emancipation. Besides, Marxist scientific approach provides logical answers to their philosophical worry: “the world was strange if you stopped to think about it; still it was a world that could be controlled by science, and the Brotherhood has both science and history under control” (1995: 381). However, Invisible Man discovers that the organization has a strict ideology that demands sacrifices and philosophical conformity. Ultimately, he breaks up with the Brotherhood when he recognizes its implicit responsibility in the murder of Tod Clifton and the launching of the riot.

The protagonist’s final movement underground is very symbolic. It reminds Plato’s Allegory of the Cave: by going down to the coal bin, it is as if he is going against the hegemonic rationalism of the Western civilization taken up by the Enlightenment. He challenges the idealist ‘light’ of the right-thinking elite and goes back to a more sensitive world. There is here a strong parallel with back to Etienne Balibar’s analysis of the counter-Copernican revolution – or “reversal of reversal,” to use his terms – in Fanon’s theory of (post-)colonial racism:

“[a]gainst the sanitized representations of ‘democratic society’ that triumphed after the victory over the Nazis and that tended to mask the persistent reality of colonialism Fanon insisted not only on the fact that racism is a social structure (and that individuals are “racist” because societies are based on the absolute distinction between “masters” and “slaves”) but also on the ambivalence of the psychological effects of this structural racism” (2005:25).

Balibar argues that alongside Fanon, in the same period, another major thinker, Hannah Arendt, is interested in the manner different types of discrimination – namely antisemitism and colonialism – after WWII proliferate, despite the promulgation of the “Universal Declaration of Human Rights” by the UN and the UNESCO declarations in 1950 and 1951 on the notion of “racism.” Balibar highlights that Hannah Arendt’s critique of those legal acts, promoted by the defenders of a republican universalism, is that the notion of “human” is too vague or rather too transcendental, and will always leave space for the exclusion of a category of people. This is why “[she] insists on the question of the ‘stateless’ or those individuals and groups who are deprived of their fundamental rights and [why] [t]he criterion of the ‘right to rights’ is therefore at the heart of her notion of political community” (Balibar 2005: 6). This is the same issue that the narrator of Invisible Man finds in the ideological line of the Brotherhood, Ellison finds in the Communist Party, and minority groups found in Marxist movements in the past, and even today.

**Racism as a mode of thought**

Etienne Balibar’s insistence about the necessity to rethink racism, and its relation to universalism, is refreshing in a critical environment that usually represent “racism” as a form of a priori ideological error that has missed the emancipatory message of the Enlightenment. How is it possible to still find racism in a global word that has been officially decolonised and that is supposed to have learned the lessons of Nazism? Etienne Balibar’s argument is that it is precisely because of the exploitation and unfair division of wealth on a global scale, that racism has been “universalized” and has become “an actual world vision” (Balibar 1997b: 346). Racism has for a long time been as a from of nationalism defended exclusively by far-right movements, as an important part of the ideological apparatus those currents use in their quest to build a national community that would de facto exclude all those who are not part of it.

This is the classical narrative that progressive political parties and educational intuitions usually use to fight racism and discrimination in general: proposing the picture of a struggle that would oppose nationalism and universalism, as the groups
of ideological lessons, learned from the Enlightenment, Marx and beyond, that any progressive society should learn and defend.

But contemporary racism, in all its variations, cannot be understood – not even mentioning fought and solved – with such a simplistic dual model. To put this boldly, racism is closely bound to universalism, which has been shaped, constructed in a way that it leads to dividing, categorizing, discriminating practices. As Balibar points out:

“[T]his does not prove that universalism is racism, [but rather] that there is no clear demarcation between universalism and racism. (…) It is derisory to believe being able to fight racism in the name of universality in general. Racism is already in there. It is therefore in there [dans la place] that the struggle takes place: in order to transform what we understand by universalism” (1997b: 344, 355).

In conclusion, this contradiction that exists within universalism is applicable to Marxism if one considers it as variant that shares the same historical perspective, which implies that “class consciousness has never been separated from nationalism. (…) Class consciousness is itself filled with an identity feeling very close to racism: fetishism and the origin of class” (1997a: 369). What is important to highlight is that racism is deeply ingrained not only in the political history of class struggle, but it is crucial to the constitution of any “superior” group, call it community, class or even state. This ambiguity that is part of all European humanistic anthropologies, as I have already said, feed its paternalistic and disciplinary aspect from the colonial context to the EU treatment of refugees, passing by workerism of the working class. It is therefore important to avoid any escapism and accept – in order to study and understand it – that “there is a relation of reciprocal determination between ‘class racism’ and ‘ethnic racism’ and these two determinations are not independent. Each produces its effect, to some extent, in the field of the other and under constraints imposed by the other” (Balibar 1991: 2014). It is therefore important for Marxism, as any other humanistic ideology, beyond its tendency to universality and objectivity to be able to reflect on itself in order to understand its internal contradictions and limits in order to avoid as much as possible any ossified position that would involve pontentially a class racism and, de facto, ethnic racism. In a nutshell, this is Balibar’s lesson.

Bibliography


Science as Interdisciplinary Analysis of Temporary and Unstable Features, and Nobert Elias’ Relational Perspective of Fear, Violence and State

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Abstract

The objective of this paper is to reflect on some views on science by Social Theory and Cultural Analysis, which have had their resonance across the biological, physical and social sciences on the topic, without easily fitting into the dominant sociological tradition. For this purpose, the focus of the analysis is upon the contributions made in social theory and cultural analysis by the anthropologist Clifford Geertz, as opposed to the logical positivism, and by sociologist Norbert Elias, as confirmed by Ilya Prigogine. By defining culture as a shared system of inter-subjective symbols and meanings, a science of culture has been considered in terms of interdisciplinary analysis of temporary and unstable features; little-predictable at all levels of physical evolution, social organization, and psychological process. In contrast to classical science, whose views emphasized stability and order, Elias has found in nature the relations between biological, physical and cultural processes and to him that explains how nature, society, and individuals are interdependent with each other. By analyzing Elias’ view on science, I will identify the strengths and limitations of his Figurational Sociology, where the real investigation to capture long-term figurational dynamics and developments is achieved only with the right degree of detachment from (rather than involvement into) social life and political commitment. The civilizing process remains the perfect object to study the relationships among power, knowledge, emotion, and behavior over time. The concept of civilization as a matter of perception, of natural science as temporary, strongly influenced by the external environment, and shaped by cultural receptivity to its dominant ideas, may be of particular interest in terms of policy evaluation and management of the public thing. Elias’ relational perspective of fear, violence, and state is vital in the processual approach to the formation of class, caste, and urban space. And rather than a laudatory or carpingly nihilist speech – which history shows it can foster cruel behaviour across a nation – encouraging critical thinking should be seriously taken into consideration by experts of media, academia and political communication, to avoid potential barbarisms in the 21st Century, in developing, second or first world countries.

Keywords: Social Theory, Cultural Analysis, Science, Decivilization, Figurational Sociology, Norbert Elias

Introduction

1. Views of Science: Geertz’ Analysis of Culture versus Logical Positivism

Logical positivism did not die with the dispersal of Vienna circle members, nor their arrogantly proposed idea on the elimination of experience and metaphysics. Other terms like logical empiricism or quantitative research defined the same view on science: a rational reconstruction of all things since all things would be measurable. No explicit theoretical or philosophical commitments should scientists provide, no abstract ideas or laws should be considered, beyond the ones observed. Ignoring the sense experience as the once only source of knowledge, in order to find logical meaning, the new empiricism focused instead exclusively on empirical statements of what is observed and on logical-mathematical analysis of what is already known. The decision-making would depend on these quantitative, statistical, mathematical data. Hence, science (natural and social) would be defined in such terms by an adversary process (where Baconian observers, through a scientific method, battle ideas with tools of observation and data); by an advocacy process (where Popperian falsifiers, through the falsification theory, defend what is right as in a court of law); and a peer-review process (where Kuhnian revolutionaries, through paradigm shifts, separate nonsense from valid science). And social science (just like science) would have three goals: describe, control, predict.
Postpositivist (such as Popper, Kuhn) and critical theory authors (as the neo-Marxist Frankfurt School) opposed to this view of science in search of laws, preferring the understanding of the inner nature of social phenomena which are not measurable nor expressed in quantitative terms.

What could culture be if not a semiotic matter, working on how cognition works? What could culture be composed, if not of psychological structures – or ‘web of significances’ according to Weber – through which groups and individuals guide their behavior? How could culture consist of radical behaviorism only, without observing step by step action, behavior, culture, and its inference and implication in defining the gesture? How can a cultural analysis ignore that acts are signs? And that interworked systems of construable signs compose a culture, a context, thickly described?

In such terms, rather than a science looking for a law, the anthropologist Clifford Geertz, one of the opponents of the logical positivism, in his selected essays published in The Interpretation of Culture (1973: 3-55), defined the analysis of culture as an interpretative science in search of meaning. An evaluation of that meaning, otherwise known as thick description, is what Geertz focused on in the first chapter of his work. Refusing the methodological dogma of Skinnerian behaviorism or the intelligence testing, forgetting the generalization across cases through the coding of abstract regularities, and not attempting to subsume observations under a governing law, Geertz then applied techniques and received procedures, such as as keeping a diary, taking genealogies, providing reports, selecting informants, transcribing text, committing himself – such as every anthropologist and ethnographer should – into an intellectual effort. Opting for an emic approach supposes that anthropologist writings are interpretations (nor statistics), his/her own constructions of others’ construction on whom they think they and others are. Only after the observational activity, may begin the interpretative activity on symbols, not studied for the sake of it but for what they mean to others and reveal about culture.

The goal of cultural analysis and anthropology is then the enlargement of the universe of human discourse, its analysis, the redefinition of a debate not the report of conclusions. Ethnography does not refer to the verification criteria, nor it is predictable; anthropology hypotheses are not scientifically tested and approved. The cultural analysis is guessing meanings, assessing the guesses, drawing explanatory conclusions from the better guesses.

If, as the logical positivism presumes, human nature was clear, simple, “natural, universal, and constant”, then the consensus gentium about a single human nature (independent of time, place and circumstances) would have produced substantial universals – but it actually does not. Unlike Enlightenment and Classical anthropology, human nature is today seen as “conventional, local, variable” to cultures. According to Geertz, culture may be seen as a second nature of humans, in search of a systematic relation between phenomena. Anthropology is not biology, yet it integrates biological, psychological, sociological and cultural factors as variables within unitary systems of analysis. Culture, Geertz states, is the number of culture patterns, of specific (rather than general) organized systems of significant symbols which govern human mass behavior and prevent it from being a chaos of exploding emotions, pointless acts or absent intellect.

The contribution of Geertz stood in affirming (i) the interaction between the physical evolution and the cultural development, denying the stratigraphic traditional view where one phase preceded the other; (ii) the biological changes toward modern man, occurring especially in the brain; and (iii) the man as unfinished animal and cultural artefact, whose evolution stands not on his ability to learn but how much and what he has to learn before to function at all.

Man is then defined not only by his innate capacities – as claimed during Enlightenment, neither by his actual behaviour – as stated in contemporary social sciences: man is the link of both, through the culture that shapes us individually. Culture, according to Geertz, is characterized by a social phenomenon and shared system of inter-subjective symbols and meaning, while a science of culture lays its road to the general, through a concern with the particular and circumstantial, in terms of interdisciplinary analysis of the physical evolution, the functioning of the central nervous system, social organization, psychological process, and cultural patterns.

2. Norbert Elias’ View on the Civilizing Process versus Prigogine

A new view on science had its resonance across biological, physical and social sciences. In his human power related theory of 1939, Elias conceived the temporality of natural science, a conception overtaken in 1984 by the complex theory of Ilya Prigogine, who observed instability, multi-choices, fluctuations, and little predictability at all levels (Prigogine 1997). In

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contrast to the classical science whose views emphasized stability and order, Elias observed that relations between biological, physical and cultural processes are found in nature and this is how nature, society, and individuals are interdependent with each other (Elias 1992: 16).

Elias’ name is closely related to historical studies and social development at the center of the sociological thought. Through his radical approach to sociology, the historical roots of modern societies, forms of social interaction and social identities have been analyzed, interconnecting the development of psychological life and emotion with the processes of a larger scale, such as the state formation, urbanization and economic development, therefore integrating different national traditions and disciplines perspectives (Krieken 2005). It is in this historicization of human psychology that he provided empirical support of the combination of social relations change with a psychic structure change, and the civilizing process was the perfect object to study the relationships among power, knowledge, emotion, and behavior over time (Elias 1939). But what was Elias’ view on the civilizing process?

In “The Court Society”, first published in 1969 and based on his 1933 docent thesis, Elias has identified the royal and aristocratic courts of the 17th century European societies – rather than towns or cities – as origin of the bourgeois and capitalist societies: it was on that particular psychic structure of the court and its particular mode of conduct that the bourgeoisie habitus was based. A second observation was the court rationality as a precursor to both the legal-rational bourgeois rationality and its foundation. While the professional bourgeoisie calculated the financial gain and losses (the economic capital) as the predominant opportunity for power, in the previous court societies it was the position, the status and the prestige (so the symbolic capital) that defined the winner or the loser. The highly competitive and constantly fluctuating performance of the exhibition of this status and prestige made the entire individual existence and identity a representative one. While in bourgeois societies social constraints depend on work and the private life depends on the professional status, in the previous court societies private life was not divided from the public one, because at any time, any place, the management of emotions in the ritual etiquette defined the social success or failure. Authenticity and free expression of the own emotional character was at all costs to be avoided, substituted with specific forms of self-observation, complementary to the observation of others. According to the symbolic interaction argument, the (incalculable) prestige perceived and defined as real, had real (and calculable) consequences.

The third observation that Elias offered on court societies, regarded the continuing power of particular mechanisms and social differentiation in the contemporary social life. While bourgeois rationality established a clear distinction between private and public life and defined work success as criteria for the self-success, the social prestige (as informal organizational structure and culture of court society) is not a matter of the past: its representation is still important today, as long as the supposed social superiority is real only if others recognize it. And it doesn’t take a King or nobles to understand, apply or evaluate that.

In “The Civilizing Process”, originally published in 1939, Elias’ observed the development of modern social life, focusing on the central factor of the contemporary psychic structure of European societies: the self-perception of Europeans as particularly ‘civilized’, during the Middle Ages barbarisms. Elias considered the medieval era as the starting point of the development curve to the modern age. In his view, the human conduct at that time was naïve, simple, and the own emotional character was expressed directly and violently. Ideas were simple too, psychological nuances were fewer. The sophistication of standards arrived later when the limits of shame, embarrassment, and repugnance increased considerably. To understand the relation between the social process and the psychical process (defining so the later as changeable rather than static), Elias explored a variety of 19th century etiquette manuals.

The second concern regarded the investigation of the specific social processes that cause psychic change (suggesting the interdependence of the psychic change and the broader social relationships). Ferocity and murders dominating the medieval everyday life were rarely subject to self-control, neither to asocial one: torture and sadism were instead considered extreme pleasures from the society. In the following court society which actually imposed a greater regulation of violence and a firmer constrain, control, suppression of impulses and emotions, the behavior code was based on the long-term requirements of complex social interaction networks. That’s how through the internalization of this code behavior (rather than the direct physical force) it was given life to a new era of courtesy and representation, and so, to the concept of civilization. And just like the psychological perception gave form to the civilizing process, the civilizing process transformed
the whole drive, affected the economy and areas of conduct: the interdependence of understanding our actions, others' actions and the consequences correlated, increased the self-regulation (psychologization and rationalization). To investigate this second point, Elias explored the history of the 17th and 18th century state-formation in Germany, France, Great Britain, especially the state monopolization of violence. To the critics, he answered that civilization is not only a process but a never-ending one.

In “The Germans”, originally published in 1989, Elias focused further on the instability trait of civilization in which human drives play its opponent but also its basis. By expliciting the theoretical principle according to which desires and emotions are socially constituted, Elias’ analysis posed a continuous development process – rather than distinct historical ones.

First, the German case was chosen for the historical national identity formation, investigating how processes of civilization and decivilization interrelate within the development of any nation-state and within its state members habitus (Krieken 2005: 103). Elias’ argument was that brutalized behavior within civilized societies may occur, but it requires considerable time, long enough to decompose the individual conscience. The Nazis Germany was the example of how nationalism played a crucial role in the individual identity and self-perception, making the individual personality structure, the conscience formation, and the code of behavior attuned with that regime. The critical thinking was minimal, the abilities to make independent judgments were limited, and the individual conscience was weak.

Secondly, in the ambivalent and contradictory character of civilization processes, Elias observed the question of “civilized barbarism”. His argument suggested that specific state-forming processes may produce either a deficient civilization process or a decivilizing manifestation of brutality and violent behavior; both civilization and decivilization may occur simultaneously (as in the Nazis German regime, the same social norms that produced integration among some people turned out to divide and exclude them from others).

Third, through the informalization process, Elias observed how an increased moderation and self-restraint can be manifested once norms of various human activities are amused. This individual ‘second nature’ of social restraint happens wherever social rules and sanctions partially lose their significance and a more informal attitude to manners and etiquette is noticed (as in Germany after the World War II). The more declined the importance of a code behavior, the greater the perception of individual ‘freedom’, the greater the demand for self-management and self-compulsion.

Forth, for Elias, the Mannheim’s generational problem (the relation between generations) is seen as a vehicle to a better understanding of social change processes. Comparing the groups of German right-wing youth in the ‘20-30s with the German left-right terrorists in the ‘60-70s, Elias argument was that social change depend not on the youth’s desires only, their needs and acts, as much as on the particular historical configuration that allows a particular critical understanding and ethical stance for the young people. The main arguments Elias developed was that most of the times, for the young generations, the structure of opportunity remains unplanned and uncontrolled consciously; and that barbarism and civilization are a vicious circle (modern barbarism is produced by particular social figurations and socio-historical development processes, as its critical responses are produced from a particular development of the modern state).

To conclude, Elias’ conception of science was that of a social institution, through which individuals’ interdependencies, individuals’ relations (rather than static states), long-term processes of change and development (rather than timeless conditions), social-emotional involvement and a detachment from the object of study, and a consciousness that the combinations of intentional actions is mostly unplanned and unintended, can all answer to the question: what it is like to be a human being.

His emphasis was on the relation between social change and psychological development (sociogenesises-psychogenesis) in micro and macro levels of sociological analysis, but that missing prediction of individual or social actions (and relative turbulence, instabilities, disequilibrium as characteristic of human life) was an observation Prigogine made years after. In the foreword of Prigogine’s Out of Order and referring to the author’s view, science was defined not as an independent variable but «...an open system embedded in society and linked to it by very dense feedback loops. It is powerfully influenced by its external environment, and, in a general way, its development is shaped by cultural receptivity to its dominant ideas» (Toffler 1984: xii).

Challenging the Newtonian model, Prigogine sustained that the so-called universal laws were not universal at all, but applicable to some local regions of reality only. Rather than uniformity, equilibrium, stability, and order of industrial societies, the transition to high-tech societies through accelerated social change was characterized by diversity, disequilibrium,
instability, and disorder, by unplanned non-linear relationships that could provoke massive consequences for the smallest inputs.

In distinguishing biology and physics, Prigogine drew the possibility of their coexistence rather than contradiction, implying a deep synthesis of a new relationship between chance and necessity – with proper social, political extension and analogies with social and historical phenomena. In his book Order Out of Chaos, Science, he was projected into the contemporaneous revolutionary world made of turbulences, instabilities, disequilibrium. Prigogine insisted on the importance of keeping open the communication channels between Society and Science, since the Western science born in the 17th century (through the experimentation and the scientific method as new methodological considerations), now develops into another cultural context and environment. Still, the fundamental laws remain elusive: there are evolution and diversification in all the levels observed, and while primary laws help to describe basic processes of passive matter and single particles in a mechanistic world view, secondary laws are used to describe the system as a whole, the active, fluctuating matter.

3. Strengthens and Limitations of Elias’ Figurational Sociology

Elias’ strength stood in his empirical historical studies. But his theoretical position was complex as well, from his conceptual arguments (Civilizing process) to explicitly theoretical works (What is Sociology or The Society of Individuals).

By embedding his theory into his method and sociological practice, Elias aimed to elaborate a comprehensive theory of human society where all his conceptual arguments were linked with the others; the development of a humanity theory through an integrating framework as social sciences reference.

Although he preferred “process sociology” to the term “figurational sociology”, the label was yet inadequate (as long as it suggested that a non-process sociology is possible). Elias’s arguments do not constitute one approach among many, and so they do not adopt a pluralist position: they rather suggest how sociology itself should be approached.

To Loyal and Quilley (2004: 4), Elias «lays the basis for a historical and comparative understanding of the relationship between ‘front’ and ‘backstage’, as well as the corresponding psychical structures and the figurational matrices to which these relate». Through an equally historical, psychological and sociological study, he succeeded where Watson’s behaviorist psychology, Cannon’s physiology, Fred’s psychanalysis and Kohler and Wertheimer’s ‘Gestalt theory’ failed. In The Civilizing Process, for example, Elias showed how the Freudian superego has developed through time and space, examining the historical transformations of sleeping patterns in the ‘presentation of the self’, and how they were related to specific emerging structures of social interdependence.

Elias’ legacy stands in the deceptive propositions, or defining features, of its figurational approach: (I) Interdependence of human relationships: The dynamic nature of the humans’ social figurations (formed with each other) cannot be bounded to individual motivations or actions, the individual process of development and growth, as well as the direction of individual lives, depends on such emergent dynamics. (II) Constant flux and transformation of social figurations with interweaved processes of change in various but interlocking time-frames; (III) Unplanned and unexpected character of long-term transformations of human social figurations; (IV) Within such figurations takes place the human knowledge development (sociological knowledge included): Therefore the complex link between Elias’s theory of knowledge and the sociology of knowledge processes (Goudsblom 1977: 6-8, Quilley 2005).

These propositions are the basis for the Eliasian warrants to contemporary sociologists (Quilley 2005):

Stop studying single individuals, humanity or society as static entities! Avoid the debated dualism between the micro-macro perspective of individual vs. society, or structure vs. agency. The macro-level (processes of state formation and extension in the scale and scope of human interdependencies – sociogenesis) is connected with the micro-level (processes of individual socialization and personality and habitus formation – psychogenesis).

Pass from homo clausus (and the perspective underlying all methodological individualism) to homines aperti (orientation toward pluralities of ‘open people’). The nature of any individual’s psychology depends on the figurational matrices (dynamic configurations that individuals form with each other).

And the ‘figurations’ concept applies alike to interdependencies between small groups of individuals and large groups associated with classes, race and caste, cities, nation-states, and entire humanity.
Avoid the mind-body philosophical duality and filter it into much sociological theorizing! Sequences of long-term processes of civilization are equivalent to long-term transformations in the pattern of personality formation and individual socialization. Concepts of psychogenesis and homines aperti are parallel to Mead and Goffman’s interactionist understanding of the self. In line with this, the ‘second nature’ concept aims at the creation of historically located groups of ‘interdependent selves’.

Avoid the dominant conceptual vocabulary that reduces (dynamic) processes to (static) states! There are no social structures outside the ‘figurational flux’. And the enormous potential of Elias’ “functional sociology” applies to sociology of class and race, sociology of organizations, informalization processes, processes of state formation, nationalism, gender, sexuality, religion, art and aesthetics, (de)civilizing processes, crime and punishment, sports and leisure activities, food, drugs or alcohol and tobacco use, medicine and psychoanalysis, animal-human relation (Dunning and Mennell 2003).

Avoid the separation object-relationships! Develop a relational understanding of social forms, without thinking in absolute functions and values.

See sociology in terms of preserving efforts people do to direct themselves within the social figurations formed with each other! (Srinivas 2005: 835-841). Real investigation to capture long-term figurational dynamics and developments is achieved only with the right degree of detachment from (rather than involvement into) social life and political commitment (Elias 1987).

Particularly important was the Eliasian relational perspective of fear, violence, and state in the processual approach to the formation of class, caste, and urban space. According to him, when public institutions collapse and the ‘social safety net’ is substituted by the ‘dragnet’ of police, courts, and prisons, there is to be found the political root of the urban patterning of racial and class exclusion of which the today hyper-ghetto is the concrete materialization (Wacquant 2004: 95).

To Elias, the epicenter of the modernity experience is first made by fear as a central mechanism for the social control interjections and the self-administered ‘regulation’ of the entire instinctual and collective life (in the case of the American ghetto, the fear was about contamination and degradation through the association with ‘inferior beings’ – African slaves). And second, by violence as a critical tool in remodeling the social and symbolic boundaries. (In the ghetto case, violence came from below as interpersonal aggression and terror, or from above as state-sponsored discrimination and segregation).

Warning against Zustandreduktion or ‘reduction of processes to state’ into the idiom of poverty research, Elias did not opt so for descriptive properties of disadvantaged individuals or population – as the positivist philosophy induces. Instead of the variable-oriented social analysis, he applied the extending web of interdependent persons and institutions – as the figurational sociology suggests. And rather than the separated macro-structures and micro-formation, Elias pointed at the biopsychosocial constitution of the individual, suggesting that sociogenesis and psychogenesis are two sides of the same coin of our existence: if one changes, the other is affected inevitably (Wacquant 2004: 111-112).

And it is through the figuration concept that the pre-Elias sociology would break out of the nonlinear, static, dehistoricized picture of reality, with the standard one-dimensional ladder model of the class image (Loyal 2004: 139). «Elias relationship to the sociological traditions and to its contemporary offshoots can be described in terms of six antitheses: his approach is anti-economic, anti-normativistic, anti-reductionistic, anti-functionalist, anti-structuralist and anti-individualistic» (Amason 1987).

According to the London School of Economics sociologist, Nicos Mouzelis, something went wrong with sociological theory as a whole, or better with the ‘post-Parsonian sociological theory’ of the last two decades. Emerged since the 1960s, new sociologies’ types have faced criticism: Goffman and ethnomethodologists’ interpretative sociologies fail at the macro level; Foucault and Bourdilllard’s postmodernism (post-structuralism included) were not the answer; Coleman’s rational choice theory is rejected for reasoning too deductively; neo-functionalism is rejected for being too arbitrary in amending the ‘social system’ concept of Parson; Bourdieu and Giddens wished they went beyond the dichotomy subject-object. And the agency-structure problem was not solved in Elias ‘figurational sociology’. After so much anarchy and cacophony between paradigms in the today sociology, functional prerequisites need to be reconstructed if we want a social system to exist, states Mouzelis (1995).

Dunning and Rojek (1992) praised Elias’s contributions to sociology, extending his conceptual tools of figurational sociology to the explanation of the complex evolution and bureaucratization of sport and leisure activities in modern societies.
(conceptual tools more adequate than the ones from rival approaches like cultural studies, feminism, neo-Marxism, discourse analysis). Yet among functional sociology theory and opposing paradigms, there is missing bridging and communication between, they noted.

If human behavior has ‘a second nature,’ its ‘automated’ aspect is due to the cluster of meaning we attach to everyday concepts, and in sociology according to Elias a certain detachment from the behavioral assumptions is required. Believing the problem stood in the categories and concepts that organize human behavior and society, and being concerned in developing a different perception of the social world, Elias (1969: 127) suggested a particular conceptual framework and sociological vocabulary. It is in this light that standard concepts (used in the first half of the 20th century by most sociologists) saw radical alternatives that, according to Elias, could get closer to the reality:

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There was a problem in exercising this frame: the main partial and temporary nature of all Elias’ concepts, whose contingency with any given empirical evidence would define their validity (Elias 1991: 32).

And that sense of intellectual dissociation by developing his ideas in a singular manner with scant reference to his contemporaneous, that empirical and historical methodology and a direct style of writing combined with his detachment from the immediacy of political commitment, were another reason why Elias explanatory power and originality did not fit easily into any dominant sociological tradition.

4. Conclusions and recommendations

The objective of this paper is to reflect on some views on science, that have had their resonance across the biological, physical and social sciences on the topic, without easily fitting into the dominant sociological tradition. For this purpose, the focus of the analysis is upon the contributions made in social theory and cultural analysis by the anthropologist Clifford Geertz, as opposed to the logical positivism, and by sociologist Norbert Elias, as confirmed by Ilya Prigogine.

By defining culture as featured by the social phenomenon and as a shared system of inter-subjective symbols and meanings, a Science of Culture has been considered in terms of interdisciplinary analysis of temporary and unstable features; little-predictable at all levels of physical evolution, social organization, and psychological process. In contrast to classical science, whose views emphasized stability and order, Elias has found in nature the relations between biological, physical and cultural processes and to him that explains how nature, society, and individuals are interdependent with each other.

By analyzing Elias’ view on science, I have identified the strengths and limitations of his Figurational Sociology, where the real investigation to capture long-term figurational dynamics and developments is achieved only with the right degree of detachment from (rather than involvement into) social life and political commitment.

The civilizing process remains the perfect object to study the relationship among power, knowledge, emotion, and behavior over time. The concept of civilization as a matter of perception, of natural science as temporary, strongly influenced by the external environment, and shaped by cultural receptivity to its dominant ideas, may be of particular interest in terms of policy evaluation and management of the public thing. Elias’ relational perspective of fear, violence, and state is vital in the processual approach to the formation of class, caste, and urban space. And rather than a laudatory or carpingly nihilist speech – which history shows it can foster cruel behaviour across a nation – encouraging critical thinking should be seriously taken into consideration by experts of media, academia and political communication, to avoid potential barbarisms in the 21st Century, in developing, second or first world countries.
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Global Empire? The Concept of a New World Order and the Power of the Liberal System

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Abstract:
Increasingly, there are more and more discussions about the crisis of so-called liberal system or liberal democracy. At the same time, the threat posed by populism to democratic institutions is pointed out. There appear also questions about how to regain control over reality and who has the real power in the system of global capitalism. In the paper, I would like to refer to the concept of the “new world order” (most often understood as ordinary conspiracy theory), which is based on the conviction of a great change in global politics. This concept also applies to speculation about the real power, which is supposed to lie in the hands of unelected and unofficial bodies or institutions (such as the Bilderberg group). The paper puts forward the thesis that the concept of “new world order”, on the ground of political theory, should be confronted with the question of the impersonal power – the power of the system, which today is a liberal system, understood both as a set of economic or political solutions, as well as values underlying the dominance of the West. This “theoretical experiment” would let us to expand the field of view of political theory in conceptual as well as methodological, empirical and normative dimensions.

Keywords: the global, empire, new world order, power, liberalism, capitalist system

Introduction
Politics and Power in the Global Era

One of the changes that are recognized as distinctive for so-called “postmodernity” is the gradual getting away of politics – or rather what we perceive as politics – from power, as well as power (the actual one) from politics. Zygmunt Bauman described this process as a separation and final divorce of power and politics – “a pair from which (from the birth of a modern state until quite recent times) it was expected that they will share their lives in a common home, which was to be the nation-state” (Bauman, 2007, p. 8). However, in the so-called “global era” of economization and deregulation and constant change, “traditional”, hard politics is seen as being replaced by policy and management. In line with that, the processes of rising the unelected bodies as well as progressing separation of powers are getting stronger, even if their subjects are more and more connected (Vilbert, 2007). With the separation of politics and power, the question of political order itself appears. Next, we have to face the crisis of mediation structures that subscribes not only to the crisis of democracy and representation, but to the logic of power in general. In this paper, I would like to refer to the concept of the “new world order” (most often understood as an ordinary conspiracy theory), which is based on the conviction of a great change in global politics. This concept also applies to speculations about the real (actual) power, which is supposed to lie in the hands of unelected and unofficial bodies or institutions, like e.g. central banks or financial agencies (Tucker, 2018) or informal networks and meetings of the “global elite”, such as in the case of the Bilderberg group. The paper puts forward the thesis that the concept of the “new world order” on the ground of political theory should be confronted with the question of the impersonal power – the power of the system, which today is the liberal system, understood both as a set of economic or political solutions, as well as values underlying the dominance of the West. This “theoretical experiment” would let us to expand the field of view of political theory in conceptual as well as methodological, empirical and normative dimensions.

On the ground of political theory, these all social changes are seen as coming in line with fading away of the “traditional” hierarchies of the modern era and previous times as well. That is often associated with the disappearance of modern approach to power (“modern” in terms of the modern era). This approach determined the construction of e.g. the nation-state. As one of scholars indicates, for the last one decisive was “the transcendental and constitutional concept potere or pouvoir” (Colas, 2008, p. 214) as in the political theory of Hobbes; this concept in the 17th century displaced Spinoza’s views “of power as immanent and constitutive: potentia or puissance” (Ibidem). Today, the latter are coming back, although it is not sure yet; uncertainty in context of relations between politics and power as well as of internal logic of each of them
makes us feel that we live in the times of the Interregnum, and, hence, the period of transition. This feeling can accompany everyone because mentioned changes concern the status of an individual, which can be a source of both opportunities and threats. This is because they strongly apply to the process of acquiring, shaping and enforcing power; shaping political order as immanent means e.g. that control is direct and that all people are subjects to the global system with no mediators who would represent their interest and protect them; in this context, there arises a question about possible ways of democratizing the existing system, as well as about the new concepts of citizenship.

The status of non-state actors and their impact on the architecture of the entire system is also important as they actions and interest often put the nation-state’s sovereignty into question. Inevitable to consider is the future of Western dominance and its impact on global system and ideas of how to manage it. In this context, there appears issue of possibility of political globalization understood as an efficient political structure that would have a global scope and that would be able to control globalization processes in order to use the opportunities that they create and (at the same time eliminate) threats. In the case of reflection on this subject, there are often questions about the possibility of establishing one “world-state”, global leadership and competition for it (between USA and China) or even “planetary awareness” (Rifkin, 2010), that would create a global society caring for its planet. Nevertheless, at now we have to face another challenge – the Interregnum, and politics and power within it. It is especially important because “Historians have debated for centuries who rules in periods of interregnum and how the bases of new institutions are constructed, but one thing that is clear is that there is never a vacuum of power” (Hardt, Negri, 2004, p. 162). Therefore, it is inevitable to look at this picture of politics and power that in fact has no framework; and that creates a “global empire” of politics and power during the times of transition, both in political practice and in theoretical considerations.

The Global Empire and its Faces

Alejandro Colas notes that “the Romans took over the term oikumene (the known world) from the Greeks to express the universalist ambition of their government” (Colas, 2008, p. 15). What is important, the very same “imperial organization of the political space always assumes the absence of permanent excluding borders” (Ibidem, p. 16), in contrast to the nation-state. Can the modern world, as a subject to the processes of globalization, be called a “global oikumene”? Most often, oikumene is defined as a sphere (or space) of “communication of its inhabitants” (Ibidem, p. 46). Oikumene can be expanded, broadening the reach of the “known world” of the chosen civilization; such “enlargement” was made both by the Roman Empire and the medieval Respublica Christiana (Ibidem). Today, in fact, oikumene is created by the entire world, not only because of the growing populations and contacts between them, but also because of the recognition of all humans as people in political and cultural contexts (of course, it concerns such recognition from the side of the West), as it is defined in adopted principles of human rights.

Ideas of the “global oikumene” can be associated with the concept of “Empire” created by Micheal Hardt and Antonio Negri. This approach describes the contemporary political and social world as “boundless and universal” and the power within it as decentralized and ubiquitous (Ibidem, p. 199). This concept is rooted in the conviction that “old-fashioned imperialism, territorial [...] has disappeared and has been replaced by a new form of global rule: Empire, which in its work of subordinating the entire population of the capital's power universe is boundless and universal” (Ibidem). The Empire is global by definition; even if we get used to think of empire in terms of a specific territorial organization, we have to acknowledge the (in fact) trans-border as well as “above-borders” nature of the Empire that makes its power so overwhelming (the control concerns not territories but directly people; the decisions, taking by governments or democratic elections are omitted) and abstract (who is thinking about the “global level” of power in day-to-day activities?) at same time.

According to the authors themselves, “In contrast to imperialism, Empire establishes no territorial center of power and does not rely on fixed boundaries or barriers. It is a decentered and determinitorializing apparatus of rule that progressively incorporates the entire global realm within its own, expanding frontiers” (Hardt, Negri, 2000, XII). In their recognition in the 1970’s – at the very moment in which Immanuel Wallerstein places the beginning of the global crisis of capitalism – a process of “transition from modern imperialism to the postmodern world of the Empire” (Colas, 2008, p. 214) has started. Distinctive features of this structure are supranational, post-imperialist “figures of power”, inscribed into the “imperial concept of law” (Ibidem); the never-ending global state of emergency (as in the works of Carl Schmitt); and the transition from norm of absolute sovereignty to the right of intervention (Hardt, Negri, 2000, pp. 34-38), which results from the supranational codification of law. In this concept, the boundary between the public and the private has been irreversibly exceeded and annihilated, as well as the divisions between the national and the international, between “friends” and “foes”.

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The shift of human activity “upwards” and “aside” towards the Empire, is cutting through and destroying hierarchies and divisions that has existed before the rise of the Empire (Colas, 2008, p. 215) so strongly that “there is no outside” (Hardt, Negri, 2000, p. 194, pp. 188-189) anymore, and that the actual existing exclusion takes the form of “differential inclusion” (Ibidem, p. 194). These transformations make the space of the sovereignty of empire smooth – on this smooth space of Empire there is no precise center of power. It is everywhere and nowhere at the same time; “Empire is an ou-topia, or really a non-place” (Ibidem, p. 190). All spheres of human and social life are being interconnected; capital system of economy affects even the human body. The real tool of subordinating humans by “power of capitalism” have become the “increasing use (and abuse) of information and communication technologies, the more flexible production chains and the growing shares of >>the third sector<< in the operation of labor” (Colas, 2008, p. 215). This perfectly serves the biopower which means the subordination of human nature under the control of the Empire; its mechanisms “penetrate more and more numerous dimensions of our lives” (just like in the concept of Michel Foucault) (Ibidem, s. 216). Can anyone or anything defy such power? The authors argue that yes – the side effect of “post-modern globalization” is not only the domination and reproduction of the capital, but also “the emergence of a new global subjectivity, consonant with the immanent and decentralized forms of imperial power” (Ibidem, p. 217). This subjectivity is created by the “multitude”, which replaced “the people” as a notion of the previous age (Ibidem). However, it is also the concept of the class in terms of social struggle and division of labor (Hardt, Negri, 2004, p. 103). Like the Empire, the Multitude is omnipresent; it acts directly and antagonistic (Colas, 2008, p. 217). The fight with the Empire continues uninterrupted and spontaneously, without a plan; there is no an organized movement or a specific strategy. However, the Multitude, does not need it, because the Empire cannot be defeated in the “traditional” way; “it is the Empire that seems to rule the world, but the multitude is the real productive force of our social world, whereas Empire is a mere apparatus of capture that lives only off the vitality of the multitude – as Marx would say, a vampire regime of accumulated dead labor that survives only by sucking off the blood of the living” (Hardt, Negri, 2000, p. 62). The Empire is powerful and omnipresent like the “new Leviathan”, but indeed serves only to satisfy the Multitude needs; it is located above the Multitude, but, in fact, it is also used (and abused) by it (Ibidem, pp. 61-62). The Empire in the concept of Hardt and Negri seems to be the mechanism of power of the global system (Ibidem, p. 14); a system that was not only created due to the processes of globalization, but which develops and expands its rule due to its paradoxes.

This concept of the global Empire of capitalism is worth challenging with the definition of empire as a political organization in general. As A. Colas points out, “the imperial organization of the political space always implies the absence of permanent exempting borders” (Colas, 2008, p. 16) as opposed to the nation-state. What is more, various forms of government can appear both within the capital and the nation-state. But, on the other hand, “Empire means the articulation of power, which sets a goal – even if it does not always achieve it – control over its effects. In contrast to hegemony or global supremacy, empire is a form of power that implies the possibility of imposing desirable socio-economic or political consequences, in the end – by means of force” (Ibidem). The practical goal is to control and regulate the behavior of subordinated subjects; deliberate actions and decision making in favor of the empire without consulting or discussing are its routine. Ulrich Beck and Edgar Grande, describing the differences between the nation-state and the empire, indicate that the state is a “permanent political relationship which is based directly on the formal authority of issuing orders to subjects under its rule. The empire, on the other hand, is understood as a dominance, the essence of which is that it constantly strives to subjugate the unsubordinated” (Beck, Grande, 2009, p. 106). Moreover, in contrast to the rules enforced within the state, the subjects of the empire can formally maintain partial independence. Thus, according to Colas, empires are based and rely mostly on expansion and conquest. In turn, they offer a third quality – the order (Colas, 2008, p. 18) that have its own sense and meaning like the sense of beauty (Ibidem).

Globalization and the Rise of the New World Order

Does the “power of globalization” fulfill such conditions? Or maybe we should consider here famous (or infamous) mechanisms of global governance? Or even something else? It’s not easy to answer such questions as this is not fully clear what the globalization is indeed. It can be conceptualized and understood in various ways and contexts, depending on the chosen sphere of human activity. For instance, David Held sees globalization as a growing interdependence, both in economic and social issues. In this case, globalization makes the interdependence between the states narrowing; the mechanism to coordinate it is the global governance (Held, McGrew, 2002). Another concept, on the other hand, emphasizes the “compression of time and space”. In this approach we can find research and considerations of how the globalization is changing the role of geographical space (and geography as discipline itself), for the issues of economy, management and development (like in the works by David Harvey) (Harvey, 2001) as well as observations and reflections.
about the changes of identity and condition of the individual due to acceleration of life (Giddens, 2001). In this context, it is important also that even the most personal and private spheres of human life are subject to “internal” globalization, mainly due to digital revolution (that is connected to the next approach which considers globalization in terms of new technologies, especially Internet; Manuel Castells devoted his works to this issue) (Castells 2011) (Castells, 2013).

On the other hand, Ulrich Beck chooses the standpoint that globalization has become the source of “historical transformation”, which means that the “difference between the national and the international” should be abolished (Beck, 2005, p. 11). This transformation, of course, affects the sovereignty as a concept of (formal) power, enabling the actual power to “shift” from states to non-state and supranational actors (like the European Union, but also e.g. international financial institutions) as well as between states themselves (what puts into question the principle of equality of states within the international system) (Ruszkowski, 2018, p. 83-110). However, this “shift of power” is related not only to the “globalization” of policy and politics, resulting in losing the control over the decision-making processes, but also to the crisis of the nation-state itself, which indicates the necessity to look for new sources of politics and, at same time, to discover (in terms of scientific research) the actual stages of politics as we have it today. This is especially important because – as U. Beck put it – these all shifts and crises are the result of changing the rules of the global game itself, the political game that is going on at now is not an “ordinary” game for power, but is the game for the meta-power, so for the power of establishing the rules that will determine all the games in future when the new world order will be clear (Beck, 2005, p. 86).

However, what if the current chaos is not a period of transition, but in fact a new order, only not yet fully established and acknowledged? As it was mentioned, the main thing is now that the logic of power is changing; it should be noted that this concerns also its construction. In this context order is seen rather as the “state of affairs” than “hard frames” that determine the range of possible actions of political actors (of course, “state of affairs” can produce “hard frames” for future as well as convert into them). This problem is often associated with the concept of projected so-called “new world order” (NWO) that raises questions about the mechanisms of the real power in the world, its legitimacy and actors who hold it (Slaughter, 2004). In fact, this phrase became a catchword, identified with conspiracy theories that try to explain the backstage and modes of power not only at the beginning of 21st century, but also in previous decades (Epperson, 1990) (Redfern, 2017). This concerns e.g. the conviction that we are ruled by freemasonry (mainly – the association of Illuminati) or (and) by a closed group of so-called “global elite” (this is often identified with Bilderberg group) (Rivera, 1997) that is trying to subordinate all the people by the means of surveillance, media influence and illusion of comfortable life (Redfern, 2017). In context of conspiracy theories, such endeavor seems possible to accomplish because the “global elite” is like the embodiment of the Empire in practice – it willingly uses the biopower to control the people through their lifestyles, habits and addictions (of course, this concerns almost only the West – especially people who live in big cities) or secret agreements (mainly in the field of international trade and finance), established by and between governments with no social legitimacy or even public debate. The last issue is often associate with mechanism of global governance which gather the interests of governments with activity of international institutions, agencies and other bodies as well as other non-state actors (private sector and NGOs) (Slaughter 2004); in context of the NWO theories, global governance can be interpreted as a “mask” for the real competition for power, far away from the eyes of citizens. What is interesting, some scholars see also the international law as a mask for real interests of states (Goldsmith, Posner, 2005, p. 3). If the actual (not formal) actors of global politics would gain the whole power over the world, the New World Order would be fulfilled.

Of course, the thing is not so easy to consider as the individual – paradoxically – in some cases get benefits from such a state of affairs. It is because of e.g. the role of the Internet; as we participate in the outcomes of digital revolution, we can also – even if the Internet is a mode of surveillance – try to gain some power to affect the world order. The best example are here the hackers groups, non-governmental organizations and social (grassroots) movements. For instance, the role of Anonymous group certainly should be taken into account as well as other networks, emerging through the Internet platforms and forums (Williams, 2008). What is important, that also can be seen as predicted by some authors – as Hardt and Negri put it, “The development of communications networks has an organic relationship to the emergence of the new world order – it is, in other words, effect and cause, product and producer” (Hardt, Negri, 2000, p. 32). Also, the individual can make an impact on world order, contesting its rules – e.g. like in the case of Edward Snowden. Therefore, the power of the global system is not so impersonal (“subjectless”) as it may seem – even from the perspective of an ordinary citizen.

However, if we take the NWO concepts and scenarios seriously, the thing of “novelty” of this project is not so obvious. Would such an order be really new? To find an answer to this question, it will be helpful to sketch another queries. Who is a member of “global elite” in terms of nationality, race and cultural affiliation? Where the leading institutions are located,
where the crucial meetings are taking place? It is not difficult to notice that even conspiracy theories are concerning mainly the role of the West and position of Western (mainly American) people in structures of global institutions. And, indeed, the point is here (although it is changing due to increasing influence of China, both in emerging markets and countries of the “old” West, especially in Australia) (Hamilton, 2018). The non-ending impact of Western people is often called “global apartheid” (Alexander, 1996). It is due to the dominance of the West in the structures of global governance, establishing them by the Western states and their geographical location within the West; the “global apartheid” itself means that taking the most important decisions on a global scale is dominated by a certain group that can be distinguished on the basis of specific criteria. In context of global political, economic or social matters and controversies, such group are the richest Western states (and non-state actors and institutions established in the West as well). “Global apartheid” also manifests itself in social inequalities on a global scale. This concept is also connected with the issue of “minority government” (minoritarianism), not only within one society, but at the global level, despite existing countries and cultural differences (Robinson, 2010). But is it really surprising? The “global apartheid” is, in fact, an internal social and economic system that lets the Empire live. Michel Hardt and Antonio Negri indicate that at the beginning of 21st century, “we can see emerging a new topography of exploitation and economic hierarchies the lines of which run above and below national boundaries. We are living in a system of global apartheid. We should be clear, however, that apartheid is not simply a system of exclusion, as if subordinated populations were simply cut off, worthless, and disposable. In the global Empire today, as it was before in South Africa, apartheid is a productive system of hierarchical inclusion that perpetuates the wealth of the few through the labor and poverty of the many” (Hardt, Negri, 2004, pp. 166-167). The scarcity and misery are also the subjects of globalization (Chossudovsky, 2003). The Empire clashes with the Multitude as the power clashes with labor and poverty. As we can see, the New World Order, if it was, it would not be indeed so new.

Conclusions

Theoretical and Empirical Research on Global System, and its Conditions

But can the (neo)liberal capitalist system have really such a status as in the concept of Hardt and Negri? And – what is connected to this matter on a theoretical level – can we find any other definition or concept of power that would describe it without indicating the actor (actors) to whom this power would be attached? Can the notion of empire be used to research on impersonal power, even though we most often associate the empire with the person of the emperor? The ideas of Hardt and Negri as well as of e.g. M. Foucault, U. Beck or other authors indicate that we are aware of what is changing in the world and what the consequences it can produce, but also that we are still looking for the answer that would be precise enough to be applied in research as a theoretic approach or a theory itself. Of course, such a theory needs to be able to cover a really wide scope issues, taking into account complexity of global integration and disintegration processes. Moreover, it will be required to transcend the “traditional” boundaries of scientific disciplines as the global changes are proceeding in various spheres; this, of course, creates a strong challenge to epistemology. The next is the matter of ontology – such a theory should respond creatively to the challenge of so-called “level of analysis” that in such case certainly cannot be only “global”. It is because we need to consider not only more things that are “global” together on the global level as it is (so issues like migrations, sustainability, human rights, etc.) but also to think of them in a cross-level manner that would make it possible to check and examine how the processes of “global transformation” (so not only of globalization but also of fragmentation in regions that had been well integrated before) changed these all spheres of human activity as well as – in more general context – the structures of politics and power. Of course, this also includes question on how these new structures are affecting human existence and actions from the level of the individual to the level of the global. Last but not least is the problem of methodology that binds together the challenges of epistemology and ontology. Which methods we can use to conduct research in such a framework? Should we examine each issue or each level separately or make a research in a holistic manner? In terms of more general, rather meta-theoretical or philosophical than empirical considerations there appears a question how to think of these transformative changes in a cross-paradigmatic and cross-level way.

Of course, all the concepts that I mentioned above are important steps, taken be their authors to understand and to name phenomenas and processes that are taking place around. Therefore, as I think, they are inevitable to be referred to and to be recognized as the base for further reflection. For example, they are sensitizing us not only to the issue of economic subordination and coercion of “living in the system”, but also to the risk of violence – the “systemic power” (or, maybe, “systemic authority” one day) in practice is being exercised not only by supranational institutions or organizations, but also by governments and private actors. The development of modern technologies facilitated the surveillance and deprivation
of privacy of citizens and, therefore, the logic of the “impersonal power” started to be favored. What is important, at the same time new technologies can be used by specific networks, groups or individuals for specific purposes, even for strictly personal purposes. The observed dispersion of political and economic power does not protect us from increasing control. Moreover, the power over society in practice manifests itself in controlling each individual by him/herself. This is the result of widespread consumerism (in the West) that makes us addicted to material goods of low quality as well as to our habits and comforts. It concerns also rising debts that become a mechanism of disciplining both individuals and entire societies. Could the power of the global Empire – and, hence, the empire of neoliberal capitalism – resemble a totalitarian system? The considerations of Hardt and Negri, prompt that we live in a globalized and permanent state of emergency – or even the “global state of war” (Hardt, Negri, 2004, pp. 12-18) that seems to be a never-ending framework for our activities and endeavors. The supranational codification of law as well as the reformulation of the role of space (so, also, territory in political terms) and the way we perceive it are serving to the maintenance of the state of emergency even in our heads.

Bibliography


Intercultural Pedagogy: A Methodology for Contemporary Society

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Abstract

Major societal transformations have occurred worldwide in the twentieth century, and more markedly in the last decades, affecting the social, cultural, political and economic spheres of human activity. Such transformations contributed to the realization of Marshall McLuhan's prophecy about the advent of the “global village”, characterised by the growing expansion of mass communication and mass media, by the birth of new economic markets and significant geopolitical changes. The latter, usually identified via the term “globalization”, evidence a shrinking of distances and a growing number of ties between the most diverse territorial realities and, above all, greater mobility resulting in numerous and varied migratory directions.

Keywords: intercultural, pedagogy, methodology, contemporary, society

Introduction

A greater cultural, economic, scientific and religious pluralism distinguishes today’s society, urging the individual inhabiting it to adapt to the incessant flow and circulation of things, people and ideas, and to master new multimedia and technological systems through previously separated spheres and fields which are now interconnected and interdependent.

Within the context briefly outlined here, intercultural pedagogy emerges as a necessity. Any reflection on it must begin with an epistemological differentiation among the concepts of multi-, pluri-, inter- and trans- culture, sometimes mistakenly used in everyday discourse. Interculture characterises itself as a critical exercise able to restore a plural memory, through which we can recognise the positive value of cultural diversity, and of the communal character of humankind, made of exchanges, borrowings, intersections, hybridisms. Discourse must include a meditation on the concepts of personal identity and of alterity, so that we can learn how to look at and interpret reality from multiple, varied interpretative stances, and compare these different interpretations. The aim is to realise how multiple readings of reality provide us with a much more articulated and complex image of reality. Identity, alterity and an innate need for interaction, exchange, dialogue, and communication are fundamental categories for intercultural pedagogy, whose educational goal is the development of open, flexible, anti-dogmatic and inquisitive thinking. Such thinking is capable of putting aside its mental references and values, of meeting other cultures, of acknowledging and understanding analogies and differences, and of going back to its culture enriched by the encounter and the comparison with others. Strengthening the identity of the individual or of the group is a necessary condition for intercultural pedagogy.

The school is the institution most directly involved in providing an intercultural education. Its task is to develop a critical thinking, a mindset open to dialogue and to interrelationship. In the current (and so complex) historical phase, when our coasts are, almost on a daily basis, the landing place for entire migrant communities, intercultural education is a vital priority and opportunity to lay the foundation for a common and solidary history. In order to meet such a crucial objective, school is paramount; however, the educational model characterising it, historically too rigid and limited in scope, its curricula and teaching methodologies must be redesigned in order to meet new goals. It would not be fair to disavow the accomplishments of this institution over the last few years driven by the urgency and pressures exercised by the incoming migratory flows; yet its structural foundations remain ossified and monocultural.

Method

Today the term “interculture” has become a key word, not just within specialised language, but also in everyday speech. Especially in the latter, interculture is a shorthand for a vast array of behaviours, attitudes, actions and measures or a “passe-partout” than people use with a wide range of meanings or different connotations. From the point of view of specialised discourse, instead, the term “interculture” takes on multiple meanings. Personally, I understand this term as a methodology, an applicational field, an operational strategy which concerns everyday problems arising from living together.
and being citizens, a welcome answer to the ongoing global transformations, an observation point, a horizon, a moral instrument. More radically, I tend to consider interculture as a critical mode of dialogical thinking, as a philosophy of the "we", of open-mindedness, of negotiation, of relation, of hospitality. It can be read as the need to question ourselves, to understand, to be able to know how to behave in our encounters with the Other, the need to abandon our safe cultural haven and the strongholds that protect our identity, our ways of representing and stigmatising other cultures. It is the need to leave aside our feelings of belonging and of superiority in the name of which, throughout history, we have been denying the newcomers their rights. Within such a purview, interculture is a tool that can open the doors to multiple ways of thinking, a plurality of philosophies, the general praxes of collective life; this tool is particularly useful in those multi-ethnic urban realities, where operators require innovative theoretical, methodological and practical instruments to deal with the situations arising from migration, education and communication.

Outcomes (expected)

The paper sets out to explore the notion of intercultural pedagogy as a fundamental need for contemporary society. First, it will offer a historical and theoretical overview of the concepts of interculture, multicultural and transculture; it will investigate the structural characteristics of this new pedagogical concept with the aim to identify the most adequate aims and strategies to achieve not an abstract but a historically determined (here and now), humanity, where every subject can increasingly become an individual and every individual a person. Only thus, can intercultural pedagogy avoid the risk—quite frequent in the pedagogical debate, of being reduced to an empty, purely ethical and descriptive theorization or to a repertoire of good sentiments and practices. School is the leading institution charged with the rather difficult task of promoting an “education of the mind”, able to combine the “near” and the “far”, the “Particular” and the “Universal”, to defend intellectual freedom, to oppose uniformity and dependency, to contribute to a common project as a result of which old and new forms of intolerance, discrimination, separation and exclusion can be overcome.

However, many have pointed out how school cannot bear such a serious burden alone. Therefore, it requires the help of other historical and international educational subjects, such as the family, the Church, various associations and new and old media. This is the pedagogy of the integrated educational system, which has taken hold in Italy in the last decades. This system postulates a pedagogical pact among different educational subjects, and represents one of the most innovative frontiers of the contemporary pedagogical debate.

References

The Role of Scientific Terminology and Metaphors in Management Education

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Abstract: Interdisciplinary studies can create synergy across various fields, allowing for knowledge in a previously specialized area to support other disciplines. A number of scientific theories and laws have been applied in other domains to explain the latter’s phenomenon; the adaptation of Newton’s Gravitational Law for studies of bilateral trade, diplomatic ties, migration and interaction, or the extension of Chaos Theory to biological evolution, engineering, and organizational management. Recent literature in management studies have also used scientific theories as metaphors to describe management functions and managerial behaviours. Similarly, one can apply Moore’s Law to understand the exponential world. Changes are no longer linear and predictable, and the past is no longer a proxy for the future. This paper suggests that the renowned and established theories of General Relativity, Quantum Physics, the Newtonian Paradigm, Theory of Chaos, and the Standard Model have the potential to operate as extensions or metaphors to explain some aspects of strategic management. These scientific theories, and the implications of their respective terminologies, can therefore help firms better appreciate strategies and organizational designs that combat complexities of business environments, especially those in international markets. Their use will also help managers with a background in science understand various phenomena with augmented interest and clarity, thereby improving the learning experience and depth of understanding for both professionals and management students alike.

Keywords: scientific metaphors, enhancing learning, globalization, education, organizational management education, interdisciplinary

Introduction

“For newer disciplines, there appears to be a pattern of development that is based on the usage of concepts, definitions, theories, rules and principles from other disciplines. In other words, scholars determine that there is no reason to reinvent the wheel and therefore, search out those things which can or might apply to their respective area of study.” (Stock, 1997, p. 215) Scientific inquiry is one of the oldest disciplines intriguing the human mind. Since early civilisations, humans have engaged in the discovery of the nature and development of principles and laws that govern this universe. Early attempts to understand the universe were restricted to limited observation and inadequate experimentation. The scientific development that we see today is a process that began long ago, although recent centuries have shown a major expansion of scientific disciplines leading to technological advancement and innovation. Scientific knowledge and discoveries in early civilisations were rarely well recorded, transferred to subsequent generations, or shared with other scientists around the world. However, the emergence of means to share information both further and faster (such as Digital and Information Technology) has led to growth of sciences, and also ignited the emergence of many cross-disciplinary fields. In this respect, science has also influenced many other disciplines, especially management – that finds itself at the confluence of natural and social science.

There are many examples of principles of scientific theories being applied in management both as parallel concepts and as illustrative metaphors. When Gleick (1987) observed that twentieth-century science will be remembered for relativity, quantum mechanics, and chaos, he did not foresee that the implications of quantum theory and chaos would also be
recognized in fields of management. No one would have also thought that principles of Newtonian paradigms can effectively explain total quality management (Dooley et al., 1995). All such works have compared the similarities between respective scientific concepts and management theories, or employed them as analogies and metaphors to explain social systems and management problems.

Though metaphorical use of scientific theories carries great potential to explain concepts and issues in management, its use is still scarce at best. The principal objective of this paper is to highlight how scientific analogies and metaphors can be used to elaborate management concepts. Attempts have also been made to propose additional analogies and metaphors to explain the phenomenon of internationalization of businesses.

Using Scientific Metaphors in Management

Metaphor is the art of comparing different things to arrive at a new understanding (Hudson, 2005). Hamilton (2000) also observes that metaphors can be used to both influence and persuade. However, she also warned that use of metaphors may also constrain and limit understanding, then used the example of the atom and the solar system to explain how powerful metaphors can be in creating new images and new meanings, and explain complex systems. Kaplan (1964) suggests that the use of analogies and metaphors to point out the awareness of resemblances serves “the purposes of science”.

Both scientists and non-scientists have come to understand and explain themselves and their world through comparative thinking, often with the use of metaphors. For example, Stephen Hawking, in “A Brief History of Time”, used the metaphor of a ping-pong ball bouncing on a table to explain the concept of relativity. Similarly, many other scientists and philosophers have used metaphors in which complex topics from areas as diverse as quantum mechanics, genetics and chemical interactions are better explained using comparisons to more mundane topics that are more likely to have been experienced by the audience, and will therefore feel more “real” to them (Hudson, 2005). In other words, metaphors are greatly helpful to explain a complex phenomenon in a relatively simple way that is understandable to the audience.

Metaphors are not only used to explain scientific theories; additionally, there are instances in which scientific metaphors have been used in social sciences or management and organizational studies. For example, Images of Organization, a popular work by Gareth Morgan (1986) is a reminder of how metaphors can be used in a powerful way to elaborate organizational issues and theories. Organizational scientists have also used metaphors to explain the types of organizations and describe various processes that constitute organizational activities. Morgan (1986) compared organizations with machines, brains, cultures, political systems, psychic prisons, flux and transformation, and instruments of domination. Others note that organizations may be perceived as tribes, goal-seeking organisms, homeostatic systems, and elephants (Czarniawska-Joerges, 1992).

Despite the power of scientific metaphors, their use in explaining management problems has been limited. It is only recently that metaphors borrowed from basic scientific theories have been used to describe or illustrate management phenomena. One such example is Dooley et al.’s (1995) elaboration of the connections between the Newtonian paradigm and scientific management; in particular the elaboration on connections between chaos, learning organizations and total quality management. Overman (1996) has detailed performance appraisal and budgeting issues using the metaphors of chaos and quantum theory, and argues that sciences such as physics, biology, and psychology spur us to rethink and reformulate a new “science of administration” for the twenty-first century. It should be noted that describing a management phenomenon through categorization or metaphors does not necessarily constitute the formulation of a novel theory; rather, it is a powerful tool of description (Schmenner and Swink, 1998) with which the audience can relate and easily remember.

While use of metaphors can be helpful to explain complex ideas, and a new metaphor can extend the horizons of understanding of a theoretical concept, Hamilton (2000) warns that a slavish and blind adherence to only one perspective can result in an erroneous understanding of the concept, especially if theorists do not pay attention to pertinent aspects of the metaphor. Therefore, one must be meticulous while offering a scientific metaphor in any explanation. As such, in order to discuss the use of such metaphors in the following examples in this paper, brief explanations of the concepts are necessary.

Background: General Relativity and Quantum Physics

In the Principia, Newton suggested that the laws of motion follow the rules of 1) inertia, 2) acceleration, and 3) action and reaction. With these three laws, Newton was able to explain the motion of objects. At the time, these were considered to
be infallible foundations of physics until another iconic physicist, Albert Einstein, rewrote the laws of gravitational physics. Einstein determined that Newton’s laws of motions merely projected a relativistic reality, even though Newtonian physics still provided an accurate approximation in most circumstances – with the exception of extreme speed and gravity. Instead, space and time are not independent or absolute.

The emblematic works of Einstein were undoubtedly that of General Relativity and Quantum Physics. The Theory of General Relativity connected the law of gravitation and its relations to the other forces of nature. It suggests that a planet deforms the time-space continuum, which is the background fabric of the universe (Rooney, 2006). Quantum mechanics suggests that there is an unavoidable element of unpredictability or randomness (Greene, 2004), such that even the position of a particle cannot be definite - it can only be given as a probability. Einstein was convinced, however, that “God does not play dice”, and attempted to merge the theories of General Relativity and Quantum Physics into a Unified Theory (Rooney, 2006). Purportedly, combining quantum mechanics with general relativity would confirm and validate the hypothesis of space and time as a finite, four-dimensional space without singularities and boundaries (Hawkings, 2005).

Although scientists are divided on whether The Super-Unification Theory is possible, General Relativity and Quantum Physics have been useful to explain other physical phenomena like the Big Bang, cosmic inflation and black holes. The Big Bang was a result of the gigantic explosion at Point Zero whereby an infinite amount of energy was concentrated in an infinitely tiny space. The out-burst of energy and matter was coined as the “cosmic inflation”. These matters lose energy and heat as the universe create further expands. A black hole occurs when gravitational force overwhelms the energy received from the star’s own combustion and the gravitational force pulls the star into itself.

Yet, the idea of a unified theory stems further back into history; Plato thought that everything in this universe is of an intelligent design, as he was an avid patron of geometry and believed everything follows a pattern. This physical phenomenon finds similarities in businesses and management; just as the universe is thought to have formed and evolved, a firm establishes itself, then internationalizes or diversifies (when it becomes more successful or when in need to search for new markets to sustain its growth), and then finally relocate, exit or collapse in the market (mostly when the net costs outweighs net benefits). Likewise, there is depletion of resources or access to resources as firms internationalize into farther markets.

The Standard Model: A Comparison between Physics and Organisational Design

*The Physics* (Greek: Φυσικὴ ἀκρόασις, Phusike akroasis) by Aristotle postulates that everything consists of matter and form, and seeks to explain any change. The universe is governed throughout by the same physical laws and constants. The Theories of General Relativity and Quantum Physics led scientists to emerge with the Standard Model through attempts to explain The Theory of Everything; the Standard Model suggests that all matter is made up elementary particles of leptons and quarks, and that these interact via three fundamental interactions: the electroweak interaction of electromagnetism and the weak nuclear force, the quantum chromodynamic interaction of strong nuclear forces, and general relativity’s description of gravity.

The organizational design of an organization bears strong resemblance to the Standard Model. As much as matter is held together by the three forces described above, an organisation can also be described as being held together by its structure, systems, people, and values (see Table 1). The Standard Model’s interactions have different mediators, relative strengths, long-distance behavior and range, not too dissimilar to the organizational model’s interaction of structure, systems, people and values, which exhibit different levels of influences, long distance impact behavior and reach of influences.

Table 1: Conceptual model of fundamental interactions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interaction</th>
<th>Current theory</th>
<th>Mediators</th>
<th>Relative strength</th>
<th>Long-distance behavior</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>Quantum chromodynamics</td>
<td>Gluons</td>
<td>Extremely strong</td>
<td>Negligible</td>
<td>Extremely short</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electromagnetic</td>
<td>Quantum electrodynamics</td>
<td>Photons</td>
<td>Extremely strong</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td>Infinite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>Electroweak theory</td>
<td>W and Z bosons</td>
<td>Extremely strong</td>
<td>Negligible</td>
<td>Extremely short</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gravitation</td>
<td>General relativity</td>
<td>Gravitons</td>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td>Infinite</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chandler (1962) defined strategy as the determination of long term goals and objectives, and the adoption of courses of action and the allocation of resources necessary for attaining these goals; while structure is the design of the organization through which the enterprise is administered with the lines of authority and communication between the different administrative offices and the officers, information and data that flow through these lines of communication and authority. Strategy and organizational design are inextricably intertwined (Porter, 1980; Hamel and Prahalad, 1994). Strategy and organizational structure are strongly related because an “optimal strategy” maximizes the organization’s payoff, and the organization structure implementing that optimal strategy minimizes the cost of information processing (Li, 1995). In the same way that scientists require knowledge of Particle Physics, managers must have the ability to discern themselves with the appropriate and complementing organizational design and strategies.

**Newtonian Paradigm and Management**

Dooley et al. (1995) argues that the Newtonian paradigm used reductionism to form mathematical models of reality - reductionism suggests that systems are composed of independent elements, referred to as the basic building blocks. Consequently, to understand the system, one needs to completely break it down to its smallest elements and describing how these elements interact (Ackoff, 1987). Newtonian reductionism has also helped to explain other systems dealing with laws, equilibrium, or natural order - including moral, social, and political order. Prigogine and Stengers (1984) also argued that Newtonian paradigm has become a basic recipe for how new knowledge was obtained.

However, with the advent of the quantum, complexity, and relativity theories, scientific perspectives have transformed, along with the concepts of Newtonian paradigm used in management science. Dooley et al. (1995) drew parallels across the total quality management and chaos, and Newtonian paradigm, and argued that the tools of Newtonian paradigm are powerful and will continue to be effective for improving the quality of work-level processes. These examples show that many problem-solving tools and the spread of normative practices are indicative of the Newtonian paradigm; indicating that the Newtonian paradigm possesses powerful ability to explain management problems and offer viable solutions to these problems. Yet, these theories and understandings will further evolve with development, akin to their physical counterparts.

**Chaos Theory and Management**

While the concepts of chaos and self-organization have evolved from the physical sciences, the notion of complex adaptive systems has its roots in the biological sciences (Dooley et al., 1995). Gleick (1987) discovered deep and complex patterns in seemingly random or “chaotic” systems. This concept of chaos has been successfully used as a metaphor in several works on management. For example, “chaord” is a concept that is derived from both chaos and order. “Chaord” refers to “any autocatalytic, self-regulating, adaptive, nonlinear, complex organism, organization, or system, whether physical, biological or social, the behavior of which harmoniously exhibits characteristics of both order and chaos” (Chaordic Commons, 2004). The term ‘chaordic’ then refers to anything that is simultaneously orderly and chaotic, existing in the phase between order and chaos (Chaordic Commons, 2004).

Based on Wilber (1996), Fitzgerald (1996) articulates five core characteristics of chaordic systems. These are illustrated as follows:

- **Consciousness** (thinking, as opposed to doing, is the prime engine of a chaordic system);
- **Connectivity** (the chaordic system is one unbroken and unbreakable unity);
- **Indeterminacy** (the chaordic system is so dynamically complex and highly sensitive to initial conditions that any link between cause and effect is necessarily obscured, rendering its future indeterminate);
- **Dissipation** (the chaordic system is a dissipative structure, perpetually cycling through a process of ‘falling apart’ and ‘back together again’ in a novel new form ungoverned by the past); and
- **Emergence** (the inexorable thrust of the chaordic system is toward infinitely ascending levels of coherence and complexity).

These five properties illustrate that human initiative is central in chaotic system thinking (Eijnatten et al., 2007) - therefore, processes such as dialogue, multilogue, and emergent leadership are critically important mechanisms.

Given the complexity of today’s organizations (Boal and Schultz, 2007), which are intricately intertwined with individual and social demands, constraints, and choices (Stewart, 1982), leadership in organizations is even more complex and adaptive
(Marion and Uhl-Bien, 2001). Under such systems, its primary task is to establish a dynamic system where bottom-up structuration emerges and moves the system (and its components) to a more desirable level of fitness and order (Osborn and Hunt, 2007). Such a leadership capacity required to reach toward the desired order is more intricate and complex, and is most likely shared among managerial leadership role holders instead of being concentrated in a single individual, especially in complex adaptive systems. In executive level leadership positions, leaders face more external pressures and less internal constraints while they develop, focus, and enable an organization's structural, human, and social capital and capabilities to meet real-time opportunities and threats (Boal, 2004). They engage in sense-making of environmental turbulence and ambiguity, and sense-giving to their followers. They regularly operate on the edge of chaos and perform what can be termed as "chaordic leadership".

This view of management through the lens of complexity and chaos is increasingly emerging in project management studies as well. Thomas and Mengel (2008) argue that projects and project environments are recognized as being influenced by complexity, chaos, and uncertainty, necessitating improved project management education and development of project managers. Project challenges seem to be increasing (Toor and Ofori, 2008) and projects are being managed on the edge of chaos. The diverse range of challenges faced by organizations and projects requires leaders to respond to each situation on its individual merits (Raiden and Dainty, 2006). It therefore calls for leadership that fosters continuous change, creative and critical reflection, self-organized networking, virtual and cross-cultural communication, coping with uncertainty and various frames of reference, increasing self-knowledge and the ability to build and contribute to high-performance teams (Thomas and Mengel, 2008). One such project management technique is aptly named “Agile Project Management”, to reflect the necessary traits of such leadership in a constantly dynamic situation – another example of metaphors that accurately represent reality, and serve to form the necessary mindsets. (Canthy, 2015)

In other works, Dooley et al. (1995) draw more parallels across total quality management and chaos. They present the notion that control is equated with the Newtonian paradigm whereas organizational learning - which involves creativity and innovation - is equated with the complexity paradigm. Dooley et al. (1995) argue that, in order to achieve total quality management in an organization, “one must manage systems to be in control and out of control (i.e. learning by experimentation) at the same time” (p. 17). They also note that elements of total quality management – such as organizational, planning, and strategic elements – are indicative of a complexity paradigm. Similarly, Overman (1996) argues that use of the chaos theory parallelism enhances our understanding of administrative behaviors and fosters the idea that real change and innovation can be achieved through chaos instead of preventing it through control. Overman (1996) also observes that management problems such as performance appraisal and budgeting can be successfully addressed through the concept of chaos.

These examples show that there are fairly strong links across the concepts of chaos (e.g. self-organization, dissipative structures, and dynamic complexity) and management. However, given that the work on chaordic organizations and complex adaptive systems is still emerging, there is a lot more yet to be known in this area. Studies using the chaordic model have been found in use in hotel management (Pappas et al., 2019) and comparisons between different types of social ventures (Miller-Stevens et al., 2018) – these studies imply that the model is indeed a valid parallelism and provides an explanation.

Quantum Theory and Management

According to Shelton and Darling (2001), the current era of technological development can be called “The Quantum Age”. While quantum mechanics has completely transformed modern technology, it also has a lot to offer to management sciences. Overman (1996) argues that the applications of new sciences – such as quantum theory – are significant and rapidly growing in the area of management and administration. He applied the metaphors and methods of quantum theory to familiar management issues such as performance appraisal and budgeting. Overman also presents the notion of the “quantum organization” and observes that “the quantum organization will require even greater participation and collusion among actors with common purpose, and even greater reliance on nontangible and nonindividual patterns of compensation and identity” (p. 87).

Shelton and Darling (2001) argue that human beings are also quantum beings and that the metaphor of quantum theory can be successfully used to explain managerial behaviors. Using “quantum theory”, Shelton and Darling (2001) proposed the quantum skills model for leadership behaviors, echoing the interest in relating scientific theories with management concepts. The quantum skills model incorporates seven skills:
Quantum seeing – the ability to see intentionally;
Quantum thinking – the ability to think paradoxically;
Quantum feeling – the ability to feel vitally alive;
Quantum knowing – the ability to know intuitively;
Quantum acting – the ability to act responsibly;
Quantum trusting – the ability to trust life’s process; and
Quantum being – the ability to be in relationship.

Where quantum seeing, thinking, and feeling are psychological in nature, quantum knowing, acting, and trusting are grounded in what is termed as “spiritual principles”. Quantum being, as Shelton and Darling (2001) put it, is intricately connected to each of the other quantum skills. Its central position in the model reflects this connection. Proponents of quantum skills model believe that it is key to enhancing leadership effectiveness.

**Quantum Mechanics and Ideation**

Henry P. Stapp, a popular physicist, offers an interesting relevance of quantum mechanics with the 21st century business world. While speaking at the Neuro Leadership Summit in Aslo, Italy, Stapp (2007) argued that quantum mechanics describes the dynamics of ideas. Since 21st century business management is primarily more driven by rapidly changing ideas than by slowly changing material factors. Stapp furthered his argument by making a reference to structures of social organizations, businesses, and industries that were a reflection of the reigning scientific conceptions of their times; in particular, Newtonian mechanics, which was based upon the idea of a point particle that was supposed to have a predefined location, velocity, and trajectory in space-time. Conversely, the modern theory of mechanics showed that the particle can be associated with the notion of continuous smear of possible locations and possible velocities.

This perspective of quantum mechanics suggests that in order to understand what was actually going on, one should interpret the continuous smear of possibilities as a potentiality for an event to occur. Stapp suggested that an event is psycho-physical in nature and has both an idea-like as well as physical aspect. In this respect, ideas are both basic realities and causal drivers. In the slow-moving age of machines Newtonian mechanics played an influential role. But in today’s dynamic world and rapidly changing circumstances, continuous development and flow of ideas and their efficient deployment in business design and strategy is central. This transformation underscores the need for dynamic flow of ideas making humans both the creators and implementers of concepts. Stapp thereby used the metaphors of quantum mechanics and its laws to explain how complex problems of our world can be solved.

Overman (1996) also suggests that adoption of the metaphors and methods of quantum theory possess a great potential for management sciences in the future. Above examples of use of quantum theory to explain management problems and managerial behaviors show that quantum theory can be used as a metaphor in numerous other pertinent areas of management.

**Principles of Physics for Management**

It is crucial that the other laws of physics are also recognized because the laws in science and physics are very much interconnected and inter-related. Insomuch that the Gravity Model has been used to observe phenomena in social sciences like bilateral trade, diplomatic ties, migration and interaction; and the extension of the Chaos Theory to comprehend biological evolution, engineering and organizational management, the paper recommends the application of other established laws of physics to the management of the internationalizing firm. Table 2 lists these laws of physics – which Baker (2008) lists in her recent book on “50 Physics Ideas You Really Need to Know” – and their respective interpretations with respect to management, showing that the laws of physics can be successfully imported as metaphors to explain various management and administrative phenomena ranging from environmental scanning and business competitiveness to internationalization of organizations and management of chaos in foreign cities.

**Table 2: Key laws of physics (as metaphors) and their application in business and management**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Laws of physics</th>
<th>Business / Management Interpretation</th>
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### Environmental Scanning

Maxwell’s equations described how both electric and magnetic fields are manifestations of the electromagnetic wave. The business climate is constituted by many inter-related factors and is manifested in many ways.

Particle physicists think space is a cauldron of subatomic particles being continually created and destroyed; and mass, inertia, forces and motion may all be manifestations of a bubbling quantum soup. Business environments are complex. Forces of influences are constantly demolished and created.

Snell’s law on refractive indexes. Fraunhofer diffraction describes the blurring for light rays reaching us from a distant landscape. Wearing different lens or taking up a different method of due diligence may give the management different interpretation of the environment. Distance may dilute understanding.

Snell’s law on refractive indexes. Fraunhofer diffraction describes the blurring for light rays reaching us from a distant landscape. Wearing different lens or taking up a different method of due diligence may give the management different interpretation of the environment. Distance may dilute understanding.

The Doppler effect has been used to measure speeding cars to motion of the stars and galaxies. Firms can use business due diligence instruments to measure business viability and feasibility of business venture. Business intelligence gives leverage to the firm.

Standard model suggests that protons, neutrons and electrons are just the tip of the particle iceberg. There are still smaller quarks, neutrinos, photons etc. Data gives information; information gives knowledge; and knowledge gives wisdom.

### Internationalization of MNCs

Kepler described how planets follow elliptical orbits and how distant planets orbit slower around the sun. Foreign subsidiaries of an internationalizing organization follow the organizational make-up or traits of the local head-quarters. Influence from the head-quarters on the foreign subsidiary depends on the intervening distance between them. Distance can be expressed culturally, administratively, geographically, or economically (CAGE of distance).

Hooke’s law of elasticity suggests that a spring extends proportionally to the pulling force exerted on it. The performance of an overseas office may be affected by the level of control exerted, and empowerment and autonomy allowed by the head-quarters.

General relativity – light could be bent by gravitational field. Everything is relative to one another. The size of the firm or the size of investment, and the intervening distance between the home and host markets affects the conditions for internationalizing firms to venture into overseas markets.

### Chaordic Management and Organization

The Second law of thermodynamics says that heat travels from hot to cold bodies or from high entropy to low entropy, from chaos and mess to organization. A firm seeks to organize its resources by means of company policies, organizational structure, operating systems, shared values etc.

Dark matter takes up ninety percent of the universe. Yet, it has its own mass and gravitational pull. Unknown factors lurk around and can throw unwanted surprises to the firm.

The Chaos theory noticed that when 0.123456 was replaced by 0.123 in a weather forecast simulation, the predictions can be completely different. This led to the saying that the fluttering of a butterfly in Brazil can cause a torpedo in Texas, widely known as the “Butterfly Effect”.

The management must have the astuteness to break up problems and decisions into individual components so that varied stakeholders’ perceptions and interests are taken care of.

Newton’s theory of colour and his prism broke up white light into red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo and violet. The world is ever-changing and dynamic. The firm must not be static either. It has to be progressive to avoid being phased out by strong competition and demanding clients. Flexible and contingency strategies are necessary to survive.

Heisenberg’s uncertainty principle states that the speed or position of a particle cannot be exactly precise – indeterminism.
The Copenhagen interpretation rules that the observer's interventions fix the outcomes of quantum experiments. The Schrödinger's cat suggests until the outcome was actually observed, the cat should be in a state of limbo.

Managers must be open-minded. This is the essence of "Blue-ocean" thinking and strategy.

Nuclear fission and fusion.

Sometimes, problems need to be broken down into their elements; sometimes, issues can be lumped together and given an integrated solution for dynamic synergy.

According to Mach’s principle, objects far away affect how things move and spin nearby. This idea of relative versus absolute motion inspired Einstein to derive his theories on general and special relativity.

Everything is related to everything else, but nearby objects are more related than distant ones (First law of geography). Therefore, managers will have to consider causes of things unfolding around them and implications of their decisions.

Discussion and Conclusion

Use of metaphors to explain ideas and to convey messages is prolific in the modern age. Business, advertising, and technology communications employ metaphors and analogies to elaborate complex ideas and convey simpler messages to the public. In this paper, the authors have attempted to make a case that management science can greatly benefit from the use of scientific metaphors and analogies.

Business authors have been writing on relationships between warfare and business strategies when they attempt to transpose the wisdom of Sun-Tzu, Miyamoto Musashi, and von Clausewitz to train shrewd, judicious and incisive organizational managers. This paper advocates that the laws fundamental physical sciences can also be used to impart clear understanding and knowledge of the complexities of their business endeavors (Wee, 2017).

The rate of spatial expansion is accelerating, much like the dynamics of the world. Firms have to deal with a swelling multitude of environmental factors, especially with escalating globalization and proliferation of information and infrastructural technology. An appreciation of the phenomena of science (e.g. physics) can help managers to cope with dynamics of the new-age business world, and enable them to derive suitable strategies and organizational designs to combat the wide hosts of issues that they are currently facing and will continue to face in the future. Therefore, it is necessary that more concerted efforts are made by researchers to explain the processes and complexities of management through metaphorical use of scientific laws and theories.

There are striking similarities in the evolution of the firm – from establishment, to market-entry of internationalization or diversification, then shrinkage and exit – with the laws of physics. Could it be that there is indeed a ‘Grand Intelligent Design’ that unravels a prevailing law that formulates everything, including the best model for business strategies and organizational design? Perhaps the human race will continue to endeavor to discover that ‘Grand and Intelligent Design’ that governs the universe. However, with the existing knowledge of science, we can learn a great deal and explain many complex aspects of business through metaphors and parallelisms.

A large proportion of managers in technology-driven firms come from a technical/engineering background. These professionals have a robust knowledge base of basic science, are well aware of basic science principles, are comfortable with scientific explanations of complex phenomena, and as a result can easily relate to the scientific metaphors to help them understand various principles of modern management. Therefore, while training engineers or professionals with technical background for such roles, use of scientific metaphors can be greatly helpful. These metaphors are not only easy to understand for knowledge workers in technology-driven organizations, they are better retained in their memory and hence put to use in everyday practical life of professionals.

Use of scientific metaphors should also find its place in university courses at both undergraduate and postgraduate level. Scientific metaphors can deepen students’ understanding, especially those who are pursuing multidisciplinary courses or those who wish to pursue management careers but have a science background.

Discourse between students across science and management backgrounds can also help unravel various complex management phenomena. Such metaphors can also help generate the interest in management studies among students.
with science backgrounds – especially since many of these students are likely to play a managerial role as some point in their careers.

Engineering students in particular have strong science fundamentals, having been exposed to various basic science theories since their secondary education as a requirement.

Therefore, it is likely that engineering students will find management courses more interesting, appealing, and understandable if they are taught and reinforced through scientific metaphors.

This approach can be particularly useful for management-related courses under programs such as Construction Management, Engineering Management, Project Management, and Facilities Management.

Christensen et al. (2008) reminds us that while Education can be measured in scientific terms, some of it still remains an art, that relies on the instructor’s proficiency and sound judgement to “understand and relate to students”.

Yet, it is also recognized that a fair amount of education research is halted at “statements of correlation but not causality”. Christensen et al. observes a similar trend, disturbingly so, in business research. As such, we believe that more work is needed to include additional scientific metaphors that can explain various management phenomena.

Heavy collaboration is required among the academics who are interested in this line of inquiry and industry practitioners.

Given the potential of use of scientific metaphors in academic education and professional training, such collaboration can reap many benefits – some of which were discussed earlier – in the future.

To quote Christensen in closing, “education research must move toward understanding what works from the perspective of individual students in different circumstances as opposed to what works best on average for groups of students or groups of schools”.

References


Towards a Democratic Laboratory School

Simona Perfetti

Abstract

Nowadays, a new model of democratic school must contemplate educational dimensions capable of realizing those ethical relationships that can face the now unpredictable learning challenges of contemporary global society. Those involved in education have the task of organizing education by taking into account both the differences of each student to enhance the full development of the single individual's potential, as well as the opportunity to enhance talent to ensure a merit system based not on competitiveness but on recognition of the different skills of each pupil in the class. Perrenoud affirms the importance for the teacher to question himself about his activities and the educational relationship with young people, also with a view to an observation process that the school itself can undertake in the context of an overall self-assessment process. Against this background, the reflection proposed here focuses, in particular, on flipped methodologies, those cognitive and formative processes that, developed within the school of competencies, can be declined in real answers related to the existential, professional and social needs of young people. The transition to this type of school has meant the enhancement of a teaching approach in which pupils take the lead of their own learning pathway, learning to manage those key competences, including digital skills, social and civic competences, which are necessary for personal growth. In the context of these educational issues, it becomes useful to reflect on technology in a broader perspective, not only as a means to learn something but as an "object" able to promote the exploitation of those dimensions of existence, such as cooperation, sense of judgement, and the principle of responsibility, necessary to overcome society's challenges. Taking a chance on a democratic school means possessing digital wisdom, borrowing an expression from Mark Prensky, namely, that quality that can come out thanks to the enhancement of human capabilities through a balanced use of technologies. The digital wisdom, today's teacher, will reflexively identify the circumstances in which technology can be a valuable aid to stimulate students' understanding and creativity. Therefore, a proposal for those involved in education, may be to consider technology in a different perspective which, as Calvani suggests, embraces a different level of technology, the "contour", the potential, that which can be moved in terms of communication and cooperation. In this sense, flipped technologies (or an inverted way of teaching/learning: a task is given to the class that can be a video to watch, a book to read, or an experience to be carried out, usually to be done at home) such as the Flipped Classroom and the method of the EAS (method, transforming the school into a laboratory school, can represent an important learning opportunity for the adults of tomorrow. In fact, these technologies, due to their implementation methods, put into effect those values, such as collaboration, reflexivity, sharing, in a learning pathway suitable for living in today's complex society.

Keywords: democratic laboratory school

Introduction

One of the main issues of the relationship between school, education and democracy concerns the possibility of finding an agreement between formal and informal practices thanks to the use of digital media. The distance between the two types of practices, in fact, does not concern so much the difficulties faced by adults in handling new technologies as the fact that, despite having a certain familiarity with digital, adults, specifically teachers, cannot translate this familiarity in teaching practice.

Nowadays society and the world of education in general are experiencing the so-called "third age of the media" characterized by the fact that the media show themselves as a sort of connective tissue (Rivoltella, 2018) that innervates the person's body. This pedagogical need also arises from the observation that one of the central characteristics of contemporary global society is the idea that the individual is going through what Colin Crouch (2018) has defined as "post-
democracy" or a phase in which the opportunities for participation in political life, for people, they are canceled due to other decision-making structures such as bureaucracies, lobbies, economic enterprises and the media system.

Today a school that can be defined as democratic, will have to develop between teaching, media culture and governance since, by acting as a coagulant factor between these three aspects, this school can also better define the role and function of the teacher. In this sense, such a school will also be able to propose a bottom-up democracy with the aim of defining a school model in which it will be possible both to develop the talent and merit of each student in the educational relationship, and to welcome those educational stimuli, read in the terms of "integrated educational environments" (Galliani, 2012) able, that is, to concretize those ethical dimensions to allow young people to go through the now unexpected formative experiences of society.

Whoever deals with education will have to create a didactics of inter-actions between formal, non-formal and informal contexts, taking inspiration from everyday communicative-social actions in order to organize a school context that is able to enhance the full development of the unexpressed potential of every student. This is why it becomes necessary to approach pedagogically the use of technologies in the classroom since the urgency of today is to consider not the quantity of media used but which critical ideas to employ in linking the various media in relation to principles of sharing, collaboration, creativity; all this will lead the teacher to reflect on technologies in a different perspective, that is on what they can move, thanks to their use, in terms of emotions.

1. School and young generations. Are we moving towards new educational paths?

There have been two phenomena that have crossed society over time: on the one hand the cultural aspects of late modernity have participated, isolating individuals, from the weakening of the social capital of society itself (Putnam, 2000) on the other hand social networks, in the age of connectivity, pushed people to socialize and belong (Maffesoli, 1988).

«That is why, the private sphere instead of withdrawing from the public one, explodes in it making our society an outward one, a society in which what is "personal" is increasingly becoming "public"» (Rivoltella, 2010, p. 513). What appears to be a staple of the complex society is the presence of a strong educational need which today is fed by a series of factors including the pervasiveness of digital media, the increase of the social and economic crisis, an ever-increasing generalized cultural multiplicity.

These transformations have fostered the emergence of the crisis of traditional educational agencies, schools and families which, by becoming increasingly fragile in educating and training the younger generations, also fuel the loss of planning "made inevitable by the fact that our society offers to young people less and less opportunities to carry out their projects, professional and familiar ones, and in general projects of reasonable life "(Donati, 2010, p. 586). This is because in today's society the individual is still in search of those cognitive tools needed to tackle a series of open anthropological issues, including the loss of certain reference points, the effect that new technologies can have on emotional and cognitive processes, being able to manage the articulated forms of communication that come out thanks to social media, the emerging of polytheism of values.

We are approaching that threshold beyond which the educational problems could become dramatic in the sense that the young generations would be left to themselves - they should increasingly make do by themselves - in their own human, professional and moral formation, because the training agencies fail to be up to the challenges for the simple fact that they are conceived as not qualified (not legitimate) for this task (Donati, 2010, pp. 584-585).

This complex situation has, therefore, crossed the models of family, society, authority, relationship between adults and the youthful universe since the traditional schemes of an authoritarian type, according to some authors (Pietropolli Charmet, 2000; Lancini, 2015), have given way to more dialogical and emotional models. Just think, for example, of the figure of the father (Recalcati, 2011; Zoja, 2003; Perfetti, 2018) who has moved from an authoritarian dimension to a dimension of mothering and care, or to changes in the family system itself since we live, today, several types of families (Contini, Gigli, 2011).

Knowledge has fragmented and specialized, running the risk of being circumscribed in contexts separated from larger social environments, thus placing the educational problem of a possible and ever more urgent unitary recomposition (Morin, 2014; Giroux, 1989).
These transformations have influenced the world of school in the social, communicative, didactic, affective field and also the educational relationship itself, education and teaching, in fact, are going through a moment of strong crisis marked by the disappearance of some of those responsibilities that should, instead, define the education system, that is, increase knowledge, foster pupils' skills, offer real benefits in the world of work.

As Riva observes, "we find ourselves in the midst of a stormy and very complex historical-social phase in which both families and schools coexist, to varying degrees according to contexts, old models, values, and new glances, practices, behaviors" (Riva, 2015, pp. 24-25). The crisis of the educational issue concerns, in this way, the teachers who find themselves in the situation of no longer having the collaboration neither of the institutions, nor of the families that it is as if they I are willing to yield, to the teachers, only a sort of "trial period " (Enguita, 2001). Therefore, those involved in education must face a delicate and complex educational work both to prepare a sort of value platform that facilitates this transition between the old and the new, and to critically elaborate the educational problems internal to the change of people, to the relationship among the groups, between the institutions, between those who plays fundamental roles in the school.

Suffice it to think of the same reforms that the educational institution has gone through, since these same reforms have blamed the weight of this transition, advancing changes that, however, attempt to propose innovations on old principles, clashing with mentalities that are not ready for change, with entrenched educational models in previous systems, in the context of a continuous alternation of apparently innovative proposals but, in reality, set on past ideological dimensions.

Bauman (2011) in The individualized society, regarding the education of young people, stated that coordinating the commitment to "rationalize" the world with the effort to educate rational and adequate people to inhabit that world is no longer a credible educational project because , "Preparing for life", a sure goal of every education process, should be coordinated on one side with cultivating the will to cohabit with the uncertainty and complexity of today's society and, on the other hand, with the absence of reliable authorities. Again, this preparation for life would also have the obligation to carry forward the values of difference, of acceptance and reinforce those dimensions of criticism and self-criticism necessary to take responsibility for one's choices and their consequences. Now, the sociologist's criticisms of the dynamics of society in relation to the world of education focus attention also on another current problem that is that the school fails to meet the needs of a society in continuous transformation. Baldacci (2014), in relation to the complexity of the current educational situation, reflects in what idea of school, today, it is necessary to believe so that the educational apparatus can work. This is because the scholastic institution is crossed by two ways of seeing the binomial education-teaching, a way that has to do with the idea of "human capital" curved on production and efficiency, and a way of seeing in the school that institution capable of promoting "human development" aimed at enhancing the promotion of personal freedom. In other words, beyond the problems that the school experiences in adapting to the training needs of the younger generations, the underlying uncertainty is precisely the lack of an idea of school that is meaningful and suitable for today's cultural demands.

In today's society, the consolidation of digital media that has become an integral dimension of everyday practices, increasingly pushes the world of education to reinforce the thought that this idea of school must be implemented in capturing, in this educational place, that privileged educational model to direct young people towards social integration, sharing, confrontation because the school must act as a test bed for the construction of the self, of its own values, of its own ways of relating to the surrounding world, of its own strategies to face reality, of one's self-esteem, of the expectations of effectiveness (La Marca, 2016, p. 5). To complicate the cognitive frame of reference of young people there is also the fact that the latter, living a sort of structural union with the network, approach knowledge as a complex of liquid experiences, in the process of becoming, not only produced by experts of the various areas of culture but from anyone who wants to intervene to spread that given topic online. In this perspective, the world of schools in particular and the world of education in general are launching signs of great concern because free access to the network makes young producers active in personal paths of knowledge (Bolter, Grusin, 2000).

Furthermore, this free access to the web has meant that the young generations, living immersed in these new digital and educational dimensions together, are also able to experience a redefinition of the boundaries between public and private since intimacy today is called to show itself daily on the stage of digital media. The now widespread tendency to publicly exhibit feelings and emotions, has caused a sort of collapse between public and private as the public sphere presents itself as a narrative and emotional space. From this point of view, the neologism publicity (boyd, 2007) indicates this mixture of the public sphere and the private one which, generating a new culture of intimacy, pushes the younger generations to live meaningful relationships in a dimension of intimacy (Tisseron, 2001), or a dimension in which to express the need to publicly show intimate aspects of one's self.
This complex educational situation arises from the fact that this link between the media universe and the world of education risks exposing young people to a possible emotional impoverishment (Galimberti, 2008; Benasayag, M., Schmit G. 2005). The digital natives (Prensky, 2001), for example, have strong multitasking abilities because it is as if they had biotechnological qualities that allow them to use technologies as well as to have a cognitively broader form of reflection than previous generations. All this pushes the school world to deepen the issue of education and communication because, these two cornerstones of education, can no longer be read as problematic phenomena since, what comes forward, is a real epistemological problem, that is, a problem that concerns the ways in which the human mind produces knowledge and knowledge. To launch new challenges to the world of education there is also the fact that we are witnessing a change in the idea of "experience".

Simmel (1905), in an almost prophetic manner, used the expression Erlebnis to refer to a modality of occasional and affectively neutral experience, to which an equally fragmented and indifferent self referred to in blasé as the emblematic manifestation of modernity.

In the wake of the Simmelian thought, we can see the great dependence that young people experience above all from supra-individual apparatuses, a sort of atrophy of sensibility and the inability to perceive the qualitative differences between some form of experience. These are issues that move who deal with education, in the direction of a constant search for new educational paradigms capable of being able to speak the language of young people in order to orient them towards a value platform that is common to all.

Today kids experience forms of mediated experience, an experiential form in which three moments are missing: the space-time immediacy, the encounter and the interaction between people. The mediated experience is the child of the advent of the network and is characterized by the lack of physical co-presence of the people who enter into a relationship and by the use of mediated channels that allow a remarkable interactivity (Cesareo, Magatti 2000). Let’s think about the relationship of young people with traditional media, such as the book. Kids, for the most part, read the books on the Tablet, buy them online, read the news headlines quickly on social network pages.

In this sense, the meeting and the relationship between people comes to change with respect to the past, since we go less and less into the bookstore and even if they buy paper books, most young people do that online. Scientific studies on this issue (La Marca 2016; Rivoltella, 2015) have shown that the effects of living an almost structural relationship with technology could lead to pushing this generation to be a strongly individualistic one, with little interest in socializing in life real because they would prefer to experiment more with forms of virtual socialization. The need therefore arises to reflect pedagogically on the criteria used by the educational institution to work with various media in relation to the principles of collaboration, creativity and reflexivity of young people. Prensky (2010; 2013) in his last reflections on the relationship between media and education, has taken into consideration the idea of the need for a "digital wisdom" perceived as the characteristic that can arise thanks to a balanced use of technologies in relation to the educational area. The teacher imbued with digital wisdom, in other words, will be able to distinguish the conditions in which technology can be a valid stimulus to facilitate communication and creativity, thus increasing the cognitive resources of young people. The realization of an innovative teaching, that is able to realize a model of democratic school, also means to bet on a school in which, thanks to those teachers who look at technologies not only as a tool but above all as a means to stimulate the emotional part of young people, value differences can be developed in a specific educational environment (Spadafora, 2018).

A school understood in this way, in order to place itself as that space in which to reflect on teaching as a path capable of carrying out a renewed laboratory of democracy, will have to focus on a teacher who will also have to follow the path of self-reflection in relation to his own way to relate to the pupil who will always have to be considered as "a difference towards which we can empathically decentralize to favor the development of his unexpressed potential" (Spadafora, 2018, p.101). According to Perrenoud (2017), indeed, the teacher who works with a critical sense and passion, will also be able to ask himself about the type of action to be carried out in the classroom because, by avoiding any form of power, he can stimulate those manifestations of empathy that can encourage the growth of young people's potential. This idea of self-reflection of the teacher, wise and training designer, if really considered by those involved in education, can also push each student to a critical use of technology by encouraging both the dimension of inclusion and the capacity to plan one's own life path. In fact, only such a teacher, aware and critical of the formation of the life project of each and everyone in the class, can reestablish a formative pact for the school for a conception of human capital as a possible generator of psychological, emotional and cultural development (Spadafora, 2018, p. 102).
2. The school as a laboratory of democracy. Emotional education and new technologies

The reflection on the importance of affectivity in a person's life certainly has an ancient history. Bloom (1976), for example, emphasized the presence of a strong link between affectivity, motivation and learning since the affects, in his thinking, have always held an important position in the processes of knowledge and socialization that are built in the classroom. Again, Vygotsky, reflecting on the relationship between emotion and learning, wrote that: "The same thought originates not from another thought, but from the sphere of the motivations of our conscience, which contains our passions and our needs, our interests and impulses, our acts and our emotions" (Vygotsky, p. 225). More recently Goleman (1995), starting from a concept already developed in 1990 by Peter Salovey and John D. Mayer (1990) in the article "Emotional Intelligence", spoke of emotional Intelligence to refer to the fundamental role that emotions play in relational sphere. According to the American psychologist, strengthening "emotional intelligence" is a fundamental process for the psychological well-being of the individual as emotions guide the path of life; the "emotional teachings" assimilated during childhood and adolescence, in fact, will guide the emotional responses of the adult person.

One of the most recent and most important studies of the link between emotions and experience, is certainly that of Martha Nussbaum (2000) who in the text *Hupheavals of thought: the intelligence of emotions* has highlighted, with reference to music, anthropology, art and literature, the importance of addressing a critical discourse on the education to emotions as, the latter, are presented as a sort of "lighthouse" that guides the individual in managing his relationships. In this direction the Nussbaum reflects on compassion as that emotion that is able to act as a prerequisite for policies that protect the rights of citizens and for the promotion of human dignity and freedom.

Now, in the light of these observations, a school understood as a laboratory of democracy will also be a school that, educationally betting on an education of emotions, is able to nourish in young people the desire to create opportunities for reflection on the importance of dialogue in the meeting, sharing, opportunities that can allow young people to live an idea of citizenship suited to the complex dynamics of society.

In this extremely problematic situation, the school suffers contradictory thrusts that ask it now to return to guaranteeing the seriousness and quality of the studies ... Furthermore, on the one hand it is claimed that the school restores a rigorous discipline, on the other it is asked to become an agency containment of youth distress. The company, in other words, puts at school conflicting needs that put it in a situation of "double constraint": whatever it does, for some reason it is wrong and is submerged by a shower of criticism ... (It is therefore necessary)\(^1\) to set the affective education in ways complementary to school education and integrated with it (Baldacci, 2009, p. 8).

This is why the teacher, today, will have to work on a different level of technology, on what a wise use of technologies is able to move at the level of communication, collaboration, reflexivity and sharing. The educational and didactic role of the teacher, thus, will be based on the centrality of the student focusing on the motivational side of learning, on the role played by socialization, on aspects that have affective roots. It will therefore be necessary to reflect on the link between the affective needs of the young person and new teaching practices such as, the need to confront each other in order to deal with the deepening of some topics, the need to work on themselves and with oneself, thus seizing the need for regulating the cognitive circuit on one’s own “clock”, the sense of belonging, that is to say, to be part of a learning community, the urgency to personalize, that is, to be able to reflect on what the prospect may be to increase one’s own experience leaving a mark of one’s own action in the educational place (Weyland, 2016). A school activity that, for example, can move in the direction of an educational synergy between the emotional dimension and the didactic practice is that of the Flipped Classroom, that is reversing (to flip) the traditional dimensions of the lesson, the frontal part and the individual study as it the frontal lesson will take place at home and study in the classroom.

To make pupils work at home, the teacher can either take advantage of online resources or create these resources on his own. This strategy makes it possible to create products that meet the specific needs of content, teaching methodology, educational communication of each teacher, but requires the development of technological and above all methodological skills completely different from those of the lesson face to face. For the technological aspect there are a multiplicity of services and free access tools to do screencasting, that is video recording of the PC screen while viewing the contents (Cecchinato, 2014, p. 15). Managing in the classroom the individual study will require, from the teacher, an organization of educational activities centered on learning, “that is, dedicating the time of the classroom to learn rather than to teach” (Ivi,

\(^1\) The parenthesis is of the writer.
This way of teaching can be functional since the younger generations have a structural link with digital technologies which, by now, have changed their way of gaining experience, relating and learning. The Flipped Classroom, could thus present itself as a possibility to bet on a school model able to carry out an educational paradigm that focuses on a teacher "facilitator" of the learning processes and supporter of the expansion of cognitive abilities of young people. Whoever deals with education, then, can really put into practice that sense of education that can motivate young people to share and collaborate. Students would thus find themselves working together with the teacher on the ability to achieve both emotional attitudes such as the understanding of their own inner time and that of others, and emotional ones, that is the realization of certain personal characteristics as critical understanding towards the potentiality of one's own affective dimension (Baldacci, 2009). Today, A democratic school that looks forward to the future is a school that, focusing on the affective dimension implemented by a balanced use of technologies, can bet on the community and intersubjective dimension of the person, idea the latter, supported also by economic and sociological reflections that affirm that communication, collaboration and sharing represent salvation anchors for the human being. In this direction, Klein (2007) states that: «the best way to recover from impotence is to help: have the right to be part of a collective recovery». (p.533). A school laboratory of democracy, then, will be a school able to recognize, as generators of democracy, also understanding, compassion, empathy, respect for the other (Dato, 2015) since, such school, must be able to develop in young people both the rational and the emotional dimension so that they can travel the paths of human and cultural formation together and become: supportive and responsible citizens; open to other cultures and ready to express feelings, emotions and expectations in respect of themselves and others; capable of managing conflicts and uncertainties and making choices and making autonomous decisions by acting responsibly (MIUR, 2009, consulted 05/05/2019).

**Bibliography**


...
Specific Articulation Disorders in Children Native Speakers of Bulgarian – Distribution, Characteristics, Demographic Patterns

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Abstract
The article presents a study of the articulation behaviour in 610 Bulgarian children aged 4 years and 5 months up to 7 years and 6 months. In 503 children (82%), incorrect articulation of consonant sounds from early, middle and late ontogenesis is established. The highest percentage of non-normative production is registered with sounds of early ontogenesis [l] 79% and [r] 43%. The percentage distribution of impaired articulation of ontogenetically middle fricatives is 27% for the group of [ʃ], [ʒ], [tʃ] and 20% for the group of [s], [z], [ts] respectively. Incorrect articulation of the ontogenetically early sounds [k, g] is recorded in 1% of the subjects surveyed for the [k] sound and 4% for the [g] sound. What is observed is the presence of age dynamics of impaired articulation where the number of children without disorders tends to increase with age. Another factor of influence on the distribution of the articulation disorders to be noted is the demographic one, i.e. the place of residence. The results obtained show a significant difference in the number of registered articulation disorders in children living in the capital of Bulgaria (Sofia) and living in other places. The established differences are related to the lack of a comprehensive state policy (health and education) for the organization of prevention, diagnosis and therapy of communicative disorders.

Keywords: speech sound disorders, specific articulation disorders, speech pathology

Introduction
A specific speech articulation disorder is a specific developmental disorder in which the child's use of speech sounds is below the appropriate level for its mental age, but in which there is a normal level of language skills (ICD-10, 2015). Bowen (1998) talks about “functional speech disorder”, which is manifested in the incorrect articulation of one or more than one speech sounds. Articulation disorders are difficulties with the way sounds are formed and strung together, usually characterized by substituting one sound for another, omitting a sound, or distorting a sound (Cuffaro, 2011). Articulation disorders affect a serious percentage of the population of children of preschool and school age. According to DSM-IV (2000) articulation disorders considerably hinder educational and professional achievements as well as social communication.

A fuller outline of the distribution and assessment of childhood articulation disorders is important for parents, specialists and health and education policy. They are related to the optimization of the assessment, interventions and the services offered for these children (P. Enberby, C. Pickstone, 2005). According to McKinnon, McLeod and Reilly (2007), the data in specialized literature on the percentage distribution of speech disorders in different language populations is controversial due to the application of different assessment methods and the different age of the surveyed children. According to Karbasi et al. (2011), what causes additional misunderstandings is the different terminology, definitions and interpretation in the designation of impaired articulation. This makes the comparative analysis of the epidemiological studies in the field extremely difficult. A survey of Keating et al. (2001) based on parent and teacher questionnaires shows that when examining 12,000 Australian children under the age of 14, 1.7% turned out to have speech disorders. According to the same authors, children with speech disorders are more likely to have additional health problems. A study of Zhao et al. (2009) observes a high degree of comorbidity and a number of behavioural problems in children with articulation disorders. The authors studied 112 Chinese children with articulation disorders between the age of 4 and 11. In 61.6%, comorbidity with another disorder was reported, i.e. language disorders, stuttering, tic disorders. At school-age Attention-Deficit Hyperactivity
Disorder (ADHD) is with the highest comorbidity (47.5%). Beitchman et al. (1986) report that the prevalence of communicative disorders in Canada at age 5 is 6.4%. Karbasi, Fallah and Golestan (2011) examined 7881 Iranian preschool children and found that 14% of them had speech disorders (articulation, voice, stuttering). Of the total population of children with disorders (1166 children), the percentage of specific articulation disorders is the highest - 88.6% (1033 children). A general trend in the data from the various studies is the widespread prevalence of speech disorders in childhood, with a tendency to decrease with age. The National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS, as cited in Leske, 1981) reports that the distribution of articulation disorders covers about 1% of the population of all ages. For children aged 6 to 11 the percentage distribution is 8.4% compared to 4.2% among children aged 12 to 17. According to Shriberg et al. (1994) this is due to the practice-based evidence that impaired articulation could be overcome with age, or "outgrown" over time. Hereby the authors promote the theory of "long-term speech-sound normalization".

There isn't a national epidemiological study of specific articulation disorders for Bulgaria. Terminological diversity, conceptual contradictions and the lack of standardized assessment methods significantly complicate its implementation. These problems hinder the making of important decisions in the planning of policies and practices to address articulation disorders – screening, diagnosis and differential diagnosis, prevention, treatment.

Method

For the purpose of the study an original methodology for the study of articulation in pre-school and primary school age has been developed. The stimuli include linguistic material containing phonemes with high frequency in articulation disorders in children native speakers of Bulgarian. These are sounds of early ontogenesis \( [k], [g] \); sounds of middle ontogenesis \( [s], [z], [ʃ], [ʒ], [tʃ] \) and late ontogenesis sounds \( [l], [r] \). Research samples include stimulus material (109 linguistic items), which explores the articulation of these sounds and is grouped into four categories:

- Articulation of isolated phonemes. The stimuli include isolated articulation of the 10 studied speech sounds.
- Prompted articulation of words containing the studied speech sounds through visual stimulus in the form of object images. The research samples include 30 graphic images of nouns. The images are taken from *A Picture Test for morphological performance of plural forms of nouns* (E. Todorova, Part II., 2005: 8-67). The stimuli are selected so that each word contains the researched sound and doesn't contain any other sound of the same phonemic class.
- Articulation in words with different position of the studied sound - beginning, middle, end. 39 stimuli are included, which examine the degree of influence (presence or absence) of the phoneme position distribution on the type of impaired articulation.
- Articulation of words demonstrating combinatory rules of sounds. The stimuli include 30 words in which the studied sounds are in a syllable, characterized by a consonant cluster of the type - CCV, CCCV, CCVC or demonstrate a consonant cluster at a syllable boundary. The items follow the phonological rules for combining sounds in Bulgarian.

The linguistic items thus constructed allow for an assessment of persistent errors in impaired articulation and allow control of the influence of the formal language structure (influence of the phonological rules).

Participants

In the epidemiological study 610 children aged between 4, 5 to 7, 6 years old took part. Their selection was based on the principle of a controlled sample, where the cases of established development problems were excluded. This is grounded in the accepted theoretical concept of defining the specific articulation disorders - incorrect production of one or more speech sounds (omissions, substitutions, distortions), which is not due to reduced hearing, mental retardation, linguistic violation, structural damage to the articulation apparatus, neurological disorders or adverse environmental influence.

The respondents are divided into four age groups: from 4, 5 to 5 years old, 20 children, 3.3%; from 5 to 6 years old, 183 children, 30%; from 6 to 7 years old, 246 children, 40.3%; from 7 to 7, 6 years old, 161 children, 26.4%. Of these, 283 are girls (46.39%) and 327 are boys (53.61%). The sample includes 530 children (86.9%) from a large place of residence (city) and 80 children (13.1%) from a small place of residence (village). The surveyed children from the capital are 352 (57.8%), from other places of residence 258 (42.2%).
Results

Percentage distribution

Of the 610 children aged 4, 5 to 7, 6, 503 children (82%) demonstrate some type of articulation disorder. Of these, 303 children (60%) have a monomorphic type of disorder, due to the incorrect articulation of late ontogenesis [l] and [r]. In 200 of the respondents (40%) a polymorphic type of disorder has been identified which affects several phonemic groups, predominantly of middle and late ontogenesis ([s], [z], [ts], [ʃ], [t], [l], [r]) and less frequently of early ontogenesis ([k], [g]). The highest percentage of non-normative production is registered with [l] 79% and [r] 43%. The percentage distribution of impaired articulation of ontogenetically middle fricatives is - 27% for the group of [ʃ], [ʒ], [tʃ] and 20% for the group of [s], [z], [ts]. The results obtained correlate with the sound ontogenesis of the Bulgarian language. Due to the peculiarity of their articulation characteristics, the sounds [ʃ], [ʒ], [tʃ] are defined as sounds with a more complex articulation focus compared to the articulation of the sounds [s], [z], [ts]. Incorrect articulation of the ontogenetically early sounds [k], [g] is registered in only 1% of the tested respondents for the sound [k] and 4% for the sound [g].

The analysis of the percentage distribution of incorrect articulation in the individual subtests shows persistence in the production errors of middle ontogenesis [s], [z], [ts], [ʃ], [ʒ], [tʃ] and late ontogenesis [l], [r]. The articulation of early ontogenesis sounds [k], [g] reveal a difference in the articulation behaviour in the different subtests presented in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phonemas</th>
<th>Subtest 1</th>
<th>Subtest 2</th>
<th>Subtest 3</th>
<th>Subtest 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>subject</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>subject</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[k]</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.1475</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.1475</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results from ANOVA show a significant difference in performance in the different tests regarding the articulation of [k], at a value of p = 0.00052, the significance being determined by the results obtained from Subtest 4 presented in Graph 1.

Influence of the age factor

For the verification of the age factor and its influence on the type of articulation behaviour, the respondents are divided into three age groups based on months, respectively - from 53 to 60 months, from 60 to 72 months, from 72 to 84 months. The influence of the age factor in the different age groups is addressed according to three categories: children without disorders; children with a monomorphic type of articulation disorder; children with a polymorphic type of articulation disorder. Using a one-dimensional logistic model, the results categorically distinguish between two types of disorder (monomorphic and polymorphic) according to age at p = 0.000 and children with and without age-related disorders at p = 0.006. The results obtained define three important trends: (1) with age, the number of children without disorders increases; (2) with age, polymorphic disorders decrease; (3) the number of children with a monomorphic type of disorder remains constant among the studied age population.

Influence of the place of residence factor
What was used for the verification of the sociolinguistic factor - place of residence (according to the size of the place) and its influence on the articulation was ANOVA. The results show a statistically significant difference in the number of registered articulation disorders between large and small places of residence, with a value of \( p \leq 0.1 \) for all phonemes examined, except for the \([l]\) sound Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Articulation disorder</th>
<th>Large place of residence</th>
<th>Small place of residence</th>
<th>Result (phonemes)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(respondents)</td>
<td>(respondents)</td>
<td>( (P) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>([k])</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.0757*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>([g])</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0.0399*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>([s])</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>0.0025*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>([z])</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>0.0018*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>([ts])</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>0.0016*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>([l])</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>0.0003*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>([s])</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>0.0003*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>([t])</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>0.0000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>([l])</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>325</td>
<td>0.7445</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>([r])</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>0.0000*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\* \( p \leq 0.1 \)

The obtained results present a significant difference in the number of registered articulation disorders in children living in the capital of Bulgaria (Sofia) and the ones living in other places of residence. The results obtained with ANOVA show a significant difference at \( p \leq 0.1 \) for the sounds \([k], [g], [l], [r]\) presented in Table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Articulation disorder</th>
<th>Another place of residence</th>
<th>Sofia city</th>
<th>Result (phonemes)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(respondents)</td>
<td>(respondents)</td>
<td>( (P) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>([k])</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.0174*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>([g])</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.0014*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>([l])</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>0.0000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>([r])</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>0.0012*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regardless of the differences in the number of children with impaired articulation of the sounds \([s], [z], [ts], [l], [r]\) among the surveyed respondents from Sofia and other places of residence, these differences have no significant value.

Discussion

The percentage distribution of articulation disorders demonstrates the influence of two factors, i.e. sound ontogenesis and motoric complexity. The highest percentage of impaired articulation is to be found in late ontogenesis sounds \([l], [r]\). The lowest rate of distribution is identified in sounds of early ontogenesis \([k], [g]\). In case of impaired articulation of the early \([k]\) and \([g]\), there is variability in the errors as a result of the phonological context. Therefore, in case of impaired articulation of sounds from early ontogenesis, the manifestation is a symptom of linguistic rather than speech pathology.

The obtained result regarding the age dynamics of impaired articulation is expected and shows the reliability of both the data obtained and the evaluation methodology used. The population sample reflects stages in the development of the motor skills for articulation and their respective ontogenetic sequence, both in norm and in pathology (in the case of a disorder). With age, children with disorders improve their speaking skills and, subsequently, non-normative articulation decreases.

The decrease in number of children with disorders corresponds to the decrease in number of children with polymorphic articulatory dysfunction. The polymorphic type of disorder is characterized by incorrect sound production from two or more phonemic groups. In the population sample, these are children with predominantly wrong articulation of the group including the sounds \([s], [z], [ts], [l], [r]\) as well as \([l], [r]\). Significantly less often this type of disorder is also demonstrated with an incorrect sound production of the sounds \([k], [g]\). The decrease in number of children with a polymorphic disorder in the sample is at the expense of the acquisition of normative articulation of early and medium ontogenesis sounds. The number of children with a monomorphic type of disorder remains constant. The monomorphic type of disorder is characterized by incorrect articulation of sounds from the same phonemic class. In the sample, these are children with incorrect articulation.
of the sounds [l] and [r]. In other words, children with a monomorphic disorder demonstrate incorrect articulation of ontogenetically late sounds.

The results obtained for the age dynamics of articulation behaviour in pre-school age also have a significant diagnostic aspect. Knowing the child's age: from 53 to 60 months / from 60 to 72 months / from 72 to 84 months, we can predict the exact probability in which group he/she would fall: (1) children without disorders; (2) children with a monomorphic type of disorder; (3) children with a polymorphic type of disorder. This would ease the diagnostic procedures applied. At the age between 4, 6 to 6, the probability of impaired articulation being of a polymorphic nature is significantly greater than after 6 years of age. In children aged 6 years and over, it is more likely to expect a monomorphic type of dysfunction, mainly with sounds of late ontogenesis [l] and [r]. The probability of children aged between 6 and 7 demonstrating an articulation disorder is significantly lower than the probability of predicting articulation dysfunction in the remaining age categories.

The significant differences in the articulation behaviour of children based on the place of residence factor raise a number of alarming questions about the influence of various factors on the mechanisms of prevention, diagnosis and therapy of communicative disorders. The offered specialized services for these children are concentrated in the capital, while in the other places of residence they are insufficient or completely absent. At present, providers of childcare services for children with articulation disorders in Bulgaria are limited to the existence of: State Speech Therapy Centres - two for the whole country (Sofia, Varna); NGOs; private specialists; academic groups in universities. Practically, the only support in kindergartens and schools is limited to the appointment of a speech therapist from a state speech therapy centre who is usually responsible for several institutions. Private centres and offices have been opened in the cities of Sofia, Plovdiv, Varna and Burgas. In the remaining places of residence there are no specialists or organized speech therapy services.

**Conclusion**

The presented study was focused on speech behaviour in pre-school and primary school age and in particular on the distribution of articulation disorders. The results obtained show a widespread distribution of specific articulation disorders in children native speakers of Bulgarian, where the registered data show a prevalence of 82% in the studied population. The established high rate of impaired articulation is due to the use of a method of assessment carried out by experts on the basis of a face-to-face interaction with the surveyed subjects rather than through collecting data from parental and / or teacher questionnaires. The obtained results are relevant to the sound ontogenesis within a statistical norm. The sounds of early ontogenesis [k, g] are with the lowest rate of distribution followed by the sounds of middle ontogenesis, where a higher rate of distribution is observed of [f], [s], [z] compared to the results of [s], [z]. The highest percentage of distribution is among the ontogenetically late [l] and [r]. With age, the number of children without disorders increases, so the number of articulation disorders also decreases. Children with disorders improve their speaking skills during the process of growing up. The articulation behaviour is influenced by sociolinguistic factors such as the place of residence, where the size and type of the place is important. The established differences are related to the lack of a comprehensive state policy (health and education) for organizing the prevention, diagnosis and therapy of communicative disorders.

**References**


Globalization of Health: Positive or Negative? (Anthropological Perspective)

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Abstract

This article examines the consequences of globalization on the health sector, how people see these conditions and how globalization is rejected or perhaps easily accepted as an effort in improving life. The majority of the world's population in poor and developing countries do not have access to essential health services, let alone medicines. As a product of globalization, in the health sector, the conditions with humanitarian aspects as one of the indicators of the quality of human resources have been distorted and become a tempting element of economic commodities. In the era of globalization, international relations are getting closer. This problem is often known as global conditions. Global relations certainly have an impact on social life. These impacts bring changes in people's behavior in various aspects of life. In the economic, political, social, cultural and security fields, this global impact not only affects large urban communities but also occurs in the rural communities. Along with this, the explanation in this article will be presented from an anthropological perspective.

Keywords: Globalization, Health Services, Developing Countries, Anthropological Perspective

Introduction

Almost all aspects of our lives at the present time have impacts of globalization which not only occurs in the realm of culture, media and economics, but also in health services which is one of the economic commodities that cannot be separated from the influence of inter-state trade and globalization. In general, globalization is defined as the condition of changes in various aspects of human life that occur rapidly and globally, because it is triggered and accelerated by the openness of information and the development of science and technology. Discussing health, this is one of the important aspects that must be owned by a person to carry out daily life, with many socializations about a healthy lifestyle, many models of medical services, the person should be no reason for someone not to live healthily. With a healthy physical, psychological and social condition, a person can adapt well in his environment, both the natural environment and social environment.

We can see that globalization is closely related to the mode of trade in goods and services that occur in the health sector. The first type is a trade in health service goods carried out between countries. For example, medical equipment and supplies are produced in one country and then exported to other countries. Diagnostic equipment such as breathing machines and aids, and various other materials are produced by large manufacturers in developed countries such as Germany, America and China that produce medical devices, and also India which manufactures surgical instruments. This inter-country trade is not limited to medical devices, but also drugs and medical supplies are also widely traded between countries. And of course, the destination country is the developing countries.

Indeed, all hope that globalization must be made a new public health agenda that can have a vast impact on the community itself. The effect of globalization is expected to influence the use of health technology, service systems, new diseases, and other social conditions. In other words, inevitably, the impact of globalization must be one of the priority areas in the field of health in various corners of the world. Health is capital for the development and fostering of human resources and as a capital for the implementation of national development which is essentially human development which will also affect the various joints of life. Globalization is rampant campaigned in various lines not only as a challenge or a threat also penetrate the health area which is one element of general welfare. Therefore, the need for readiness, especially in the field of public health to face the challenges of globalization so that people in the target of globalization are not left behind the influence of globalization. This will provide some benefits and disadvantages for a country. The advantage of this global trade is that it...
is easier to access all goods or services from and out of the state, but the adverse effects will be felt when people forget the production of their domestic products because they trust the quality of foreign products better than the work of the country own. Adverse impacts will also threaten the health world because of the easier viruses and diseases of a state that easily enter other countries.

As I have explained above, in addition to globalization, it presents positive impacts such as living easily, comfortably, cheaply but it also brings negative effects that cause anxiety and misdirection in the health sector. This has an impact on the life habits of someone who does not do much physical activity (lack of movement). Basically, the lifestyle is determined by each person and lifestyle is a secondary human need that can change depending on the time or desire of someone who changes it. The negative impact of this lifestyle is that it is possible to have a heart attack, stroke, diabetes, hypertension, and other diseases.

**Globalization and Health (Definition)**

Following the understanding of Foster and Anderson (1978) detailing a medical system in two parts namely the theory of disease system and health care system. The systems of disease theory include beliefs about healthy characteristics, causes of illness, and other treatments and healing techniques used by doctors, disease theory systems regarding causality, explanations given by the population regarding the loss of health, and explanations of taboo violation, regarding loss of soul, about disturbance in the balance of elements of cold in the body or failure of the immune system against viruses. Thus, a system of disease theory is a system of conceptual ideas, an intellectual construct, and part of the cognitive orientation of members of the group. The disease theory system tells us how a group understands illness, there is a group of people who believe when someone is sick because the person has violated the taboo, for example cutting down a big tree in the forest that causes the tree dwellers to get angry and disturb the person, so that the person becomes ill.

Community groups that still believe in the existence of spirits that cause a person to be sick provide a conservative impact on the environment, wherein the end a group member does not arbitrarily cut down forest trees. With the theory of disease system then the health care system is carried out. The health care system pays attention to how various societies care for sick people and to utilize knowledge about diseases to help patients. A health care system reflects the disease-causing system, with this, can determine the decisions taken and actions taken in handling patients. With the theory of disease can help people to assess their health care when a person is affected by a disorder of spirits they can decide on the health care system by performing healing ceremonies and giving offerings to spirits. However, for modern society when their thoughts about the disease are said to be more realistic, they will also seek health services according to their understanding.

However, what I see is that efforts to change the health system from traditional to modern that are part of the effects of globalization are very influential on medical and healthcare, where this happens affects not only modern society but also traditional communities because globalization is a comprehensive nature that connects between countries whose scope is all over the world. This is supported by a statement from Scholte (2008) defining globalization as an increase in international relations. In this case, each country retains its own identity but becomes increasingly dependent on each other. Besides that held, at all (1999) also argues that the process by which various events, decisions, and activities in one part of the world can have significant consequences for various individuals and communities in other parts of the world.

**Globalization in the Health System (Traditional and Modern Healing)**

Culture in a society will always be dynamic because the system of ideas, knowledge, and beliefs and values in a community can change according to the needs of the challenges of the times. In conjunction with health problems, the system of ideas and culture that they have will affect different behaviors in maintaining health and have different ways of responding to illness and disease. Culture is not the only factor that influences the health behavior of an individual or society. Other factors influence such as gender, education, experience, and social and economic conditions.

According to Fred Dunn (in Riley 1977) geographically and culturally, the medical system can be classified into three combinations, (1) the local medical system, a category that can classify most of the "primitive" or "folk medicine" medical systems; (2) regional medical systems, such as the Ayurveda, Greek and Chinese medical systems; (3) and cosmopolitan medical systems (universal, modern, scientific medical systems). The development of technology in the health sector also influences the degree of public health. The degree of public health is increasingly controlled, prevented and even overcome. As in many places, there are many diseases, and often people do not know what diseases they are experiencing. With the development of sophisticated technology, diseases that were initially unknown to drugs and their healing methods have
now been easily detected, and various treatments have been found for recovery. Like cancer, we all know that until now the disease does not have a drug that can detect until a perfect cure is achieved for the sufferers, there have been many treatments to cure it. Although it does not get a perfect cure, it is beneficial to increase life expectancy for the community so that the health status of the community also increases.

In addition to the sophistication of the use of medical records and prescriptions of modern medicine, as well as ways to detect cancer that has a good influence on public health degrees, other technological developments that are currently using smartphones. By using a variety of applications on the smartphone we can find out that our body weight is ideal or not, regulating diet and foods that are good for consumption, and from various kinds of data, this application will provide supervision and reminder to us to always apply style healthy living. Besides, several technology companies have developed applications that can perform simple diagnoses of complaints or physical characteristics entered by smartphone users or detected by smartphones. This is the impact of technological developments that have a good influence on improving public health. Modern medicine is growing with the discovery of increasingly sophisticated tools and technologies. Also, technological developments can open up many new jobs, so that human resources can play a role, both energy and mind. Technological developments have a positive impact, namely the fulfillment of human needs for material prosperity, ease and humanity can utilize natural resources more effectively and efficiently. Humans can change the system of transformation and communication to create convenience. For this effort, human energy and mind are needed, or in other words, a new field will be created.

On the other hand, in the traditional society, the use of conventional medicine is still an alternative used for healing where ingredients or ingredients in the form of plant materials, animal ingredients, mineral materials or mixtures of these materials have been used for treatment based on experience. So in essence that health is considered as a state of balance between the body, soul, and society that allows everyone to live productively socially and economically. Therefore, health is something that is very important for every human being in this world. With a healthy body, everyone can do things that are useful for themselves and others.

**Public Health in the Era of Globalization**

Health, which is an essential factor in the development of a nation, is a serious concern from the government and society. From year to year various programs and policies to improve the level of health and welfare to improve the competitiveness of the nation at the world level continue to be carried out by the government to catch up with the world community in general. It cannot be denied that technological advances have a lot of influence on the health sector. The impact can be either positive or negative. With technological advancements that are increasingly rapidly bringing significant changes in society. In the health sector, technological advances can make it easier for humans to change in changing the transformation and communication systems. The use of medical records has the potential to provide enormous benefits for health services such as basic service facilities and hospital referrals. Besides, the benefits of using medical records are also beneficial for patients because they can improve effectiveness and efficiency in the health care process. In addition, it makes it easier for health workers to provide health services and assist in clinical decision making such as diagnosis enforcement, therapy, avoiding allergic reactions and drug duplication.

Besides having a positive impact, technological advances in the health sector also have a negative impact. The use of electronic medical records with a negative impact also affects the provision of health services provided. Existing facilities can lead to a lack of and decreased work effectiveness of health workers. In the past, health workers did everything manually and now has been replaced by technological sophistication. While the negative impact of using electronic prescription drugs is if the doctor gives more than one type of medicine. When a patient consumes some drugs simultaneously, there will be an interaction between one drug and another and certainly, aim to cure. However, there is a possibility that it is detrimental and causes side effects.

What I see in the development of the medical system today as a result of globalization that at the present time, the world of health has begun to abandon humanitarian and social aspects, tends to pursue profits and is increasingly difficult to reach by small people where hospitals as providers and servants of health services become goods expensive and unreachable so as to exacerbate the inequality that occurs in the community that results in other aspects of life such as social, economic, cultural and others.
Example Case Study: Is the Kidney Trade Case in India as a Consequence of Globalization?

A case study conducted by Cohen (1989) on kidney trade, can be said that the case was caused by globalization. In the writings of his research, it has been explained that Cohen focuses on ethical issues surrounding the selling and buying of human organs where most people who sell their organs (mainly kidneys) in India do so to pay already existing debts. The transaction is only temporarily an exchange of "life for life," and most "donors" are back in debt soon after the operation. He emphasizes the lack of factual information, intentional manipulation of information, and the dissemination of kidney panics and kidney scandals, especially by the new developing authorities and bioethical brokers. Dissemination of information as part of the globalization process also has an impact on the information available in India which then spreads easily throughout the world, of course, the target is the people who need the kidneys. At that time information was to international networks of nephrologists that viable kidney transplantation was available in India, using kidneys from unrelated local sellers. This can be seen that the kidney buyers came from Europe, the Middle East, Japan, North America, Southeast Asia, and Australasia to benefit from the ‘kidney bazaar’ (market) in India. Interviews with Nephrologists and Surgeons from Chennai and Bangalore revealed four trans-national circuits of business collaboration and patient referral, linking India to the UK, North America, Russia and the Indian Ocean circuit (Middle East Asia, South East Asia and North Africa). Health tourism or medical travel refers to cross-border health care motivated by lower cost, avoidance of long wait times, or services not available in one’s own country. Such care is increasingly linked with tourist activities to ease foreign patients into a new cultural environment and to occupy them during the pre- and post-operative periods.

This can also be seen from what Inhorn (2011) has discovered about reproductive tourism in the Middle East countries. Globalization flows carry the role of reproductive tourism about assisted reproductive technologies (ARTs) and human gametes (eggs, sperm, embryos) across national and international borders. Needs to have strictness are carried out in various ways even though perhaps not all groups in Islam accept the process, but because of modernization and the desire to have children, coupled with ease of access to other countries such as to Islamic countries that allow these practices, make reproductive tourism attractive to Muslims themselves (Hopkins, at all: 2010).

Accept or Reject?

It cannot be denied that to get health services, hospitals as the part of health system have become an impact of world globalization because globalization has also occurred in the world of health. Hospitals that should prioritize humanitarian and social aspects have begun to adopt capital-based and oriented economic factors towards neoliberalism. The hospital has become one of the prospective sectors which turn out to be very tempting because it can bring huge profits to its managers. Hospitals have become part of economic commodities that lead to the exploitation of public health rights. In its management, the hospital began to take into account the profit and loss which is the nature of the business.

Communities that are still alienated will get to know more modern civilizations through information flows that are increasingly open, more advanced and more promising in improving the patterns of life they have lived. By imitating the lifestyle of modern society, it will accelerate socio-cultural change among the people who are still isolated. On the other hand, to reject globalization is also the right for everyone where the adherents are interpreted as a movement that will alienate itself from the world while accepting it without any resistance is not allowed, because every country or nation has traditions and culture differences.

Globalization in the sector of health is not necessarily to be accepted or rejected because as I have explained that globalization has positive or negative impacts. For some people consider that a country with another country is interdependent and can be mutually beneficial to one another, and its form is dependence in the economic field. On the socio-cultural side, the globalization group considers, globalization will accelerate the socio-cultural changes that exist in a society.

By Way of Conclusion

In the past, if people were sick, they would rather go to traditional healers than to doctors because cultural elements influenced the way of thinking or thinking of society. If some communities have different cultures, then their perspective is also different for health and disease. Technological sophistication makes many people abandon alternative treatment methods for their disease so that many health consumers mobility of patients who have to go abroad to seek treatment to get care through technological sophistication is also used by many people to open companies like industry regardless of environmental health which will adversely affect human health. In its development, there has been competition among
health service providers where competing abilities are needed to compete, which covers various aspects of the world of health such as systems, health policies including regulations and legislation, health education, and what is far more important is the development of human resources.

Along with the development of technology and information as if it has created a new standard that must be fulfilled. It cannot be denied that technological advances have a lot of influence on the health sector. The coming of the era of globalization cannot and does not need to be prevented, what is more important is how to respond to positive impacts and prevent their negative impacts. Efforts to increase individual competence and competitiveness, especially for developing countries, are the main choices so that health services remain strong. Health problems become very important because in addition to influencing individuals it can also lead to a global pandemic. The thing that is currently disrupting the realization of health for all is the existence of health neo-liberalization efforts with commodification and liberalization of health products. This health neo-liberalization creates a gap in access to and quality of health services.

References


Workplace Bullying and Psychological Distress in Public Institutions in Ghana

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Abstract

Sex differences and psychological distress associated with workplace bullying were investigated in a total of 1,273 employees in three public institutions in Ghana. The effect of level of occupation (junior vs. senior) was also explored. Victimisation from bullying was measured with an abbreviated version of the Work Harassment Scale (WHS-7), and mental health associations with workplace bullying were assessed with an indicator of psychological distress (General Health Questionnaire, GHQ-12). 19.1% of the respondents had been bullied “often” or “very often”. There were no sex differences in frequency of victimisation from bullying. Occupational status was significantly associated with bullying: junior staff members reported higher levels of victimisation from bullying and higher levels of psychological distress than senior staff members. Workplace bullying appears to be common in public institutions in Ghana, and has significant negative outcomes for individuals, especially junior staff members. The findings have implications for policy-makers, employers, and employees.

Keywords: workplace bullying, sex differences, public institutions, Ghana

Introduction

In the past two decades, workplace aggression has attracted a great deal of public attention (Barling, Dupre, & Kelloway, 2009) due to its far-reaching consequences for employees’ wellbeing (Bowless, 2012; Francis, 2013). Exposure to workplace bullying from different sources (supervisors, co-workers, and outsiders) has been found to be associated with increased intent to turnover, emotional exhaustion, depression, interpersonal and organisational deviance, decreased job satisfaction, decreased affective commitment, and psychological and physical well-being (Carter, Thompson, Crampton, Morrow, Burford, Gray, & Illing, 2013; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010b).

Although the phenomenon has most commonly been referred to as workplace bullying, other terms with a similar connotation have been used: e.g. intimidation, harassment, victimisation, aggression, emotional abuse, psychological harassment, and mistreatment at the workplace (Ariza-Montes, Muniz, Montero-Simo, & Araque-Padilla, 2013).

Although there is a lack of agreement on a single definition of workplace bullying (Spector, 2011), most researchers agree upon that workplace bullying encompasses a range of aggressive behaviours that occur between individuals, and are repeated systematically and over a period of time at the workplace (Ireland, Archer, & Power, 2007; Vartia-Väähänen, 2013). Bullying differs from usual conflicts in the sense that there usually is a power imbalance between bully and victim, and the behaviour is persistent and, if unchecked, tends to escalate until the victim is forced out of the work force. In research, however, it is often difficult to ascertain whether aggressive behaviour at the workplace is bullying or “regular” aggression.

Most definitions have focused on the essential characteristics of the phenomenon (Branch, Ramsay, & Baker, 2013; Nielsen, Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2008). Research typically focuses on the perceptions and experiences of the victim, and
operationalisations of the concept may differ with regard to duration, frequency, intent to harm, and behaviour included to understand workplace bullying (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2011).

As indicated above, workplace bullying can take many forms, and is sometimes difficult to perceive. Forms of workplace bullying may be direct, indirect, verbal or nonverbal, and they involve “overt acts” – such as threats or actual aggression, demands for resignation, and verbal assault, or “subtle acts” such as teasing, gossip or banter (Frances-Louise, 2015). In the context of the workplace, indirect aggression may be the preferred type of aggression since it is, in cost-benefit terms, a cheaper form of aggression than direct forms (Björkqvist, 1994; Björkqvist, Österman, & Kaukiainen, 1992). However, a bullying senior staff member might like his presence to be felt by victims, e.g. by overloading them with tasks, or by refusing to give them meaningful assignments, just to show his power.

Explanations for workplace bullying are classified into three categories: (1) enabling structures (e.g. perceived power imbalances, low perceived costs, and dissatisfaction and frustration), (2) motivating structures or incentives (e.g. internal competition, reward systems, and expected benefits), and (3) precipitating processes or triggering circumstances (e.g. downsizing and restructuring, organizational changes, changes in the composition of the work group) (Salin, 2003). Oftentimes, there is an interaction of these factors.

**Prevalences of Workplace Bullying Worldwide**

Workplace bullying is undoubtedly common (Branch et al., 2013). Depending on how questions are put and which definition of bullying is provided (Carter, Thompson, Crampton, Morrow, Burford, Gray, & Illing, 2013), discrepancies with regards to the prevalence of the phenomenon have been reported; e.g., in Northern Europe, 4% to 5% of employees are estimated to have experienced workplace bullying (Nielsen, Skogstad, Matthiesen, Glaso, Aasland, Notelaers, Einarsen, 2009). This is in stark contrast to Southern Europe, where approximately 15% of employees report having been bullied (Nielsen, Hetland, Matthiesen, Einarsen, 2012). In South Africa, as many as 31% report experiences of workplace bullying (Cunniff & Mostert, 2012).

Prevalence rates vary considerably across studies (Carter et al., 2013) and the culture in which the study is conducted; e.g., the majority of studies within Europe show that between 10% and 15% of the workforce are exposed to workplace bullying (Zapf & Einarsen, 2011), and North American studies report similar prevalence rates (Keashly & Jagatic, 2011). Venetoklis and Kettunen (2015) reported that 20.3% of public sector employees working in 12 Finnish ministries experienced work-related bullying multiple times per month, whereas 11.3% reported experiencing personal-level bullying. A review of 88 prevalence studies across 20 European countries found a huge variation, reporting prevalences between 0.3% to 86.5%, depending on the question and definition used (Zapf, Escartín, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia, 2010).

A South African study of bullying in the mining industry found that 27% of employees were bullied over the previous 6 months, and 39.6% reported a negative act over the previous week (South African Board for People Practices, 2018).

**Cultural Differences in Workplace Bullying**

The prevalence of workplace bullying varies not only according to employees’ perceptions (Ireland, 2006), but also according to their national culture (Moayed, Daraiseh, Shell, & Salem, 2006). A 2011 survey of workers worldwide including 16,517 respondents found that overall 35% had experienced some form workplace violence.

Cultural characteristics and social change can partly explain these variations in the prevalence rates, e.g., countries such as those in Southern Europe (e.g., Spain), characterised by a higher power distance and more uncertainty avoidance, show a high rate of bullying (Moreno-Jimenez, Rodriguez-Munoz, Salin, & Benadero, 2008), whereas countries in Northern Europe, which are characterised by negative attitudes towards signs of abuse of power, low power distance, feminine values, and individualism, are more likely to have a lower threshold for reporting inappropriate behaviours (Einarsen, 2000). Nations that rank high in power distance and low in uncertainty avoidance will be more inclined to bullying. If so, workplace bullying would be expected to be more common in African and some Asian societies in comparison with European countries. For instance Malaysia ranks high in power distance and low in uncertainty avoidance, and the country reports high levels of workplace bullying at the corporate level (Kwan, Tuckey, & Dollard, 2014). Accordingly, to understand workplace bullying, it is necessary to also take into account the cultural context in which it occurs.
Bullying occurs in most organisations and industries and at all levels, e.g. as managers against subordinates (downwards bullying), and among colleagues (horizontal bullying).

The majority of perpetrators of bullying have been found to be managers, where males formed 62% of bullies (Cobb, 2012). In a survey conducted by Namie (2017), 61% of perpetrators had a higher rank than their targets; 33% of perpetrators were peers with the same rank as their targets, and 6% of perpetrators were subordinates who bullied targets with a higher rank than themselves. In 7% of cases, the bullying was generated by a combination of perpetrators operating at different levels of the organization – bosses, peers, and subordinates.

In Finland and Sweden, perpetrators of workplace bullying are more often colleagues than individuals higher in rank, whereas superiors and colleagues at the same level in the organisation bullied their targets in approximately equal numbers in Norway (Vartia-Väänänen, 2013). However, British studies constantly find superiors and line-managers to be the main perpetrators; 52% of respondents in the transport and communication sector were bullied exclusively by their superiors; in 19 European countries, 65.4% of targets were bullied by superiors.

Sex Differences in Workplace Bullying

Despite extensive studies conducted into sex differences in workplace bullying, results concerning sex differences have often been inconsistent and unclear; e.g., in a study conducted in the EU-27 countries, women reported being bullied or slightly bullied more often (4.4%) than men (3.9%) e.g., in the Netherlands (females 9.4%, males 6.3%), Finland (females 8.2%, males 4.2%), and in Denmark (females 3.9%, 2.5% males). In some countries, no sex difference was found, e.g., Germany (both females and males 4.6%). However, in a few countries, men reported being bullied at least to some extent more often than women, e.g., France (females 8.4%, males 10.5%) and Greece (females 2.8%, males 3.7%) (Vartia-Väänänen, 2013). These differences could indicate that gender-related experiences of workplace bullying may be cultural and country-specific.

Employees bully an individual of the same sex more often than an individual of the opposite sex: Namie (2017) found that females bullied other females in 67% of cases, and males bullied other males in 65% of cases.

In cases where males are the minority at a workplace, they tend to report being bullied more than the female majority, while female exposure to workplace bullying was reduced when working with male superiors (Wang & Hsieh, 2015). The sex of perpetrator and victim have interactive impacts on the level of downward bullying. However, victims in within-sex dyads report higher levels of overall downward workplace bullying than those in between-sex dyads (McCormack, Djukovic, Nsubuga-Kyobe, & Casimir, 2018).

Studies that explored sex differences in perceptions and victims’ reactions found that women were more likely than men to label their negative experiences as bullying (Olafsson & Johannsdottir, 2004; Salin, 2003), and rated negative acts as more severe than men did, especially when items were related to emotional abuse, social isolation, and professional discrediting (Escartin, Salin, & Rodriguez-Caballeira, 2011).

When men experience workplace bullying, they are more often than women likely to challenge their bullies, and do not ask for help, whereas women are more often than men likely to use avoidance strategies (e.g., absenteeism), look for social help, or take no action (Olafsson & Johannsdottir, 2004).

Women tend to report higher scores for coping dimensions as a reaction to workplace mistreatment (Cortina, Lonsway, Magley, Freeman, Collinsworth, Hunter, & Fitzgerald, 2002). This could be interpreted to indicate that women feel more strongly affected than men by negative acts. Verbal abuse has been shown to be related with decreased confusion in men, but with increased confusion in women (Brotheridge & Lee, 2010), an indication of an active coping strategy among men and a more passive one in women.

These studies underline the importance of sex in how experiences of workplace bullying are interpreted, evaluated, and reacted to. Women tend to perceive more bullying than men in their workplace, which perhaps is an indication of women being more sensitive to bullying than men, or more eager to report behaviours that male bystanders would not describe as bullying. This fact raises the question as to whether perceptions and emotional responses accurately measure frequencies of workplace bullying.
Gender-role socialisation theory (e.g. Eagerly, 2007) highlights the difference of roles and norms of accepted behaviour for men and women, i.e. of what society expects from them. Applied to bullying, men are traditionally expected and permitted to exhibit more direct aggression than women; hence there may be a higher number of men among bullies (Zapf & Einarsen, 2011), while women’s choice of more indirect forms of aggression, such as social manipulation, falls within gender stereotypes.

Consistent with gender and power theory, all societies comprise power hierarchies, where one or more social groups dominate other groups (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). Men have better access to resources and a better social standing in society. More men than women have managerial and superior positions, and given that bullying is more often a downwards than an upwards process (Zapf & Einarsen, 2011), the gender and power theory explains how men and women have different access to certain bullying techniques and defence strategies, and how bullying may be used to maintain existing structures.

The social identity theory of intergroup discrimination (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) also helps to highlight differences in the interpretation of bullying between males and females. By identifying with a male perpetrator, they make judgements that favour a member of the in-group (Bowes-Sperry & O’Leary-Kelly, 2005).

The Impact of Workplace Bullying

Experiencing systematic and lengthy non-physical and non-sexual aggressive behaviours at work is highly injurious to the victim’s health (Einarsen, 2000). Victims of workplace bullying experience significant negative effects, not only from individual perpetrators but also from the organisation; workplace bullying is a significant source of work-related stress characterised by emotional exhaustion, interpersonal and organisational deviance, decreased job satisfaction, and low affective commitment (Carter et al., 2013; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010b), as well as increased psychological distress, typically including anxiety and depression (Carter et al., 2013; Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2010).

The human cost of workplace bullying has consequences also for organisations, since victims experiencing emotional and psychological impairments are more likely to be absent due to sickness (Kivimäki, Elovainio, & Vahtera, 2000; Sprigg, Martin, Niven, & Armitage, 2010), lack affective commitment, and more often have intentions to quit (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Carter et al., 2013; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010b).

No sex differences have been found in the health impact of victimisation from bullying; e.g., Vartia and Hyyti (2002) found that gender did not influence levels of stress experienced by victims. Similar results were found by Cotina et al. (2002) in a study on incivility. However, in a study on ostracism and exclusion in the workplace – an important aspect of bullying – Hitlan, Cliffton, and DeSoto (2006) concluded that high levels of exclusion had a more negative impact on men’s psychological health than women.

The Current Study: Workplace Bullying among Ghanaian Employees

Over the past decades, an increasing number of studies emanating from the Scandinavian and Anglo-American nations have shown the extent to which workplaces offer an environment in which bullying can thrive.

Although sexual harassment in the workplace has been extensively studied in Ghana, unfortunately, there is no official record indicating the extent of other forms of bullying in Ghanaian workplaces, not to mention sex differences in these behaviours (Asamani, 2010). There have been some studies exploring violence in the health sector, specifically against nurses (Boafo, Hancock & Gringart, 2015; Boafo & Hancock, 2017). For these reasons, little is known about workplace bullying in Ghana.

Elsewhere on the African continent, a cross-sectional field study explored the prevalence of workplace bullying in South Africa in a sample comprising 13,911 employees, and found that 31.1% of the sample had experienced workplace bullying (Cunniff & Mostert, 2012). In another South African study, the nature and prevalence of workplace bullying were investigated in two distinct workplaces, the South African National Defence Force (SANDF) and Power Group, in the Western Cape, South Africa. Kalamdien (2013), found that between 30% and 50% of respondents had been bullied in the respective workplaces. More men than women were reported as perpetrators, and those in leadership positions were more often reported to be perpetrators of workplace bullying than colleagues/peers, subordinates, or clients.
When Jacob and Wet (2013) conducted an exploratory study on South African teachers exposed to bullying with self-report questionnaires in a sample of 999, they found that as many as 90.8% of participants had been victims of workplace bullying in the 12 months that preceded the study, and 89.1% of victims had been exposed to the two most common types of bullying, namely behaviours that undermine their professional status, and behaviour causing isolation. These are extraordinary high bullying rates, which may be due to how bullying was operationalised.

Owoyemi (2010) describes workplace bullying in Nigeria, as an undiagnosed antisocial problem which may be endemic, and which occurs as a result of unequal power between two individuals or a group of people, and another individual and/or a group of people in the workplace, but did not provide percentages of prevalence.

Some researchers (e.g., DeKeseredy, 2011; Dragiewicz & Lindgren, 2009) suggest that in a patriarchal society, males use violence against females as a way of preserving male dominance, since individual male domination is crucial for maintaining patriarchal domination at the societal level. Therefore, in Ghana, a patriarchal society, one can expect to find a higher frequency of males’ aggression compared to that of females. Although intimate partner aggression is contextually different from workplace aggression, females in Ghana have been found to be more likely than males to use low intensity aggression, including physical, indirect, nonverbal, and cyber aggression types against their male partners (Darko, Björkqvist, & Österman, 2018). This gives a context to understand the complexity of sex differences in aggression in Ghana.

**Method**

**Participants**

Eight experienced research assistants, all of whom had completed their Master’s level studies in psychology at the University of Ghana, Accra, and who had experience in conducting research, were employed to assist in the data collection. They were well-informed about the importance of getting a representative sample.

The sample was drawn from individuals from five different ethnic groups in three different cities in Ghana, representing the main ethnic and religious groups forming the fabric of Ghanaian society, and drawn from the public sector (teachers, nurses, and office staff). The sampling technique was based on approaching participants in person. No questionnaire was sent by mail. Two main principles were applied: (1) to identify individuals who were employed within the public sector; (2) to reach out to as varied societal strata as possible, in order to ensure representativeness. The inclusion criterion was to reach a variety of participants as wide as possible to make the sample representative for the employees in public institutions in the cities of Tamale, Nsawam, and Accra; the exclusion criterion was to exclude individuals who would create an imbalance in representation.

To allow respondents to complete the questionnaires independently, without any influence or fear from their bullies, the research assistants asked participants individually and privately if they would like to answer some questions about workplace bullying.

A total of 1,273 (654 females, 618 males) employees from three different cities in Ghana: Tamale, Nsawam, and Accra, filled the criteria and were selected to represent the various ethnic and religious groups forming the fabric of Ghanaian society. Tamale is the fourth largest city of Ghana, with most residents being either Christians or Muslims. Nsawam is situated in the southern part of Ghana and populated mostly by the largest ethnic group of Ghana, the Akans. Data were also collected from the capital, Accra. Participants were selected from the five main ethnic groups in Ghana: Akan - 260 females, 264 males; Ewe – 114 females, 80 males; Mole-Dagbane – 79 females, 85 males; Guan – 91 females, 94 males; Ga – Adangbe 110 females, 96 males. In addition to this, 31 females and 28 males with disability also participated. Therefore, the sample should be relatively representative for Ghanaian society of today.

The participants were over 18 years of age and all were employed in the public sector. They all voluntarily agreed to participate in the study. Data on the level of occupation (junior vs senior staff member) were collected.

The age difference between males (mean age 40.4 yrs., SD = 11.6) and females (mean age 40.2 yrs., SD = 11.3) was not significant. Females formed 52.4% of the participants compared to males forming 47.6%, and there were more male (52.3%) than female (47.7%) senior staff members.
Instruments

The experience of workplace bullying was measured with the Work Harassment Scale (WHS-24) (Björkqvist & Österman, 1994). The instrument was introduced in Björkqvist, Österman, and Hjelt-Bäck (1994) and in Björkqvist, Österman, and Lagerspetz (1994). Participants assessed how often they felt they had been exposed to 24 types of degrading and oppressing activities by their colleagues during the last half year, on a 5-point scale (0 = never, 1 = seldom, 2 = occasionally, 3 = often, and 4 = very often). In the instructions, it was emphasised that these activities must have been clearly experienced as a means of harassment, not as normal communication, or as exceptional occasions. The 24 items are presented in Table 1.

When the reliability of WHS-24 in the current sample was assessed with Cronbach’s alpha, it did not reach a sufficient internal consistency (α > .70). It was obvious that a detailed item analysis had to be conducted and the number of items had to be reduced. An exploratory factor analysis with a three-factor solution (principal component, varimax rotation with Kaiser normalisation) was conducted, explaining 29% of the variance. The three factors are presented in Table 1. Factor loadings > .40 are highlighted.

Table 1. Factor Loadings Based on Principal Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation of the Original Work Harassment Scale (WHS-24) (N = 1,272).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WHS-24 Item Description</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unduly reduced opportunities to express yourself</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lies about you told to others</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being unduly disrupted</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being shouted at loudly</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being unduly criticised</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insulting comments about your private life</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being isolated</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having sensitive details about your private life revealed</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct threats</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insinuative glances and/ or negative gestures</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accused wrongly</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being sneered at</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refusal to speak with you</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belittling your opinions</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refusal to hear you</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being treated as non-existent</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Words aimed at hurting you</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being given meaningless tasks</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being given insulting tasks</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malicious rumours spread behind your back</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ridiculed in front of others</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having your work judged incorrectly and in an insulting manner</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having your sense of judgement questioned</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusations of being mentally disturbed</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The items with high loadings in factor 1 were selected for a revised version of WHS, a seven item version, here referred to as WHS-7, which yielded an internal consistency score of α = .79. This version was used in the present study. The items in this revised version are presented in Table 2.

To examine the association between workplace bullying and mental health, the 12-item version of the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12, Goldberg, 1988) was added to the test battery, as an indicator of psychological distress. The GHQ-12 has been used extensively in various settings across different cultures (Kim, Cho, & Park, 2013). The GHQ is usually scored as a Likert scale (Goldberg & Williams, 1994; Politi, Piccinelli, & Wilkinson, 1994). The psychometric properties of GHQ-12 have been examined (Glözah & Pevalin, 2015), and it has been used in studies in Ghana (Abledu &
Abledu, 2012; Kekesi & Badu, 2014), and in South Africa (Bernstein & Trimm, 2016). In the current study, the α-score of the measure was .76 (cf. Table 3).

**Ethical considerations**

The study adhered to the principles concerning human research ethics of the Declaration of Helsinki (World Medical Association, 2013), as well as the guidelines for the responsible conduct of research of The Finnish Advisory Board on Research Integrity (2012). Participation was voluntary without any form of economic or other incentive; all participants were adults, and the research was conducted with informed consent, strict anonymity, and confidentiality.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WHS-7, α = .79</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unduly reduced opportunities to express yourself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being unduly criticised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belittling of your opinions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being given meaningless tasks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being ridiculed in front of others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having your work judged incorrectly and in an insulting manner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having your sense of judgment questioned</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GHQ-12, α = .76</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have you recently been able to concentrate on whatever you're doing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you recently lost much sleep over worry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you recently felt that you were playing a useful part in things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you recently felt capable of making decisions about things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you recently felt constantly under strain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you recently felt you couldn't overcome your difficulties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you recently been able to enjoy your normal day-to-day activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you recently been able to face up to problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you recently been feeling unhappy or depressed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you recently been losing confidence in yourself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you recently been thinking of yourself as a worthless person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you recently been feeling reasonably happy, all things considered</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Results

The means and SDs of scores on WHS-7 and GHQ-12 by female and male junior and senior staff members are presented in Table 4. Of the total sample, 19.1% scored ≥ 3 on WHS-7, implying that they at an average scored “often” or “very often” on the items measuring workplace bullying. It should therefore be safe to conclude that about 19% of the sample experienced themselves as victims of workplace bullying.

The two measures correlated highly with each other: .45 for females, and .52 for males. This finding shows that there is, indeed, a clear association between scores on workplace bullying and psychological distress.

A two-way multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed, with sex (male vs. female) and staff status (junior vs. senior) as independent variables, and WHS-7 and GHQ-12 as dependent variables. The multivariate analysis revealed that there was no effect of sex on the two dependent variables $[F(2, 1267) = 0.139, p = .871, \eta^2 = .000]$; neither was the interaction...
The purpose of the current study was to assess possible sex difference in experiences of workplace bullying, as measured with WHS-7, among employees of public institutions in Ghana. A second aim was to examine whether there was a difference between junior and senior level staff members regarding experiences of workplace bullying. A third aim was to investigate whether there was an association between scores on workplace bullying and symptoms of psychological distress, as measured with GHQ-12.

Until now, there has been no official record on workplace bullying in Ghana, although the prevalence has been thought to be “alarming” (Asamani, 2010). The findings showed no sex differences in experiences of workplace bullying in the examined sample. In comparison with other studies conducted worldwide, it is consistent with some of them, such as findings from Germany (Vartia-Väänänen, 2013). However, women have been found to be victimised slightly more than men in Finland, Denmark, and the Netherlands (ibid.).

This result is intriguing, because Ghana is considered to be a highly patriarchal society, and previous studies (DeKeseredy, 2011; Dragiewicz & Lindgren, 2009) have argued that in such societies, males use violence against females to preserve their dominance. However, in a recent study conducted by Darko et al. (2019), more males than females were found to be victimised from low intensity aggression in intimate partner relationships. Therefore, the current study, which found that male and female employees were equally often victimised at both junior and senior staff levels, may reflect a trend in Ghana where victims of workplace bullying were victimised based on other factors than sex per se.

Given that workplace bullying is more often a downwards rather than an upwards process, and considering the fact there would be more males occupying managerial positions in Ghana, the lack of a sex difference in victimisation is a bit surprising. This result may be a confirmation that the use of aggression between males and females in Ghanaian workplaces may not be influenced by sex after all. This finding, in combination with the aforementioned one by Darko et al. (2019) concerning intimate partner aggression, suggests that Ghanaian society appears to be moving towards increased egalitarianism between males and females.

Compared with senior staff employees, junior staff members were victimised by workplace bullying to a higher degree. These results are consistent with previous studies, which found managers to be perpetrators to a higher degree than others than same-level colleagues (Cobb, 2012; Namie, 2017).

For workplace bullying to occur without sanctions, there must be an organisational culture supportive of the abusive and negative acts. If victims, who more often are junior staff members, feel no action is taken when bullying is reported, managers would feel they have the support of the organisation, at least implicitly. Possibly, organisations perceive perpetrators as strict disciplinarians who make the organisation profit from their disciplinary actions. Compliance and discipline are necessary conditions for downwards directed workplace bullying to continue. Strict emphasis on power...
relations and discipline may make bullying and abusive acts seem acceptable and normal, and managers may even be rewarded, e.g., for promotion, for being strict.

It is clear in the Nordic countries, where organisational structure and culture enforce strict rules against bullying, abusive acts against staff members are less prevalent compared to countries in Southern Europe and especially Africa, where it might be perceived as bosses only are being ‘strict’.

In many countries in the Southern hemisphere, governments have created huge public institutions which have become over-staffed and badly funded. The state ultimately becomes the biggest, single employer. Unfortunately, workplace aggression is more likely to occur in the public sector than in the private industry (U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board, 2012).

Like in many aspects of human institutions, these organisations grow to have their own traditions, values, and institutional culture. Enabling structures such as power imbalances coupled with a colonial legacy of the authoritarian manager, allow the workplace to become a fertile ground for bullying. Social learning within these organisations makes sure bullying is learnt and continued, creating a next generation of senior staff who would victimise their junior staff members, and show poor skills of conflict resolution. Victimised individuals may be expected to report their bullying experiences to their managers; however, if the perpetrators are the managers themselves, it might feel useless for the victims to report.

Since the analysis of this study was made based on cross-sectional data, causal associations between workplace bullying and psychological distress cannot be claimed with certainty, although they appear likely. It cannot be excluded that individuals who originally might have felt a high degree of psychological distress might also see and experience bullying differently than others.

Notwithstanding, the current study highlights the prevalence of workplace bullying in Ghana and the psychological distress associated with it, in particular among junior staff members. The findings have significant implications for policy-makers and senior staff members. The clear relationship between workplace bullying and psychological distress should inform about the need to implement serious measures to eradicate workplace bullying.

To minimise the use of aggression in the workplace, both individual and organisational steps need to be taken. Victimisation occurs in the public sector more often than in the private sector; therefore, the amount of awareness amongst governments and their employees should be raised, at both organisational and national levels. Public campaigns and organisational rules, punishable by law, needs to be enforced. At the individual level, whatever barriers preventing victims from acting to protect themselves and stop workplace bullying must be removed, and victims should be encouraged to act when they experience unfair and discriminatory treatment. These measures could include anonymous reporting to prevent recrimination, and real, practical action taken after initial report. Unless organisations grasp bullying’s harmful effects on the employees and work performance, it would be very challenging to overcome it.

National culture and the national gender situation may influence the experience of bullying differently; e.g., Northern Europe typically reports lower levels of exposure to negative acts than Southern Europe. Therefore, bullying behaviours that are perceived to be an acceptable price to pay for performance must be discouraged, and the cultural perception of ‘boss’ and ‘subordinates’, must be redefined through national campaigns aiming at national and cultural behaviour change. Irrespective of context, bullying is an aggressive behaviour that needs to be discouraged.

The present study on workplace bullying in Ghana needs to be followed up in both Ghana and other African nations. Future studies could widen the scope to cover what bullying means in the African context, since many nations in Africa do not even have a term for what is known as ‘bullying’ in the Western culture.

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Different Stakeholder's Perspectives on Cultural Ecosystem Services: A Case Study of the Anzali Wetland, Iran

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Abstract
The study investigates local level environmental conflict between two groups of stakeholders, by analysing their opinions about the importance and use of the cultural ecosystem services of the Anzali Wetland in northern Iran. Data were analysed statistically on the basis of semi-structured interviews with 193 respondents from (a) administrators within the areas of forestry, agriculture, environment, and harbour, and (b) non-administrators, i.e. local people such as fishermen, hunters, and visitors. The results showed that there was a difference between the two groups of stakeholders regarding use of, and attitudes towards cultural services in the wetland. The sense of belonging to the place, and the importance of the cultural heritage were cited as more important among the non-administrators. They also used the wetland more for activities such as sports, social activities, fishing and hunting, while the administrators appreciated the wetland more for the enjoyment of its beautiful natural scenery. The locals used the wetland practically, while the administrators saw the importance of the wetland in more abstract terms. The study highlights the importance of assessing viewpoints of a variety of stakeholders, and including also cultural values in decision-making about ecosystem services.

Keywords: Ecosystem services, Cultural ecosystem services, stakeholders, Anzali Wetland

Introduction
Nature promotes human well-being; however, human behavior and decisions about nature may have profound effects on ecosystems (Daily, Polansky, Goldstein, Kareiva, Mooney, Pejchar, & Shallenberger, 2009). In debates about ecosystem services (ES), nature is seen as having beneficial properties with a positive impact on human well-being. The Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (2005) defined ES as the benefits humans can obtain from an ecosystem. These benefits include both tangible, material benefits such as provisioning services (i.e., food, raw material), and intangible or immaterial ones like cultural services (relaxation, recreation, aesthetic enjoyment), regulating services (climate change, water regulation, etc.), and supporting services as a supplementary class (Balvanera, Pfisterer, Buchmann, He, Nakashizuka, Raffaelli, & Schmid, 2006; Costanza, de Groot, Sutton, Van der Ploeg, Anderson, Kubiszewski, & Turner, 2014; Fisher, Turner, & Morling, 2009).

As part of a new emerging discourse, ES have achieved far-reaching attention for the incorporation of ecological, economic and cultural values into decision-making and planning (Chan, Balvanera, Benessaiah, Chapman, Diaz, Gómez-Baggethun, & Luck, 2016; Saarikoski, Jax, Harrison, Primmer, Barton, Mononen, & Furman, 2015). However, the importance of cultural values is often neglected in these analyses. In order to achieve truly sustainable socio-ecological systems, it is central to understand how individuals perceive and value their surroundings (Kittinger, Finkbeiner, Glazier, & Crowder, 2012). The term cultural ecosystem services (CES) refers to the nonmaterial benefits people obtain from ecosystems through spiritual enrichment, cognitive development, reflection, recreation, and aesthetic experiences (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005). The cultural aspects of ES highlights non-material benefits of nature, which have mental (and perhaps also physical) effects on people. An understanding of CES requires the consideration of viewpoints from different social groups. Therefore, in order to achieve more equitable welfare policies, one has to gain an understanding of what ES means from different stakeholders' perspectives, and identify their core values, especially non-market benefits (Chan, Satterfield & Goldstein,
The focus of this work is on cultural ecosystem services (CES) in the Anzali Wetland in Iran. ES as such are related to promoting biodiversity, but cultural values are connected to communities and societies, even to core values. Therefore, the participation of different stakeholders in the ES discourse has been proposed as a potential solution for overcoming the uncertainty and complexity of the environmental issues. Many researchers have argued that such participation would increase the quality of decisions by allowing holistic perspectives and facilitating negotiation about conflict areas (Reed, 2008). The participation of more stakeholders requires consideration of who they are and what benefits they will bring to the decision-making process. The World Bank (1996) defines participation as “a process in which stakeholders influence and share control over development initiatives and the decision and the resources which affect them” (World Bank Participation Sourcebook, 1996). Stakeholders can be defined as individuals, groups, or even organizations which are affecting the decision-making process and who are being affected by the decisions (Reed, 2008). In this research, everyone who has some interest in using the Anzali Wetland is considered as a stakeholder.

Stakeholder participation is more related to cultural ecosystem services and non-material values than only provisioning. An example is provided in the ‘structure-function-value-chain’ framework, which refers to the fact that functions will be turned into service when humans realize their values and benefits. Therefore, recognizing benefits is highly dependent on context, values, and space (Haines-Young & Potschin, 2010). As far as the evaluation of values associated with the physical surroundings are concerned, either it is a question of tangible or intangible values, the locals are likely to be the best experts. Empirical investigations have to take local stakeholders into account in recognizing and mapping values, benefits, and services. For example, Tyrväinen, Mäkinen, and Schipperijn (2007) in Finland mapped the value of urban woodland by a participatory approach, which was based on the accurate local knowledge about the distribution of services in urban green spaces. Fagerholm, Käyhkö, Ndumbaro, and Khamis (2012) also emphasized the local stakeholders’ knowledge in evaluating forest services in Tanzania. Their results showed that local stakeholders were experts in identifying the distribution of both material and non-material benefits. Citizens’ perceptions about the values of their natural surroundings, especially intangible ones, are of central importance for political implementations. Accordingly, engaging interest groups in identifying different and specific values would help to negotiate and contain conflicts. Sarkki (2017) suggests that participation has an impact on human well-being by providing social interaction and collaboration. It also gives more opportunity to empower stakeholders in decisions related to ES (Sarkki, 2017). It seems that different stakeholders’ involvement is essential not only in the decision-making process, but also for natural resource management (Saarikoski, Turkelboom, & Kaune, 2016). Darvill and Lindo (2015) studied ES, especially CES, among seven different stakeholder groups in a watershed with a hydrological dam development in Canada. Their results identified the importance of different types of CES such as aesthetic values, and also a sense of belonging to a place, among stakeholder groups (Darvill & Lindo, 2015). Raymond, Bryan, MacDonald, Cast, Strathearn, Grandgirard, and Kalivas (2009) noticed that the local stakeholders of the Murray-Darling basin valued their regions not only for biota, land, and water, but also for other assets such as community values, sense of place, family relations, and recreation.

Overlapping values in some regions, or differing interests among different stakeholders, especially in the case of multiple users, increase the risk of conflict (Ruiz-Frau, Edwards-Jones, & Kaiser, 2011). This fact highlights the issue of the legitimacy of the decision-making process, which has to represent multiple stakeholders’ viewpoints. Ruiz-Frau et al. (2011) found that regions which were ecologically important for stakeholders also had cultural values, such as heritage and leisure benefits. Castro, Vaughn, García-Lorente, Julian, and Atkinson (2016) showed that different stakeholders had different preferences for protecting marine ecosystem services in a conflict zone (Kiamichi, USA). They proposed that investigating different stakeholders’ attitudes aids in the prioritizing of services; it helps in dealing with conflicts, and it also clarifies the economic and cultural consequences of specific services. Spotting the priorities on ES categories clarifies conflict dimensions and facilitate the negotiation process.

Therefore, a thorough CES discourse may clarify the dimensions of the environmental challenges in Iran, and the prevailing unsustainability which have increased social and political instability. Among the various environmental challenges in Iran, water is a controversial field which has created conflicts between different stakeholders and governance. These conflicts have occurred between sociocultural structures and actors with conflicting needs, desires, and goals, a fact which makes compromising and negotiating difficult. According to the global water discourse, a water crisis is usually the combined result of poor governance and neglect of the civil society on behalf of the private sector, and, furthermore, neglecting to take water
shortage into account. (Tropp, 2007). Scientific research in Iran has identified five triggering factors as the main causes for the aquatic challenges: governance, developmental patterns, population growth, political factors, economic factors, and climate change (Mandani, 2014). Therefore, the Iranian water crisis is caused by poor water governance, with the presence of diverse groups of stakeholders who have not been integrated into the decision-making process, and the existence of a top-down hierarchy (ibid.). Apart from the lack of influence on decision-making, failures to reach an agreement between stakeholders, due to their different interests, have made the water crisis in Iran complicated. The complexity and dynamic of environmental issues have shown the necessity of establishing a transparent and flexible decision-making process, which includes a wide range of knowledge, both local and scientific, and an integration of different discourses (Hage, Leroy, & Petersen, 2010; Luyet, Schlaepfer, Parlange, & Buttler, 2012; Reed, 2008).

The aquatic ecosystem of the Anzali wetland in Iran is a good example for identifying the presence of different stakeholders with diverse values.

The Anzali wetland

The Anzali Wetland is located to the south-west of the Caspian Sea, in the Gilan province, with an area of 1500 hectares. This wetland is one of the biggest fresh water basins in Iran. The basin is fed with an input of 11 main rivers, 30 subsidiaries and two output rivers which run into the Caspian Sea. The Anzali Wetland is an aquatic ecosystem with a capacity for preserving 150 species of birds, 432 types of fish, different animals, amphibians and different herbs (Jaygaah, 2004). It is globally known as a landing zone for migrating birds, and it is also recorded in the Ramsar Convention on Wetlands from 1975. In following years, it was listed in the Montreux Record of wetlands for being partly destroyed by human activities (ibid).

The economic values of the Anzali Wetland are related to activities such as fishing, hunting, and business-related recreation. A significant number of the local people are involved in fishing and hunting, which is important for the local economy. The annual fish catch is about 400 tons, and the potential market value is about 10 billion Rials. Approximately 100,000 birds are hunted per season, and their potential market value is approximately 3 billion Rials. In summer, the wetland provides recreational activities for many visitors, including motor-boating and kayaking. The number of visitors to the wetland is estimated at about 40,000 per year. Most of the visitors use boats, and they spend about 3 billion Rials per year. The wetland also has a huge potential for ecotourism activities in the form of environmentally sustainable use of natural resources (Ghahraman & Attar, 2003). One special feature of the Anzali Wetland is the accessibility of raw materials for handicrafts and industrial goods. These artificial creations are important for attracting domestic visitors (Dadras, 2010). In general, the Anzali Wetland provides the following functions, from ecological to cultural ones:

(1) unique views and biodiversity (a vegetative area for plants and suitable habitat for fish, water birds and mammals). These are related to provisioning services;
(2) conserving the area against flood;
(3) climate control;
(4) being a water reserve (especially for irrigation of paddy fields and fish pools). Prevention of the entrance of sediment inflow from the mountains, cities and urbanized areas to the Caspian Sea;
(5) commercial fishing and hunting;
(6) tourism and ecotourism; the wetland has great potential to attract tourism during 6 months of the year, from March to December;
(7) social functions (job creation);
(8) scientific research (zoology, biology, and environmental studies);
(9) cultural heritage sites (traditions and handicrafts).

During the last three decades, the impact of human activities and the manipulation of the wetland were so severe that it started to dry up. Studies show that until 50 years ago, the ecosystem of the wetland was in balance. But with the increasing growth of the population, especially at the upstream of the wetland (in the Rasht province), and due to some wrong policies,
such as the construction of a canal-based ecosystem, lead to vast destruction (Akbarzadeh, Laghai, Monavari, Nezami, Shokrzadeh, & Saeedi Saravi, 2008). Pollution from human, industrial, and agricultural activity is delivered to the wetland by rivers, especially the one which passes through the Rasht City. A study has shown that Rasht city only in 1998 produced 1.34 m3 untreated sewage which entered into the wetland (Tavakoli & Sabetaftar, 2002). Apart from pollution, some other strains on the wetland are caused by a wide range of stakeholders, such as hunters, fisheries, tourism, agriculture, and small industrial companies; furthermore domestic visitors, or in other words, groups who do not feel that they belong to the wetland, but who are visiting for fulfilling some interests; the lack of interest from managers, planners and policy makers, who neglect to take other stakeholders’ opinions into account; the lack of responsibility of some stakeholders for the future of the wetland, and the conflict between the interests of decision-makers and other stakeholders, and economic problems of some groups.

The first aim of this study is, to investigate whether there are any differences between two groups of stakeholders over the use of the Anzali Wetland. A second aim is to identify which categories of ES are important for these two groups of stakeholders. Finally, a third aim is to identify which benefits of CES are important for these two groups. With a total of 193 respondents, as representing a group of administrators, and the group of non-administrators.

**Method**

**Sample**

The research was conducted in the Anzali city. Of a total of 193 interviewees, 82 were administrators (43%), and 110 (57%) were non-administrators. The administrators were chosen randomly from agricultural administration, forestry, environmental, harbour and fisheries, cultural heritages, and public administration. The non-administrators consisted of fishermen, hunters, visitors, and small shopkeepers around the wetland selling goods such as handicrafts, or having cafeterias, motels, or restaurants.

The percentage of men who participated in the study was 55%, with women being 45%.. The majority of respondents had a Bachelor’s degree (83.3%); it should be noted that all participants in the administrators’ group had a Bachelor’s degree, since it is a requirement for being employed in governmental administration. Having a Bachelor’s degree was equally distributed for the two genders.

**Interviews**

The interviews were carried out from the beginning of September to the end of October 2017. They were semi-structured, and covered the following nine areas of ecosystem services: how important the respondents considered the wetlands to be for the sake of (a) their own sense of belonging to the wetland; (b) for the removal of anxiety and depression; and (c) for sports activities. Furthermore, the interviews covered how much the respondents used (visited) the wetland for various reasons, such as for (d) bird hunting as a sport; (e) visiting just for having fun; for (f) the beauty of the natural scenery, (g) provisioning services (as a food source); (e) regulating services (water regulation); and for (f) social recreation. The respondents also had to assess, on a five-point scale ranging from 0 (not at all) to 4 (very much) how important they considered the wetlands to be, or how much they used it for these specific reasons. The scores were transformed into z-scores, in order to ensure comparability of variance.

**Results**

The mean values and SDs (in z-scores) for the nine variables of the study are presented in Table 1. The three first variables pertain to the perceived importance of various CES, and the following six variables pertain to the actual use of various CES.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean (z-scores)</th>
<th>SD (z-scores)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Own sense of belonging</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Removal of anxiety and depression</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Sports activities</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) Bird hunting as a sport</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e) Visiting just for having fun</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(f) Beauty of the natural scenery</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(g) Provisioning services</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(h) Regulating services</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i) Social recreation</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Differences between Stakeholders Regarding the Perceived Importance of Various Forms of CES**

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed in order to investigate possible differences between how highly the two types of stakeholders evaluated different forms of CES. According to the MANOVA, the multivariate F was significant \( F(7, 193) = 2.01, p = .05, \eta^2_p = .071 \). The univariate analysis showed that non-administrators scored higher than administrators on the sense of belonging to the wetland \( F(1,190) = 10.07, p < .001, \eta^2_p = .053 \), on the importance of the wetland as a remover of depression and anxiety \( F(1,190) = 4.29, p = .038, \eta^2_p = .022 \) and the importance of the wetland for sports activities \( F(1,190) = 3.49, p = .056, \eta^2_p = .024 \). For means and SDs, see the first three variables in Table 1.
Non-administration | Administration
\hline
Sense of belonging to the wetland | 0.07 | 1.05 | -0.12 | 0.91
Removing anxiety and depression | 0.13 | 1.08 | -0.17 | 0.85
Sport activities | 0.11 | 1.08 | -0.15 | 0.86
\hline
Using (visiting)
Visiting for bird hunting as a sport | 0.15 | 1.08 | -0.20 | 0.86
Visiting for fun | 0.20 | 0.95 | -0.16 | 1.0
Visiting for the natural scenery | -0.12 | 1.05 | 0.16 | 0.91
Providing services (food source) | 0.21 | 1.04 | -0.27 | 0.86
Regulating services (water regulation) | 0.11 | 0.90 | -0.15 | 1.0
Social recreation | 0.22 | 0.98 | -0.16 | 0.98
\hline

Differences between Stakeholders Regarding Visiting the Wetland

A t-test revealed that non-administrators visited the wetland more often than administrators \( t_{(190)} = 3.564, p < .05 \). This difference may be related to the dependency of their life on the wetland for food or income.

Differences between the Two Types of Stakeholders Regarding the Use of Different Types of CES

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted with type of stakeholder (administrators vs. non-administrators) as independent variable, and how much they used six different types of CES as dependent variables. The results are presented in Table 2. As the table reveals, the non-administrators scored higher than the administrators on most of the variables [bird hunting as sport; visiting for fun; provisioning services (food source); regulating services (water regulation); and using the wetland for social recreation]. The administrators scored higher only on the variable, “visiting for the natural scenery”.

Table 2. Multivariate Analysis of the Use (by Visiting) of Cultural Ecosystem Services of the Anwali Wetland among Two Groups of Stakeholders, Administrators and Non-administrators \( N = 193 \). For Means and SDs, see Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>F</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>( p )</th>
<th>( \eta^2 )</th>
<th>group differences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Multivariate analysis</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>1, 190</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>.123</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Univariate analyses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting for bird hunting as a sport</td>
<td>6.35</td>
<td>1, 183</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>.033</td>
<td>non &gt; adm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting for fun</td>
<td>6.63</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>.035</td>
<td>non &gt; adm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting for the natural scenery</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>adm &gt; non</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provisioning services (food source)</td>
<td>11.30</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.059</td>
<td>non &gt; adm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regulating services (water regulation)</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>non &gt; adm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social recreation</td>
<td>7.28</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.013</td>
<td>non &gt; adm</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

The effect of ecosystems and biodiversity on human well-being gives reason for societies to preserve nature better than before. A thorough understanding of these effects help to identify which services are relevant for different stakeholders (Klain & Chan, 2012). As this study shows, ecosystems are evaluated differently by different stakeholders due to the fact that they vary in their needs and interests. The incorporation of such preferences – which requires knowledge about them – paves way for a reduction of conflicts between users. The inclusion of different groups of stakeholders in the decision process is, therefore, necessary for a correct evaluation of ecosystem services (Lamarque, Tappeiner, Turner, Steinbacher, Bardgett, Szukics, & Lavorel, 2011). The difference between stakeholders in the present study highlight some features of Iranian environmental management.
The research shed light on non-monetary preferences of two types of stakeholders of the Anzali Wetland at the local level. The results indicate that there is a gap between the perspectives of these groups. The gap between them shows different interests, perception, and even usage of the wetland, a fact which complicates negotiation. This result also corroborates Mirzajani, Babai, Abedini and Dadi’s (2003) findings about the difficulties regarding negotiation between the various Anzali interest groups.

The results indicated that provisioning and regulating services such as using the wetland for food provision, and water regulation were important services for non-administrators, while none of them were seen so important for administrators.

Among the CES, the sense of belonging to a place and receiving non-material benefits such as improving mental health, relieving stress, and performing activities such as walking, jogging, or canoeing are some non-material benefits that non-administrators receive from the Anzali Wetland. This result is also explainable due to the fact that they visit the wetland more than non-administrators, and feel more connected to it. The sense of belonging to the wetland is related to social interaction such as visiting for family or social events, and recreational activity, which all have an influence on human well-being. Gilanian local respondents pointed out that the Anzali Wetland was a part of their identity. Moreover, the cultural heritage of the Anzali Wetland was significant among older generations and non-administrator groups with lower educational degrees. The interconnectedness of cultural heritage and sense of belonging underlines the importance of the wetland at the local level for the group of non-administrators, especially its relation with provisioning services. This research finding is consistent with Kalternborn, Linnell, Baggethun, Lindhjem, Thomassen, and Chan’s (2017) study on the interdependency of CES such as a sense of belonging to a place with provisioning services. In the current research, the provisioning capacity of the Anzali Wetland in providing food (fish and sometimes birds) was important for non-administrators with low educational levels, which is in line with Martin-Lopez’s (2012) results. The dependency of local people’s life on the wetland creates local attachment and identity for them.

References


Content Analysis for Critical Thinking Skills in the Lower Primary School Science Textbooks in Malaysia

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to analyse lower primary science textbooks (grade 1-3), which were implemented by the Ministry of Education in Malaysia, in terms of thinking skills. To achieve this, a tool for content analysis including thinking skill items will be constructed. Two science teachers have been trained to conduct the content analysis for grade 1-3 science textbooks, the reliability and validity of analysis have been verified using Cohen’s kappa statistic. From the results, it can be seen clearly that Prioritizing”, “Evaluation” and “Detecting Bias” thinking skills are not included at all in the science textbook from year one until year three. While, the most frequent critical thinking skills are “attributing”, “analysing”, “Grouping and Classifying” and “Sequencing” gradually. Most of the skills have been in the pictures for year one, and in the “text” and then within the “picture” and finally within the “activities” for both of year two and three. Such research help teachers and curriculum developers in the development and implementation of science curriculum to raise the level of achievement of thinking skills for students.

Keyword: Thinking Skills, Critical Thinking Skills, Content Analysis and Science Textbooks

Introduction

Science is one of the most important subjects that is taught in our schools. In Malaysia, the science curriculum aims at producing active learners. To this end, pupils are given many opportunities to engage in scientific investigations through hands-on activities and experimentations. The inquiry approach, incorporating thinking skills, thinking strategies and thoughtful learning, should be emphasized throughout the teaching-learning process (Curriculum Development Centre, 2002).

The Ministry of Education in Malaysia introduced the National Philosophy of Education (NPE) in 1988. According to NPE “Education in Malaysia is an on-going effort towards further developing the potential of individuals in a holistic and integrated manner, to produce individuals who are intellectually, spiritually, emotionally and physically balanced and harmonious based on a firm belief in and devotion to God. Such an effort is designed to produce Malaysian citizens who are knowledgeable and competent, who possess high moral standards and who are responsible and capable of achieving a high level of personal well-being as well as being able to contribute to the betterment of the family, society and the nation at large (Al-hudawi, Musah, Lai, & Fong, 2014). In consonance with the National Education Philosophy, science education in Malaysia nurtures a science and technology culture by focusing on the development of individuals who are competitive, dynamic, robust and resilient and able to master scientific knowledge and technological competency (Curriculum Development Centre, 2002). Therefore, science curriculum ought to enhance the personal development of students and contribute to their lives as citizens.

Science education reformers currently characterize professional science as both a specialized form of inquiry and as a body of knowledge (Howes, 2002), therefore, science education must be oriented towards acquisition of skills, self and social empowerment for all students specially students with impairment. A goal of improving students' abilities to acquire
the skills is necessary to be able to use critical thinking and problem-solving skills independently. Students who have learned to use critical thinking and problem-solving skills will be better equipped to meet new challenges (Lins, 1993).

One of the primary goals of the early childhood science curriculum is the development of scientific thinking in young children. Scientific thinking has been an important area of cognitive development since the work of Inhelder and Piaget. Scientific thinking, defined as intentional knowledge seeking, encompasses the abilities to generate, test, and evaluate hypotheses, theories, and data, and to reflect on this process. More recently, the Partnership for 21st Century Skills has identified critical thinking as one of several learning and innovation skills necessary to prepare students for post-secondary education and the workforce (Lai, 2011).

Williams (1993) presented for three definitions of critical thinking by leading researchers. First, Robert Ennis’s classic definition: "Critical thinking is reasonable, reflective thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do". Next, Matthew Lipman’s definition: "Critical thinking is skillful, responsible thinking that is conducive to good judgment because it is sensitive to context, relies on criteria, and is self-correcting. Finally, in informal presentations, Richard Paul uses this definition: "Critical thinking is thinking about your thinking, while you’re thinking, in order to make your thinking better".

Critical thinking is different from just thinking. It is metacognitive— it involves thinking about your thinking (Williams, 1993). On the other hand, some motivation research suggests that difficult or challenging tasks, particularly those emphasizing higher-order thinking skills, may be more motivating to students than easy tasks that can be solved through the rote application of an information (Lai, 2011). Critical thinking is evaluating conclusions by logically and systematically examining the problem, the evidence, and the solution (Aslan & Polat, 2008). Critical thinking skills are useful in almost every life situation. According to many researchers, the ideal critical thinker are: (Thompson, 2011).

habitually inquisitive and intellectually curious,
well-informed, willing to reconsider, clear about issues,
diligent in seeking relevant information,
open-minded, flexible, fair-minded in evaluation,
honest in facing personal biases,
prudent in making judgments,
orderly in complex matters,
reasonable in the selection of criteria,
focused in inquiry to identify solutions to problems
persistent in seeking results which are as precise as the subject and the circumstances in the inquiry permit,
cognizant of potential barriers and difficulties,

In essence, as students develop the skills to conduct scientific investigations, their knowledge of science concepts and processes will be enhanced (Lewis, 2012).

Critical thinking includes the component skills of analyzing arguments, making inferences using inductive or deductive reasoning, judging or evaluating, and making decisions or solving problems (Lai, 2011).

Consequently, science education must help young students begin to develop critical thinking skills needed throughout their lives. To master a skill, science curriculum must give the opportunity for a student to learn and practice the skill throughout the content of science textbooks.

Research Statement
Malaysia is looking forward towards becoming a fully developed country by the year 2020 as in the nation’s ‘Vision 2020’. The decline in the number of students taking up science in upper secondary schools over the last decade has caused great concern among many politicians and science educators over the availability of skilled manpower necessary to achieve the
nation’s vision (Ling, 1999). Science has three distinct and interrelated parts: attitudes, processes, and products (Schweingruber, H. A., Duschl, R. A., & Shouse, 2007). In Malaysia, the science curriculum aims at producing active learners. To this end, pupils are given many opportunities to engage in scientific investigations through hands-on activities and experimentations. In order to incorporate thinking skills in science education, thinking strategies and thoughtful learning, should be emphasized throughout the teaching-learning process (Curriculum Development Centre, 2002). Therefore, the content of curriculum should be applied accuracy in the preparing the students to meet the demands resulting from the rapid changes in science and technology, economic and social.

Textbooks due to great importance in determining educational content are center of special attention for all those involved in education and it is most important expression of curriculum (Soleymanpour & Kiadaliri, 2014), textbooks provide the main resource for students as the major vehicle for conveying information to students, and enable teachers to animate the curricula and giving life to the subjects taught in the classroom (Aslan & Polat, 2008).

Thus, this study will provide useful information by exploring the inclusion of the critical thinking skills of students' and teacher's editions of 1-3 grade science textbooks published by Ministry of education in Malaysia. Thus, the research aimed to answer following questions:

To what extent the content of science textbook of lower primary school has used critical thinking skills?

To what extent there is a balance of critical thinking skills in the content of science textbooks of lower primary school?

Research Methods

To address the research questions, content analysis method is preferred to identify the infusion of critical thinking skills in lower primary science textbooks. Content analysis has been defined as a systematic, replicable technique for compressing many words of text into fewer content categories based on explicit rules of coding (Krippendorff, 2004). It is a qualitative research method frequently used in this type of studies for analyzing textual information in a standardized way that allows evaluators to make inferences about that information (Lewis, 2012).

Population and Sampling

In this research, lower primary science textbooks will be analyzed through “content analysis”. Lower primary science textbooks in year 1, year 2 and year 3 approved by Ministry of Education to be used in lower primary schools constitute the population of this research.

Thus, statistical population include all lessons and chapters contents of the lower primary science textbooks in year one, year two and year three of lower primary school and the sample consists of 11 topics that randomly selected form Year one, Year Two and Year Three.

Reliability

The type of reliability used for this research is inter-rater reliability which is described as reproducibility by Krippendorff (2004). Inter-rater reliability using Cohen’s kappa (κ) is the level of agreement between raters or judges. If everyone agrees, IRR is 1 (or 100%) and if everyone disagrees, IRR is 0 (0%). The reliability coefficient was calculated using Cohen’s kappa. The Cohen’s kappa results for this research is 0.9 which means there is 90% of similarities between the first and second analysis for the same topic. To make valid inferences from the text, it is important that the classification procedure be reliable in the sense of being consistent, this mean different people should code the same text in the same way. Therefore, one of the most critical steps in content analysis involves developing a set of explicit recording instructions. These instructions then allow outside coders to be trained until reliability requirements are met.

Research Instruments

The instrument that developed during the analysis processes is a critical thinking skills code book that defines what is perceived as a codable thinking skills in a science textbook. The critical thinking skills will be aligning with Science Curriculum Framework that guided the analysis of the textbooks. All keywords for each critical thinking skills were extracted from the Standards-Based Curriculum for Primary Schools.
Data Collection Process

Step 1: Establishing coding categories

The first step of data analysis for this research focused on establishing rules for coding the data to ensure objectivity. According to Weber (1990), the pre-determined categories are based upon some theory when dealing with priori coding. For this research, the critical thinking skills were taken from the Conceptual Framework of Science Curriculum (Table 1)

Table 1: Categories, Definition and Codes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attributing</td>
<td>Identifying characteristics, features, qualities and elements</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparing and Contrasting</td>
<td>Finding similarities and differences</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grouping and Classifying</td>
<td>Separating and grouping objects or phenomena</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequencing</td>
<td>Arranging objects and information in order</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prioritizing</td>
<td>Arranging objects or information in order based on their importance and urgency</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyzing</td>
<td>Processing information in detail by breaking it down into smaller parts</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Detecting bias</td>
<td>Detecting views or opinions</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluating</td>
<td>Making consideration on the good and bad qualities</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making conclusions</td>
<td>Making statements</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Step 2: Determining Recording Units

According to Krippendorf (2004), recording units are units that are distinguished for separate description, transcription, recording, or coding. Holsti (1969) stated that a recording unit is the specific segment of content that is characterized by placing it in a given category. Researchers will identify each of the critical thinking skills according to recording units.

Step 3: Selecting Random Samples

Simple random sampling is a form of sampling in which a number of distinct subjects are selected randomly from the population in a way that each unit has equal chance to be selected.

Step 4: Creating Coding Procedures

A textbook analysis coding form was created for this study using nine critical thinking skills from the Conceptual Framework of Science Curriculum. Table 2 show the nine critical thinking skills which are based on the Conceptual Framework of Science Curriculum.

Table 2: Summary of the critical thinking skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SKILLS</th>
<th>DESCRIPTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attributing</td>
<td>Identifying characteristics, features, qualities and elements of a concept or an object.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparing and Contrasting</td>
<td>Finding similarities and differences based on criteria such as characteristics, features, qualities and elements of an object or event.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grouping and Classifying</td>
<td>Separating and grouping objects or phenomena into groups based on certain criteria such as common characteristics or features.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequencing</td>
<td>Arranging objects and information in an orderly based on the quality or quantity of common characteristics or features such as size, time, shape or number.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prioritizing</td>
<td>Arranging objects or information in an orderly manner based on their importance or urgency.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyzing</td>
<td>Processing information in detail by breaking it down into smaller parts to understand concepts or events as well as to find the implicit meanings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Detecting Bias</td>
<td>Detecting views or opinions that have the tendency to support or oppose something.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Evaluating  Making considerations and decisions using their knowledge, experiences, skills and values, and giving justifications.

Making Conclusions  Making a statement about the outcome of an investigation based on a hypothesis or strengthening something based on an investigation.

All the selected nine critical thinking skills from the Conceptual Framework of Science Curriculum were analyzed under three categories which are text, pictures and activities. Table 3 shows the summary of the categories.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORIES</th>
<th>DESCRIPTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text</td>
<td>A book or other written or printed work, regarded in terms of its content rather than its physical form.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picture</td>
<td>A painting or drawing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>The condition in which things are happening or being done.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Step 5: Reading and Coding Data

After attending to the objectivity and systems of the study as described in above steps, the researchers then read, interpreted, and coded instances of critical thinking skills in Year One, Year Two and Year Three Revised KSSR Science Textbooks.

Step 6: Determining Frequencies

After coding the critical thinking skills identified in each textbook, the number of occurrences tabulated for each category and calculated the percentages of critical thinking skills infused in Revised KSSR Science Textbook for Year One, Year Two and Year Three using Contingency tables (Crosstabs table) with Chi-square test.

Results and Discussion

To what extent the content of science textbook of lower primary school has used critical thinking skills?

To determine to what extent critical thinking skills infused in revised KSSR lower primary science textbooks, Contingency tables (crosstabs tables) were used between the skills and the category (text, pictures, and activities) to answer the above question. Table 4 shows the results of contingency tables between skills and the category for Year One.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR ONE</th>
<th>CATEGORY</th>
<th>TEXT</th>
<th>PICTURES</th>
<th>ACTIVITIES</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Skills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attributing</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within SKILLS</td>
<td>21.2%</td>
<td>60.6%</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>17.9%</td>
<td>51.3%</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
<td>84.6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparing and Contrast</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within SKILLS</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>66.7%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grouping and Classifying</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within SKILLS</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making Conclusions</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within SKILLS</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>39</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within SKILLS</td>
<td>25.6%</td>
<td>51.3%</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>25.6%</td>
<td>51.3%</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 14.4, df 6, P=.026

The results in the table 4 show that Chi-Square is significant (Chi-Square = 14.4, df 6, P=.026), this means that there is an association between skills and three categories of the content analysis. From the results, “Attributing” got the most frequent
with 84.6% of all skills, while “Comparing and Contrast” has 7.7%, “Making Conclusion” got 5.1% and “Grouping and Classifying” got 2.6%. Based on the results it is clear that the most frequent critical thinking skills is “Attributing”, the most of this skill has been in the “pictures” with 60.6% and then within the “text” with 21.2% and finally within the “activities” with 18.2%.

Table 5 show the results of contingency tables between skills and the category for Year Two.

Table 5: The results of contingency tables between the skills and the category for Year Two

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR 2</th>
<th>CATEGORY</th>
<th>SKILLS</th>
<th>TEXT</th>
<th>PICTURES</th>
<th>ACTIVITIES</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Attributing</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>% within SKILLS</td>
<td>43.5%</td>
<td>45.7%</td>
<td>10.9%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>27.8%</td>
<td>29.2%</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>63.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Comparing and Contrast</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>% within SKILLS</td>
<td>66.7%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Grouping and Classifying</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>% within SKILLS</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sequencing</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>% within SKILLS</td>
<td>40.0%</td>
<td>60.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>13.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Making Conclusions</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>% within SKILLS</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>% within SKILLS</td>
<td>45.8%</td>
<td>41.7%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>45.8%</td>
<td>41.7%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 13.3, df 8, P=.101

The results in the table 5 show that Chi-Square is not significant (Chi-Square = 13.3, df 8, P=.101), this means that there is no association between skills and three categories of the content analysis. From the results, “Attributing” got the most frequent with 63.9% of all skills, while “Sequencing” has 13.9%, “Grouping and Classifying” got 12.5%, “Making Conclusions” got 5.6% and “Comparing and Contrasting” got 4.2%. Based on the results the most frequent critical thinking skills is “Attributing”, the most of this skill has been in the “pictures” with 29.2% and then within the “text” with 27.8% and finally within the “activities” with 6.9%.

Table 6 show the results of contingency tables between skills and the category for Year Three.

Table 6: The results of contingency tables between the skills and the category for Year Three

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR 3</th>
<th>CATEGORY</th>
<th>SKILLS</th>
<th>TEXT</th>
<th>PICTURES</th>
<th>ACTIVITIES</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Attributing</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>% within SKILLS</td>
<td>36.4%</td>
<td>45.5%</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
<td>6.0%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>13.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Comparing AND CONTRAST</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>% within SKILLS</td>
<td>40.0%</td>
<td>40.0%</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>6.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results in the table 4.3 shows that Chi-Square is not significant (Chi-Square = 16.3, df 10, P=.091), this means that there is no association between skills and three categories of the content analysis. From the results, “analyzing” got the most frequent with 44.0% of all skills, while “attributing” and “making conclusion” got 13.1% each, “sequencing” and “grouping and classifying” got 11.9% each and “comparing and contrasting” got 6.0%. Based on the results it is clear that the most frequent critical thinking skills is “analyzing”, the most of this skills have been in the “text” with 51.4% and then within the “picture” with 45.9% and finally within the “activities” with 2.7%.

To what extent there is a balance of critical thinking skills in the content of science textbooks of lower primary school?

Contingency tables (crosstabs tables) were used between the skills and the category (text, pictures, and activities) to answer the above question. Table 7 shows the results of contingency tables between skills and the category for the textbooks from year one until year three.

Table 7: The results of contingency tables between skills and the category of years one, year two and year three.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Skills (1)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9</td>
<td>By category</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Text</td>
<td>7 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 2</td>
<td>2 10 25.60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pictures</td>
<td>20 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
<td>20 51.30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Activities</td>
<td>6 5 2 1 0 0 0 0 0</td>
<td>9 23.10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Text</td>
<td>20 2 3 4 0 0 0 0 0</td>
<td>33 45.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pictures</td>
<td>21 0 3 5 0 0 0 0 0</td>
<td>30 41.70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Activities</td>
<td>5 1 3 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
<td>9 12.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Text</td>
<td>4 2 3 4 0 0 0 0 5</td>
<td>37 44.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pictures</td>
<td>5 2 4 5 0 0 17 0 1</td>
<td>34 40.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Activities</td>
<td>2 1 3 1 0 0 5 0 1</td>
<td>13 15.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>By skills</td>
<td>90 11 20 20 0 0 37 0 13</td>
<td>195</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Attributing (1), Comparing and Contrast (2), Grouping and Classifying (3), Sequencing (4), Prioritizing (5), Analyzing (6), Detecting Bias (7), Evaluation (8), Making Conclusions (9)
From the results in table 7, “attributing” got the most frequent with 46.0% of all skills, while “analysing” got 19%, “grouping and classifying” and “sequencing” got 10% each, “making conclusion” got 7% and “compare and contrast” got 6%. Plus, “prioritizing” and “detecting bias” got 0%. Moreover, year three science textbook got the most frequent with 43% of all years, while year two science textbook got 37% and year one science textbook got 20%. Based on the results, it is clear that the highest percentage of critical thinking skills infused in revised KSSR science textbook is in year three, with the most of this skills have been in the “text” with 44.0% and then within the “picture” with 40.50% and finally within the “activities” with 15.50%. The second highest percentage of critical thinking skills infused in revised KSSR science textbook is in year two, with the most of these skills have been in the “text” with 45.80% and then within the “picture” with 41.70% and finally within the “activities” with 12.50%. The lowest percentage of critical thinking skills infused in revised KSSR science textbook is in year one, with the most of these skills have been in the “pictures” with 51.30% and then within the “text” with 25.60% and finally within the “activities” with 23.10%.

Conclusions

For the revised KSSR of year one science textbook, the most frequent critical thinking skills is “attributing”, most of the skills have been in the pictures then within text and finally with the activities. Similarly, for revised KSSR of year two science textbook, the most frequent critical thinking skills is “attributing”, the most of this skill has been in “pictures” and next within “text” and finally within the “activities”.

On the other hand, the most frequent critical thinking skills in the third revised KSSR of year three science textbook is “analyzing”. The most of these skills have been in the “text” and then within the “picture” and finally within the “activities”. In year three science textbook, the quantity of “text” used to learn the critical thinking skill “analyzing” increases significantly compared to year one and year two science textbooks.

From all the three science textbooks, the highest percentage of critical thinking skills infused in revised KSSR science textbook is in year three, with the most of these skills have been in the “text” and then within the “picture” and finally within the “activities”. The second highest percentage of critical thinking skills infused in revised KSSR science textbook is in year two, with the most of these skills have been in the “text” with and then within the “picture” and finally within the “activities”. The lowest percentage of critical thinking skills infused in revised KSSR science textbook is in year one, with the most of these skills have been in the “pictures” and then within the “text” and finally within the “activities”.

From the results, it can be seen clearly that Prioritizing”, “evaluation” and “Detecting Bias” thinking skills are not included at all in the science textbook from year one until year three. While, the most frequent critical thinking skills in the revised KSSR of year one to year three science textbook are “attributing”, “analyzing”, “Grouping and Classifying” and “Sequencing” gradually.

The results show that the higher percentage of “pictures” for the "attributing" critical thinking skills infused in the Revised KSSR of year one and two science textbooks indeed gives incredible benefits for the children in the first two years.

References


Fake News in the Corporate World: A Rising Threat

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Abstract
Public opinion is used to thinking about fake news as a political phenomenon, a tool used to create dirty propaganda. It is true but it may be only the beginning. The literature is starting to realize that fake news may move from the political arena to the corporate world. If this should happen, fake news would overflow everywhere, making the post-factual society even more real. Fake news may become a dirty tool, used by dishonest companies to strike at their competitors’ reputation. The idea is that, till now, fake news has been used primarily for dirty propaganda and, marginally, to make money through the clickbait. However, since clickbait is a very basic approach, what we can expect is a breakthrough of fake news. From clickbait to much more sophisticated technologies and strategies to beat competitors dishonestly or to influence the global financial markets, for instance. A very dark big idea, in this case. It means that, in a post-factual society, even competition in the corporate world can be affected by fake news, fuelled by the abuse of new powerful technologies (Murgia M. and Kuchler H. 2017). The consequence is usually a decrease in sales and revenues, with a snowball effect. (Gupta S. 2016). Corporate reputation is an intangible as well as valuable asset. What makes it so valuable is that a good reputation can help the company to operate; on the other hand, a sullied reputation makes the company weaker and slower.

Keywords: corporate reputation; fake news; crisis communication.

Introduction

Method
The paper, through a narrative approach, investigates these emerging threat to corporate reputation.
The paper analyses scientific articles from international literature, in English, over last ten years.
We focus the research on a relatively recent period as fake news is basically a recent phenomenon. Or, to say better, the destabilizing effect of fake news is relatively recent.
The review also covers journalistic articles, which report data, insights or simple news, regarding the two subjects of the key questions.
In this case, the paper includes only articles coming from mainstream publications, printed as well as online.
Trying to pursue this objective, we have excluded articles not clearly reporting the name of the publication, author and date of publication.
In addition to that, all the articles have been checked through a web engine search, making sure they have been cited or linked by other mainstream media.

Fake news in the corporate world. A rising threat
Fake news and mass disinformation are techniques massively, and we can say traditionally, used by politicians during electoral campaigns.
In the following paragraphs we report some insights into how fake news may be used also to hit corporate reputation, aiming to weaken competitors or to create financial turmoil, the ideal background for speculation.

**Fake news and corporate reputation**

Castellani and Berton explain how corporate reputation can be affected by fake news. They also point out its effect in terms of that decline in sales, loss of value shares, image, credibility and trust.

Companies affected by heavy disinformation campaigns have reacted by promoting communication campaigns aimed at informing their stakeholders on their investment choices and underlying motivations in a timely and transparent manner. They tend to promote an integrated information communication through the creation of spots, the organization of conferences with experts, the management of specific portals, the opening of their factories to the public, as Ferrero did. It is a commitment to recovering the decline in stakeholder trust and to defending company’s integrity.

If the fake news constitutes an illicit, the enterprise may file a civil or criminal complaint as appropriate (Castellani, Berton, 2017, P. 7).

The authors investigate the palm oil issue and how, among others, Ferrero faced it.

On the other hand, as Gathman showed (see above, 3.1), the rational approach usually does not work, because users ground their behaviour on different and not rational variables.

That is why the authors say that, first of all, we need to understand the techniques used by manipulators. After this first step, companies, institutions and mainstream media, can set up their response to neutralize the effects of fake news.

Nobody has the right answer yet and maybe there is no single answer to do that. We want here only to underline the importance of defining a method and related processes, before answering.

Fake news is a consequence of a Copernican revolution: thanks to it, readers have become more than writers, they are now publishers.

Over the last decade, using tools easily accessible to all, anyone has been able to become a publisher of news, real or fake, and opinion, considered or not. Everyone can broadcast broadly via a variety of channels, most notably social media. This is a major change in the way information is disseminated, consumed, and used in society, and many businesses are still not understanding and responding to its ramifications.

The author explains how fake news in the corporate world can also create damage indirectly, affecting investors for instance.

Investors and funds increasingly are making trades based on sentiment analysis of social media trends, which means business news, fake or real, is generating immediate reaction just as political news, fake or real, does.

Twenty years ago, most people got their sense of the world from network news departments and newspapers that at least nominally followed broadly accepted editorial rules of fairness and objectivity. Consequently, there could be a generally accepted view on what was true, what was not, what was fair game, and what wasn’t. There also were generally agreed upon norms that prescribed the terms of partisan engagement or legitimate debate.

Today, there are hundreds of news sites on the internet, many highly partisan with little regard for those rules and norms, as news and opinion are distributed through social media channels with no editorial filter.

The author points out another important aspect of the rise of social media and its use in the corporate world, especially among financial organizations.

In business, this evolution has enabled social and financial shareholder activists, should they choose, to shred management reputations without having to get past the hurdles of editors at The Wall Street Journal or Financial Times. Indeed, using social media and setting up dedicated campaign websites have become standard operating procedures for activist investors seeking to change or influence management or company strategies, even as Twitter is becoming an increasingly important conduit for financial information, with many companies releasing their results there first. Not surprisingly, activists, such as Bill Ackman at Pershing Square Capital, have used Twitter to launch and conduct lengthy campaigns against companies
they have shorted. Ackman’s long battle with Herbalife, which he shorted to the tune of $1 billion, features a Pershing Square website dedicated to accusations against the company and its management, multiple YouTube videos, and a variety of tweets and blogs. Carl Icahn, who amassed more than 325,000 followers since first tweeting about Dell in June 2013, and David Einhorn of Greenlight Capital, who is shorting the hydraulic fracking sector, are others in a long list doing exactly the same.

Companies need to understand that communications tools and rules have changed or risk becoming vulnerable. To control, or at least influence, the narrative about them, all businesses need to up their communications game with shareholders, employees, and the public. In effect, they need to become publishers (Reilly, 2017 https://www.prweek.com/article/1426241/business-communicate-age-twitter-fake-news).

Fake news affects corporate reputation basically in every market. A recent survey has investigated this phenomenon in Italy, with interesting results.

Almost one company in two, had to plan some investments to face fake news and to protect their reputation. In addition, in the last 18 months, 48% of the companies interviewed have had to manage a crisis sparked by fake news (Centromarca, 2018).

Case studies

It can be useful to report some companies attacked by fake news or cases of a direct impact of fake news on the corporate world.

Financial organizations, especially if listed, seem particularly sensitive, therefore vulnerable, to fake news. Unscrupulous parties can now leverage the mechanisms of new media technology and new financial technology to disrupt and distort financial markets on an unprecedented scale by disseminating bad data, fake news, and faulty information into a marketplace that thrives on accurate information.

Lin reports some examples of dissemination of fake news. It includes also hacking, but this has not been taken into consideration by the present paper, as we want to keep the paper focused on fake news, excluding hacking or similar crimes.

With mass misinformation schemes, parties can manipulate the marketplace through fake regulatory filings, fictitious news reports, erroneous data, and hacking. Because the new financial marketplace is so reliant on interconnected information and communications systems, a distortion to one source of information can have a large, volatile cascading effect on the greater marketplace in the short run, and a confidence-jarring effect on the greater marketplace in the long run.

It is interesting to see the financial damage estimated by the author.

A successful mass misinformation scheme for a widely held company like Apple, Facebook, or General Electric could have a monetary impact measured in the billions of dollars and affect a significant population of investors since those companies make up large positions in retirement accounts.

And again “in 2015, a man in Bulgaria submitted fake takeover bids for Avon and Rocky Mountain Chocolate via the SEC’s EDGAR electronic filing system to manipulate the stock prices of those companies. Avon shares rose over 20% because of the false filing and were temporarily halted from trading. Later in 2015, fraudsters created a fake Bloomberg News website to tout a non-existent takeover of Twitter. The fake news report caused Twitter shares to increase by 7% before crashing after the hoax was exposed (Lin T. C. W., 2017, P. 1292, 1293).

Another relevant example is about Starbucks, when tweets advertising ‘Dreamer Day’, in which the coffee chain would supposedly give out free frappuccinos to undocumented migrants in the US, spread at lightning speed online.

Advertisements including the company’s logo, signature font and pictures of its drinks were circulated with the hashtag ‘#borderfreecoffee’. But it was dreamt up by a hoaxer.

The company tried to chase the incredibly rapid fake news. Starbucks raced to deny the event, replying to individuals on Twitter that it was ‘completely false’ and that people had been ‘completely misinformed’.
Yet the rapid spread of the fake news showed again the power of social platforms to damage reputations, and illustrated how companies are having to be more vigilant and creative in responding.

Snopes, the fact checker, compiles a top 50 of ‘hot’ fake news stories, and in a recent week 12 were about companies (Kuchler H., 2017 https://www.ft.com/content/afe1f902-82b6-11e7-94e2-c5b903247afdf).

In other circumstances, hoaxes can affect not only one company but the entire Stock Exchange Index, as happened in Germany at the beginning of June 2018.

A number of German media outlets fell prey to a false news report on Friday, after a satirist claimed on Twitter that Interior Minister Horst Seehofer had pulled the plug on his party’s alliance with Angela Merkel’s Christian Democrats.

The tweet — which came amid a tense row over migration policy that has thrown Merkel’s conservative bloc into crisis and spread fears of a government collapse — caused the national stock exchange index to fall and briefly sparked discussions in parliament (Golod V., 2018 https://www.politico.eu/article/angela-merkel-jittery-germany-duped-by-fake-news/).

Main findings

The new threats are especially represented by a dishonest (or even criminal) use of new technologies, which allow fake news makers to create more pervasive and dangerous hoaxes.

Unlike “traditional” fake news, text based, the new ones are based on the power of the image (CGI). It is particularly insidious as it is grounded on the general belief that everything you can see is true.

The new generation of fake news may be created for financial speculation, attacking the reputation of companies, financial organisations or even entire industries. Market manipulation may become much easier in the near future.

It is desirable that Governments, main stream media and companies get more aware of the forthcoming second generation fake news, so called deep fake.

References


Workplace Bullying and Psychological Distress in Public Institutions in Ghana

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Abstract

Sex differences and psychological distress associated with workplace bullying were investigated in a total of 1,273 employees in three public institutions in Ghana. The effect of level of occupation (junior vs. senior) was also explored. Victimization from bullying was measured with an abbreviated version of the Work Harassment Scale (WHS-7), and mental health associations with workplace bullying were assessed with an indicator of psychological distress (General Health Questionnaire, GHQ-12). 19.1% of the respondents had been bullied “often” or “very often”. There were no sex differences in frequency of victimisation from bullying. Occupational status was significantly associated with bullying: junior staff members reported higher levels of victimisation from bullying and higher levels of psychological distress than senior staff members. Workplace bullying appears to be common in public institutions in Ghana, and has significant negative outcomes for individuals, especially junior staff members. The findings have implications for policy-makers, employers, and employees.

Keywords: workplace bullying, sex differences, public institutions, Ghana

Introduction

In the past two decades, workplace aggression has attracted a great deal of public attention (Barling, Dupre, & Kelloway, 2009) due to its far-reaching consequences for employees’ wellbeing (Bowless, 2012; Francis, 2013). Exposure to workplace bullying from different sources (supervisors, co-workers, and outsiders) has been found to be associated with increased intent to turnover, emotional exhaustion, depression, interpersonal and organisational deviance, decreased job satisfaction, decreased affective commitment, and psychological and physical well-being (Carter, Thompson, Crampton, Morrow, Burford, Gray, & Illing, 2013; Herschovis & Barling, 2010b).

Although the phenomenon has most commonly been referred to as workplace bullying, other terms with a similar connotation have been used: e.g. intimidation, harassment, victimisation, aggression, emotional abuse, psychological harassment, and mistreatment at the workplace (Ariza-Montes, Muniz, Montero-Simo, & Araque-Padilla, 2013).

Although there is a lack of agreement on a single definition of workplace bullying (Spector, 2011), most researchers agree upon that workplace bullying encompasses a range of aggressive behaviours that occur between individuals, and are repeated systematically and over a period of time at the workplace (Ireland, Archer, & Power, 2007; Varti-Väänänen, 2013). Bullying differs from usual conflicts in the sense that there usually is a power imbalance between bully and victim, and the behaviour is persistent and, if unchecked, tends to escalate until the victim is forced out of the work force. In research, however, it is often difficult to ascertain whether aggressive behaviour at the workplace is bullying or “regular” aggression.

Most definitions have focused on the essential characteristics of the phenomenon (Branch, Ramsay, & Baker, 2013; Nielsen, Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2008). Research typically focuses on the perceptions and experiences
of the victim, and operationalisations of the concept may differ with regard to duration, frequency, intent to harm, and behaviour included to understand workplace bullying (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2011).

As indicated above, workplace bullying can take many forms, and is sometimes difficult to perceive. Forms of workplace bullying may be direct, indirect, verbal or nonverbal, and they involve “overt acts” – such as threats or actual aggression, demands for resignation, and verbal assault, or “subtle acts” such as teasing, gossip or banter (Frances-Louise, 2015). In the context of the workplace, indirect aggression may be the preferred type of aggression since it is, in cost-benefit terms, a cheaper form of aggression than direct forms (Björkqvist, 1994; Björkqvist, Österman, & Kaukiainen, 1992). However, a bullying senior staff member might like his presence to be felt by victims, e.g. by overloading them with tasks, or by refusing to give them meaningful assignments, just to show his power.

Explanations for workplace bullying are classified into three categories: (1) enabling structures (e.g. perceived power imbalances, low perceived costs, and dissatisfaction and frustration), (2) motivating structures or incentives (e.g. internal competition, reward systems, and expected benefits), and (3) precipitating processes or triggering circumstances (e.g. downsizing and restructuring, organizational changes, changes in the composition of the work group) (Salin, 2003). Oftentimes, there is an interaction of these factors.

Prevalences of Workplace Bullying Worldwide

Workplace bullying is undoubtedly common (Branch et al., 2013). Depending on how questions are put and which definition of bullying is provided (Carter, Thompson, Crampton, Morrow, Burford, Gray, & Illing, 2013), discrepancies with regards to the prevalence of the phenomenon have been reported; e.g., in Northern Europe, 4% to 5% of employees are estimated to have experienced workplace bullying (Nielsen, Skogstad, Matthiesen, Glaso, Aasland, Notelaers, Einarsen, 2009). This is in stark contrast to Southern Europe, where approximately 15% of employees report having been bullied (Nielsen, Hetland, Matthiesen, Einarsen, 2012). In South Africa, as many as 31% report experiences of workplace bullying (Cunniff & Mostert, 2012).

Prevalence rates vary considerably across studies (Carter et al., 2013) and the culture in which the study is conducted; e.g., the majority of studies within Europe show that between 10% and 15% of the workforce are exposed to workplace bullying (Zapf & Einarsen, 2011), and North American studies report similar prevalence rates (Keashly & Jagatic, 2011). Venetoklis and Kettunen (2015) reported that 20.3% of public sector employees working in 12 Finnish ministries experienced work-related bullying multiple times per month, whereas 11.3% reported experiencing personal-level bullying. A review of 88 prevalence studies across 20 European countries found a huge variation, reporting prevalences between 0.3% to 86.5%, depending on the question and definition used (Zapf, Escartin, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia, 2010).

A South African study of bullying in the mining industry found that 27% of employees were bullied over the previous 6 months, and 39.6% reported a negative act over the previous week (South African Board for People Practices, 2018).

Cultural Differences in Workplace Bullying

The prevalence of workplace bullying varies not only according to employees’ perceptions (Ireland, 2006), but also according to their national culture (Moayed, Daraiseh, Shell, & Salem, 2006). A 2011 survey of workers worldwide including 16,517 respondents found that overall 35% had experienced some form workplace violence.

Cultural characteristics and social change can partly explain these variations in the prevalence rates, e.g., countries such as those in Southern Europe (e.g., Spain), characterised by a higher power distance and more uncertainty avoidance, show a high rate of bullying (Moreno-Jimenez, Rodriguez-Munoz, Salin, & Benadero, 2008), whereas countries in Northern Europe, which are characterised by negative attitudes towards signs of abuse of power, low power distance, feminine values, and individualism, are more likely to have a lower threshold for reporting inappropriate behaviours (Einarsen, 2000). Nations that rank high in power distance and low in uncertainty avoidance will be more inclined to bullying. If so, workplace bullying would be expected to be more common in African and some Asian societies in comparison with European countries. For instance Malaysia ranks high in power distance and low in uncertainty avoidance, and the country reports high levels of workplace
bullying at the corporate level (Kwan, Tuckey, & Dollard, 2014). Accordingly, to understand workplace bullying, it is necessary to also take into account the cultural context in which it occurs.

**Victim’s Rank and Victimisation**

Bullying occurs in most organisations and industries and at all levels, e.g. as managers against subordinates (downwards bullying), and among colleagues (horizontal bullying).

The majority of perpetrators of bullying have been found to be managers, where males formed 62% of bullies (Cobb, 2012). In a survey conducted by Namie (2017), 61% of perpetrators had a higher rank than their targets; 33% of perpetrators were peers with the same rank as their targets, and 6% of perpetrators were subordinates who bullied targets with a higher rank than themselves. In 7% of cases, the bullying was generated by a combination of perpetrators operating at different levels of the organization – bosses, peers, and subordinates.

In Finland and Sweden, perpetrators of workplace bullying are more often colleagues than individuals higher in rank, whereas superiors and colleagues at the same level in the organisation bullied their targets in approximately equal numbers in Norway (Vartia-Väänänen, 2013). However, British studies constantly find superiors and line-managers to be the main perpetrators; 52% of respondents in the transport and communication sector were bullied exclusively by their superiors; in 19 European countries, 65.4% of targets were bullied by superiors.

**Sex Differences in Workplace Bullying**

Despite extensive studies conducted into sex differences in workplace bullying, results concerning sex differences have often been inconsistent and unclear; e.g., in a study conducted in the EU-27 countries, women reported being bullied or slightly bullied more often (4.4%) than men (3.9%) e.g., in the Netherlands (females 9.4%, males 6.3%), Finland (females 8.2%, males 4.2%), and in Denmark (females 3.9%, 2.5% males). In some countries, no sex difference was found, e.g., Germany (both females and males 4.6%). However, in a few countries, men reported being bullied at least to some extent more often than women, e.g., France (females 8.4%, males 10.5%) and Greece (females 2.8%, males 3.7%) (Vartia-Väänänen, 2013). These differences could indicate that gender-related experiences of workplace bullying may be cultural and country-specific.

Employees bully an individual of the same sex more often than an individual of the opposite sex: Namie (2017) found that females bullied other females in 67% of cases, and males bullied other males in 65% of cases.

In cases where males are the minority at a workplace, they tend to report being bullied more than the female majority, while female exposure to workplace bullying was reduced when working with male superiors (Wang & Hsieh, 2015). The sex of perpetrator and victim have interactive impacts on the level of downward bullying. However, victims in within-sex dyads report higher levels of overall downward workplace bullying than those in between-sex dyads (McCormack, Djukovic, Nsubuga-Kyobe, & Casimir, 2018).

Studies that explored sex differences in perceptions and victims’ reactions found that women were more likely than men to label their negative experiences as bullying (Olafsson & Johannsdottir, 2004; Salin, 2003), and rated negative acts as more severe than men did, especially when items were related to emotional abuse, social isolation, and professional discrediting (Escartin, Salin, &Rodriguez-Caballeira, 2011).

When men experience workplace bullying, they are more often than women likely to challenge their bullies, and do not ask for help, whereas women are more often than men likely to use avoidance strategies (e.g., absenteeism), look for social help, or take no action (Olafsson & Johannsdottir, 2004).

Women tend to report higher scores for coping dimensions as a reaction to workplace mistreatment (Cortina, Lonsway, Magley, Freeman, Collinsworth, Hunter, & Fitzgerald, 2002). This could be interpreted to indicate that women feel more strongly affected than men by negative acts. Verbal abuse has been shown to be related with decreased confusion in men, but with increased confusion in women (Brotheridge & Lee, 2010), an indication of an active coping strategy among men and a more passive one in women.

These studies underline the importance of sex in how experiences of workplace bullying are interpreted, evaluated, and reacted to. Women tend to perceive more bullying than men in their workplace, which perhaps...
is an indication of women being more sensitive to bullying than men, or more eager to report behaviours that male bystanders would not describe as bullying. This fact raises the question as to whether perceptions and emotional responses accurately measure frequencies of workplace bullying.

Gender-role socialisation theory (e.g. Eagerly, 2007) highlights the difference of roles and norms of accepted behaviour for men and women, i.e. of what society expects from them. Applied to bullying, men are traditionally expected and permitted to exhibit more direct aggression than women; hence there may be a higher number of men among bullies (Zapf & Einarsen, 2011), while women’s choice of more indirect forms of aggression, such as social manipulation, falls within gender stereotypes.

Consistent with gender and power theory, all societies comprise power hierarchies, where one or more social groups dominate other groups (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). Men have better access to resources and a better social standing in society. More men than women have managerial and superior positions, and given that bullying is more often a downwards than an upwards process (Zapf & Einarsen, 2011), the gender and power theory explains how men and women have different access to certain bullying techniques and defence strategies, and how bullying may be used to maintain existing structures.

The social identity theory of intergroup discrimination (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) also helps to highlight differences in the interpretation of bullying between males and females. By identifying with a male perpetrator, they make judgements that favour a member of the in-group (Bowes-Sperry & O’Leary-Kelly, 2005).

The Impact of Workplace Bullying

Experiencing systematic and lengthy non-physical and non-sexual aggressive behaviours at work is highly injurious to the victim’s health (Einarsen, 2000). Victims of workplace bullying experience significant negative effects, not only from individual perpetrators but also from the organisation; workplace bullying is a significant source of work-related stress characterised by emotional exhaustion, interpersonal and organisational deviance, decreased job satisfaction, and low affective commitment (Carter et al., 2013; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010b), as well as increased psychological distress, typically including anxiety and depression (Carter et al., 2013; Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2010).

The human cost of workplace bullying has consequences also for organisations, since victims experiencing emotional and psychological impairments are more likely to be absent due to sickness (Kivimäki, Elovainio, & Vahtera, 2000; Sprigg, Martin, Niven, & Armitage, 2010), lack affective commitment, and more often have intentions to quit (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Carter et al., 2013; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010b).

No sex differences have been found in the health impact of victimisation from bullying; e.g., Vartia and Hyytö (2002) found that gender did not influence levels of stress experienced by victims. Similar results were found by Cotina et al. (2002) in a study on incivility. However, in a study on ostracism and exclusion in the workplace – an important aspect of bullying – Hitlan, Cliftton, and DeSoto (2006) concluded that high levels of exclusion had a more negative impact on men’s psychological health than women.

The Current Study: Workplace Bullying among Ghanaian Employees

Over the past decades, an increasing number of studies emanating from the Scandinavian and Anglo-American nations have shown the extent to which workplaces offer an environment in which bullying can thrive.

Although sexual harassment in the workplace has been extensively studied in Ghana, unfortunately, there is no official record indicating the extent of other forms of bullying in Ghanaian workplaces, not to mention sex differences in these behaviours (Asamani, 2010). There have been some studies exploring violence in the health sector, specifically against nurses (Boafo, Hancock & Gringart, 2015; Boafo & Hancock, 2017). For these reasons, little is known about workplace bullying in Ghana.

Elsewhere on the African continent, a cross-sectional field study explored the prevalence of workplace bullying in South Africa in a sample comprising 13,911 employees, and found that 31.1% of the sample had experienced workplace bullying (Cunniff & Mostert, 2012). In another South African study, the nature and prevalence of workplace bullying were investigated in two distinct workplaces, the South African National Defence Force
(SANDF) and Power Group, in the Western Cape, South Africa. Kalamdien (2013), found that between 30% and 50% of respondents had been bullied in the respective workplaces. More men than women were reported as perpetrators, and those in leadership positions were more often reported to be perpetrators of workplace bullying than colleagues/peers, subordinates, or clients.

When Jacob and Wet (2013) conducted an exploratory study on South African teachers exposed to bullying with self-report questionnaires in a sample of 999, they found that as many as 90.8% of participants had been victims of workplace bullying in the 12 months that preceded the study, and 89.1% of victims had been exposed to the two most common types of bullying, namely behaviours that undermine their professional status, and behaviour causing isolation. These are extraordinary high bullying rates, which may be due to how bullying was operationalised.

Owoyemi (2010) describes workplace bullying in Nigeria, as an undiagnosed antisocial problem which may be endemic, and which occurs as a result of unequal power between two individuals or a group of people, and another individual and/or a group of people in the workplace, but did not provide percentages of prevalence.

Some researchers (e.g., DeKeseredy, 2011; Dragiewicz & Lindgren, 2009) suggest that in a patriarchal society, males use violence against females as a way of preserving male dominance, since individual male domination is crucial for maintaining patriarchal domination at the societal level. Therefore, in Ghana, a patriarchal society, one can expect to find a higher frequency of males’ aggression compared to that of females. Although intimate partner aggression is contextually different from workplace aggression, females in Ghana have been found to be more likely than males to use low intensity aggression, including physical, indirect, nonverbal, and cyber aggression types against their male partners (Darko, Björkqvist, & Österman, 2018). This gives a context to understand the complexity of sex differences in aggression in Ghana.

Method

Participants

Eight experienced research assistants, all of whom had completed their Master’s level studies in psychology at the University of Ghana, Accra, and who had experience in conducting research, were employed to assist in the data collection. They were well-informed about the importance of getting a representative sample.

The sample was drawn from individuals from five different ethnic groups in three different cities in Ghana, representing the main ethnic and religious groups forming the fabric of Ghanaian society, and drawn from the public sector (teachers, nurses, and office staff). The sampling technique was based on approaching participants in person. No questionnaire was sent by mail. Two main principles were applied: (1) to identify individuals who were employed within the public sector; (2) to reach out to as varied societal strata as possible, in order to ensure representativeness. The inclusion criterion was to reach a variety of participants as wide as possible to make the sample representative for the employees in public institutions in the cities of Tamale, Nsawam, and Accra; the exclusion criterion was to exclude individuals who would create an imbalance in representation.

To allow respondents to complete the questionnaires independently, without any influence or fear from their bullies, the research assistants asked participants individually and privately if they would like to answer some questions about workplace bullying.

A total of 1, 273 (654 females, 618 males) employees from three different cities in Ghana: Tamale, Nsawam, and Accra, filled the criteria and were selected to represent the various ethnic and religious groups forming the fabric of Ghanaian society. Tamale is the fourth largest city of Ghana, with most residents being either Christians or Muslims. Nsawam is situated in the southern part of Ghana and populated mostly by the largest ethnic group of Ghana, the Akans. Data were also collected from the capital, Accra. Participants were selected from the five main ethnic groups in Ghana: Akan - 260 females, 264 males; Ewe – 114 females, 80 males; Mole-Dagbane – 79 females, 85 males; Guan – 91 females, 94 males; Ga – Adangbe 110 females, 96 males. In addition to this, 31 females and 28 males with disability also participated. Therefore, the sample should be relatively representative for Ghanaian society of today.
The participants were over 18 years of age and all were employed in the public sector. They all voluntarily agreed to participate in the study. Data on the level of occupation (junior vs senior staff member) were collected.

The age difference between males (mean age 40.4 yrs., SD = 11.6) and females (mean age 40.2 yrs., SD = 11.3) was not significant. Females formed 52.4 % of the participants compared to males forming 47.6%, and there were more male (52.3 %) than female (47.7%) senior staff members.

Instruments

The experience of workplace bullying was measured with the Work Harassment Scale (WHS-24) (Björkqvist & Österman, 1994). The instrument was introduced in Björkqvist, Österman, and Hjelt-Bäck (1994) and in Björkqvist, Österman, and Lagerspetz (1994). Participants assessed how often they felt they had been exposed to 24 types of degrading and oppressing activities by their colleagues during the last half year, on a 5-point scale (0 = never, 1 = seldom, 2 = occasionally, 3 = often, and 4 = very often). In the instructions, it was emphasised that these activities must have been clearly experienced as a means of harassment, not as normal communication, or as exceptional occasions. The 24 items are presented in Table 1.

When the reliability of WHS-24 in the current sample was assessed with Cronbach's alpha, it did not reach a sufficient internal consistency (α > .70). It was obvious that a detailed item analysis had to be conducted and the number of items had to be reduced. An exploratory factor analysis with a three-factor solution (principal component, varimax rotation with Kaiser normalisation) was conducted, explaining 29 % of the variance. The three factors are presented in Table 1. Factor loadings > .40 are highlighted.

Table 1. Factor Loadings Based on Principal Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation of the Original Work Harassment Scale (WHS-24) (N = 1, 272).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WHS-24 Item Description</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unduly reduced opportunities to express yourself</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lies about you told to others</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being unduly disrupted</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being shouted at loudly</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being unduly criticised</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insulting comments about your private life</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being isolated</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having sensitive details about your private life revealed</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct threats</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insinuative glances and/ or negative gestures</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accused wrongly</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being sneered at</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refusal to speak with you</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belittling your opinions</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refusal to hear you</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being treated as non-existent</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Words aimed at hurting you</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being given meaningless tasks</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being given insulting tasks</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malicious rumours spread behind your back</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ridiculed in front of others</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having your work judged incorrectly and in an insulting manner</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having your sense of judgement questioned</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusations of being mentally disturbed</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The items with high loadings in factor 1 were selected for a revised version of WHS, a seven item version, here referred to as WHS-7, which yielded an internal consistency score of α = .79. This version was used in the present study. The items in this revised version are presented in Table 2.

To examine the association between workplace bullying and mental health, the 12-item version of the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12, Goldberg, 1988) was added to the test battery, as an indicator of psychological distress. The GHQ-12 has been used extensively in various settings across different cultures (Kim, Cho, & Park, 2013). The GHQ is usually scored as a Likert scale (Goldberg & Williams, 1994, Politi, Piccinelli, & Wilkinson, 1994). The psychometric properties of GHQ-12 have been examined (Glozah & Pevalin, 2015), and it has been used in studies in Ghana (Abledu & Abledu, 2012; Kekesi & Badu, 2014), and in South Africa (Bernstein & Trimm, 2016). In the current study, the α-score of the measure was .76 (cf. Table 3).

**Ethical considerations**

The study adhered to the principles concerning human research ethics of the Declaration of Helsinki (World Medical Association, 2013), as well as the guidelines for the responsible conduct of research of The Finnish Advisory Board on Research Integrity (2012). Participation was voluntary without any form of economic or other incentive; all participants were adults, and the research was conducted with informed consent, strict anonymity, and confidentiality.

**Table 2. Cronbach’s Alpha and Items of the Scale Measuring Workplace Bullying with an Abbreviated Version of the Work Harassment Scale (WHS-7) (N = 1,287)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WHS-7, α = .79</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unduly reduced opportunities to express yourself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being unduly criticised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belittling of your opinions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being given meaningless tasks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being ridiculed in front of others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having your work judged incorrectly and in an insulting manner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having your sense of judgment questioned</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3. Cronbach’s Alpha and Items of the Short Version of General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12, Goldberg & Williams, 1988) (N = 1,287)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GHQ-12, α = .76</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have you recently been able to concentrate on whatever you’re doing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you recently lost much sleep over worry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you recently felt that you were playing a useful part in things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you recently felt capable of making decisions about things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you recently felt constantly under strain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you recently felt you couldn’t overcome your difficulties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you recently been able to enjoy your normal day-to-day activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you recently been able to face up to problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you recently been feeling unhappy or depressed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Have you recently been losing confidence in yourself

Have you recently been thinking of yourself as a worthless person

Have you recently been feeling reasonably happy, all things considered

Results

The means and SDs of scores on WHS-7 and GHQ-12 by female and male junior and senior staff members are presented in Table 4. Of the total sample, 19.1% scored ≥ 3 on WHS-7, implying that they at an average scored “often” or “very often” on the items measuring workplace bullying. It should therefore be safe to conclude that about 19% of the sample experienced themselves as victims of workplace bullying.

The two measures correlated highly with each other: .45 for females, and .52 for males. This finding shows that there is, indeed, a clear association between scores on workplace bullying and psychological distress.

A two-way multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed, with sex (male vs. female) and staff status (junior vs. senior) as independent variables, and WHS-7 and GHQ-12 as dependent variables. The multivariate analysis revealed that there was no effect of sex on the two dependent variables [$F(2, 1267) = 0.139$, $p = .871$, $\eta_p^2 = .000$]; neither was the interaction effect between sex and staff status significant [$F(2, 1267) = 0.118$, $p = .889$, $\eta_p^2 = .000$]. However, the multivariate effect of staff status was significant [$F(2, 1267) = 6145.546$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .890$].

The univariate analyses revealed a staff status effect on both WHS-7 scores [$F(1, 1268) = 4624.231$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .785$] and on GHQ-12 scores [$F(1, 1268) = 3315.025$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .723$]. In both cases, junior staff members scored higher than senior staff members.

Table 4. Means and Standard Deviations of the WHS-7 and GHQ-12 in a Ghanaian Workplace Sample (Females = 654, Males = 681)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Occupation</th>
<th>Junior Staff</th>
<th>Senior Staff</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Females</td>
<td>Males</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$M$</td>
<td>$SD$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Harassment</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>0.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GHQ</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

The purpose of the current study was to assess possible sex difference in experiences of workplace bullying, as measured with WHS-7, among employees of public institutions in Ghana. A second aim was to examine whether there was a difference between junior and senior level staff members regarding experiences of workplace bullying. A third aim was to investigate whether there was an association between scores on workplace bullying and symptoms of psychological distress, as measured with GHQ-12.

Until now, there has been no official record on workplace bullying in Ghana, although the prevalence has been thought to be “alarming” (Asamani, 2010).

The findings showed no sex differences in experiences of workplace bullying in the examined sample. In comparison with other studies conducted worldwide, it is consistent with some of them, such as findings from Germany (Vartia-Väänänen, 2013). However, women have been found to be victimised slightly more than men in Finland, Denmark, and the Netherlands (ibid.).
This result is intriguing, because Ghana is considered to be a highly patriarchal society, and previous studies (DeKeseredy, 2011; Dragiewicz & Lindgren, 2009) have argued that in such societies, males use violence against females to preserve their dominance. However, in a recent study conducted by Darko et al. (2019), more males than females were found to be victimised from low intensity aggression in intimate partner relationships. Therefore, the current study, which found that male and female employees were equally often victimised at both junior and senior staff levels, may reflect a trend in Ghana where victims of workplace bullying were victimised based on other factors than sex per se.

Given that workplace bullying is more often a downwards rather than an upwards process, and considering the fact there would be more males occupying managerial positions in Ghana, the lack of a sex difference in victimisation is a bit surprising. This result may be a confirmation that the use of aggression between males and females in Ghanaian workplaces may not be influenced by sex after all. This finding, in combination with the aforementioned one by Darko et al. (2019) concerning intimate partner aggression, suggests that Ghanaian society appears to be moving towards increased egalitarianism between males and females.

Compared with senior staff employees, junior staff members were victimised by workplace bullying to a higher degree. These results are consistent with previous studies, which found managers to be perpetrators to a higher degree than others than same-level colleagues (Cobb, 2012; Namie, 2017).

For workplace bullying to occur without sanctions, there must be an organisational culture supportive of the abusive and negative acts. If victims, who more often are junior staff members, feel no action is taken when bullying is reported, managers would feel they have the support of the organisation, at least implicitly. Possibly, organisations perceive perpetrators as strict disciplinarians who make the organisation profit from their disciplinary actions. Compliance and discipline are necessary conditions for downwards directed workplace bullying to continue. Strict emphasis on power relations and discipline may make bullying and abusive acts seem acceptable and normal, and managers may even be rewarded, e.g., for promotion, for being strict.

It is clear in the Nordic countries, where organisational structure and culture enforce strict rules against bullying, abusive acts against staff members are less prevalent compared to countries in Southern Europe and especially Africa, where it might be perceived as bosses only are being ‘strict’.

In many countries in the Southern hemisphere, governments have created huge public institutions which have become over-staffed and badly funded. The state ultimately becomes the biggest, single employer. Unfortunately, workplace aggression is more likely to occur in the public sector than in the private industry (U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board, 2012).

Like in many aspects of human institutions, these organisations grow to have their own traditions, values, and institutional culture. Enabling structures such as power imbalances coupled with a colonial legacy of the authoritarian manager, allow the workplace to become a fertile ground for bullying. Social learning within these organisations makes sure bullying is learnt and continued, creating a next generation of senior staff who would victimise their junior staff members, and show poor skills of conflict resolution. Victimised individuals may be expected to report their bullying experiences to their managers; however, if the perpetrators are the managers themselves, it might feel useless for the victims to report.

Since the analysis of this study was made based on cross-sectional data, causal associations between workplace bullying and psychological distress cannot be claimed with certainty, although they appear likely. It cannot be excluded that individuals who originally might have felt a high degree of psychological distress might also see and experience bullying differently than others.

Notwithstanding, the current study highlights the prevalence of workplace bullying in Ghana and the psychological distress associated with it, in particular among junior staff members. The findings have significant implications for policy-makers and senior staff members. The clear relationship between workplace bullying and psychological distress should inform about the need to implement serious measures to eradicate workplace bullying.

To minimise the use of aggression in the workplace, both individual and organisational steps need to be taken. Victimisation occurs in the public sector more often than in the private sector; therefore, the amount of awareness amongst governments and their employees should be raised, at both organisational and national levels. Public campaigns and organisational rules, punishable by law, needs to be enforced. At the individual level, whatever barriers preventing victims from acting to
protect themselves and stop workplace bullying must be removed, and victims should be encouraged to act when they experience unfair and discriminatory treatment. These measures could include anonymous reporting to prevent recrimination, and real, practical action taken after initial report. Unless organisations grasp bullying’s harmful effects on the employees and work performance, it would be very challenging to overcome it.

National culture and the national gender situation may influence the experience of bullying differently; e.g., Northern Europe typically reports lower levels of exposure to negative acts than Southern Europe. Therefore, bullying behaviours that are perceived to be an acceptable price to pay for performance must be discouraged, and the cultural perception of ‘boss’ and ‘subordinates’, must be redefined through national campaigns aiming at national and cultural behaviour change. Irrespective of context, bullying is an aggressive behaviour that needs to be discouraged.

The present study on workplace bullying in Ghana needs to be followed up in both Ghana and other African nations. Future studies could widen the scope to cover what bullying means in the African context, since many nations in Africa do not even have a term for what is known as ‘bullying’ in the Western culture.

References


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Teacher Attrition and School Leaders’ Capacity for Leading, Practices and Behaviors – A Comparative Study

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Abstract
Teacher attrition, as part of the bigger issue of teacher shortage, has caused increasing concerns in the past decades for both policymakers and educational leaders. Its negative effects impact various aspects of a school. Historically struggling schools serving students in poverty areas are perennially and negatively affected by high turnover rates at deeper levels. Building on existing literature that examines the correlation between school contextual factors and teacher attrition, this study examines the responses of 300+ teachers from Western and Southeast Michigan, gathered through a 24-questions survey. Data was analyzed against the study’s research questions using the Cronbach’s alpha test and one-way ANOVA. For the first research question, the study looked at the effects of the school principal and his/her leadership capacity on the teachers’ decision to leave a school, a school district, or the teaching profession altogether. The second research question dealt with differences related to how teachers from various backgrounds were affected by the quality of their school principals and work environments. The findings support the study’s hypothesis that the principal’s role in building a positive school culture, along with the principal’s behaviors, practices, and leadership capacity significantly affect teacher satisfaction and retention. Some differences do exist with respect to how teachers from various grade levels are affected by their learning environments (including principal leadership), and to what organizational factors influence their decisions to stay.

Keywords: teacher attrition, retention, principal leadership

Introduction and Background
Teacher shortage is far from being a US problem. As of 2015, 93 countries in the world have experienced a shortage of teachers (The Borgen Project, 2015). Statisticians predict that more than 69 million new teachers would be needed by 2030 to teach the world’s children (UNESCO, 2009). More than half of those would be needed to replace teachers quitting the profession or retiring (UN News, 2016). Schools serving children from poverty are significantly more impacted by this crisis than affluent schools. Teacher shortages have been frequently associated with teacher attrition. The constant revolving door – especially for early career teachers in American schools – has been an increasing concern for both educational leaders and policymakers. Unlike teacher shortages, early career teacher attrition doesn’t seem to be a problem spread globally (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2005). However, a number of Western countries have experienced same negative effects as the United States – especially Ireland, Australia, Spain, Britain, Sweden, and Canada (UNESCO, 2009).

In the United States, teacher turnover has had negative and costly effects on school finances, student achievement, staff morale, instructional continuity, parent satisfaction, and school culture. According to a report from Alliance for Excellent Education (2014), “roughly half a million U.S. teachers either move or leave the profession each year—attrition that costs the United States up to $2.2 billion annually”. Earlier studies also establish the financial impact that attrition has on organizations. In examining the cost of teacher attrition, Watlington, Shockley, Guglielmino, & Felsher, (2010) show that the cost of early attrition is not only economic: when highly effective teachers leave their classrooms, the impact on both student achievement and school budgets are “significant and deleterious” (Watlington et al., 2010).

High teacher attrition rates destabilize schools and rob the remaining staff of opportunities to grow professionally. While teacher expertise is developed in three to seven years, teachers are not staying in education long enough to become highly
skilled. In the United States alone, 40% of new teachers are leaving the profession within their first five years, with almost half of the teachers leaving from highly impoverished schools in rural or urban areas, or schools teaching large populations of minority students (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2014). Students learning from uncertified, inexperienced, or ineffective teachers struggle academically and are more likely to fall behind and drop out of school. Approximately 30% of these teachers leave for personal reasons. What about the others? And what role does teacher retention play in the bigger scheme of teacher shortage?

The reasons for teacher attrition have been studied frequently and from various perspectives: as a function of the teachers' individual characteristics, as influenced by economic necessities, and from a sociological perspective – that of the organization itself. While changing the individual characteristics of people or influencing the economic growth might prove to be daunting tasks, improving teachers' work conditions and feelings of self-efficacy are areas that educational leaders and policymakers could address.

At the organizational level, key contextual factors influencing a teacher’s decision to stay may include the composition of the student population; hiring practices; the availability of resources for instructional spending; workload; teacher compensation and benefits; lack of collegiality; administrative support; and availability of professional development (Corbell, Osborne, & Reiman, 2010; Le Maistre & Pare, 2010). Not surprisingly, current research shows a direct correlation between teacher retention rates and school principals’ level of support. However, are there any differences in contextual reasons why teachers with various characteristics stay or leave?

**Purpose**

The purpose of this study is to build on existing literature that examines the correlation between teacher attrition and school contextual and interpersonal factors - in particular the principal's behaviors, practices, and capacity to lead. The responses of teachers in different school environments in Western and Southeast Michigan are compared. The study looks at contextual reasons why teachers with various demographic characteristics, teaching experiences, teaching assignments, and levels of influence remain in a school or leave. The quality and the role of the school principal in retention is examined. Finally, recommendations are made to help educational leaders and policymakers better understand what they could do, from an organizational and legislative perspective, to help the retention of teachers.

Although this study examines various types of schools in Midwestern USA (specifically in Michigan), some extensions could be made to the global educational field, since neither the recommendations made, nor the teachers’ aspirations towards a better work environment are regionally specific, and this research might inform a broader context.

**Research Question 1:** What are the effects of the school leadership on teachers’ attrition?

**Research Question 2:** Are teachers from various demographic backgrounds, school systems, rural-urban areas, etc. affected differently by the quality of their school principals and work environments?

**Literature Review**

Numerous studies in the past decades have established a direct correlation between student learning and the quality of teachers, even when controlling for external factors such as students' low socio-economic status and English language proficiency levels (Aaronson, Barrow, & Sanders, 2003; Hill, Rowan, & Ball, 2005; Sanders, Ashton, & Wright, 2005). The ability to secure quality teachers is lower for historically underachieving, high-poverty schools in large urban areas and rural districts than it is for wealthier, more successful schools (Gill, Posamentier, & Hill, 2016).

More retirements; fewer candidates matriculating in teacher preparation programs; relocation to a different geographical area; loss of licensure – all are valid reasons why the profession is losing some of its cadre. However, current research suggests that, in general, there is no shortage of qualified teachers to fill the number of extant vacant positions in the United States (Darling-Hammond, 2001). Supporting this finding, Voke (2002) argues that the so-called “shortage” comes from the distribution of teachers, and not from a general teacher supply problem. Shortages exist in highly impoverished schools; in certain geographical areas of the country; in schools serving English Language Learners (ELLs) or minority students; and in particular subjects - such as math, science, special education, or bilingual education (Voke, 2002; Bradley, 1999).

As a response to teacher distribution theories, a substantial body of empirical research centered on the reasons why teachers leave a school or the profession through the lenses of various theoretical and methodological perspectives. In
general, these studies explain the attrition phenomenon in the context of teacher personal characteristics, economic considerations, and sociological factors.

Various studies associate the high attrition rates with the personal characteristics of teachers. Teacher demographics (age, race, ethnicity, gender); the proxy measures of their qualifications (degrees, teaching experience, certifications); their personal characteristics (life outlook and resilience); and overall personality, have been analyzed in relationship to teacher attrition (Newton, Rivero, Fuller, & Dauter, 2011). Looking at longitudinal studies informing teacher retention and attrition since mid-1999, it appears that individual factors associated with teacher burnout, resilience, demographic features, and family characteristics were the biggest influences on leavers (Schaef er, Long, & Clandinin, 2012). Other personal factors include self-efficacy beliefs (Caspersen, 2013); alignment between work expectations and reality (Le Maistre & Pare, 2010); teaching orientation (Lam & Yan, 2011); and attaining a work-life balance (Cinamon & Rich, 2005).

Beginning with the early 2000’s, research that was carried out by Richard Ingersoll started to look at teacher attrition through economic lenses. Ingersoll noted that trying to simply increase the supply of teachers through recruitment efforts or increased matriculation to teacher preparation programs without addressing why teachers are leaving would not fix the availability of teachers in low-income communities (Ingersoll, 2001). The centerpiece of his work is the theory that it is the high rates of teacher attrition in impoverished urban schools that causes a teacher shortage in these particular schools, and that any solution must focus more on retention initiatives than recruitment (Ingersoll, 2001).

Within the same conceptual framework grounded in economic theories, Grissom, Viano, and Selin (2015) argue that teacher turnover, in particular, and employee mobility in the public sector, in general, is influenced by the laws of labor supply and demand.

In looking at reasons for teacher attrition, Borman and Dowling (2008) reject a unilateral causation, naming both the teachers’ individual characteristics and the organizational characteristics of their schools as main causes. At the school level, contextual factors include the composition of the student population; hiring practices; the availability of resources; student discipline; workload; teacher compensation and benefits; and opportunities to contribute to the decision-making process (Borman & Dowling, 2008; Corbell et al., 2010; Fantilli & McDougall, 2008; Le Maistre & Pare, 2010; Renzulli, Parrott, & Beattie, 2011).

Several studies emphasize the importance of looking at teacher attrition through the lenses of the sociology of organizations, in the context of the organization where the employees work (Ingersoll, 2001; Ladd, 2011). The theoretical framework of this study is deeply grounded in the sociology of organizations – specifically in the belief that teacher attrition can neither be solely explained as a function of teachers’ individual characteristics, nor based on economic factors, without looking at the characteristics of the organization itself.

Some contextual factors of the organization that have an influence on a teacher’s decision to leave include: the composition of the student population; hiring and onboarding practices; the availability of resources for instructional spending; the degree of teacher influence over organization policies; principal instructional leadership; workload, teacher compensation and benefits; teacher innovation; and availability of professional development (Allensworth, Ponisciak, & Mazzeo, 2009; Fantilli & McDougall, 2009; Johnson & Simon, 2015).

Some literature on teacher attrition also highlights the role that racial misalignment between students and their teachers has on teachers’ levels of satisfaction with their work environments and subsequent departure from that organization. Two variables that affect job dissatisfaction and teacher turnover the most are the racial composition of their student population and the type of school they work in (traditional public v. charter). This affects white teachers from traditional public schools more than charter school teachers. Additionally, while charter school teachers enjoy more satisfaction with their jobs due to greater autonomy, they are also more likely to leave the teaching profession (Renzulli, Parrott, & Beattie, 2011).

A more explicit shift in the teacher attrition literature is made with the realization that some of the most important organizational factors affecting teacher retention are at the interpersonal level – things such as administrative support; positive and trusting relationships among staff; principal – teacher trust; degree of parent collaboration; student – teacher rapport; and mentor guidance (Bennett, Brown, Kirby, & Severson, 2013).

Especially interesting from a sociological perspective is the effect of the principal leadership on a teacher’s decision to leave. More effective principals create environments where teachers thrive, thus preventing the retention challenges
common to schools with less effective school leaders (Ingersoll, 2001; Johnson, Kraft, & Papay, 2012; Ladd, 2011). In addition, principal’s capacity to lead has been identified as one of the strongest predictors of teachers continuing in the same school year after year, or leaving the organization (Boyd et al., 2011; Grissom, 2011; Ladd, 2011).

In looking at the correlation between principal’s level of support and teacher attrition in hard-to-staff schools, Hughes, Matt, and O’Reilly (2014) found that teachers who were planning to remain at the same school based their decision on the following areas of support (listed in the order of importance): emotional support, environmental support, instructional support and, lastly, technical support. There were no significant differences between the grade levels of teachers with respect to the importance of principal support in their decision to remain at the same school or leave (Hughes et al., 2014).

Methodology

In this section, the researcher presents the methodology used in accessing primary sources, beginning with a description of the data collection instrument (the survey); continuing with the selection of research participants; the data analysis procedure; and, finally, addressing some of the limitations of the data collection and analysis.

The Survey

A survey of 24 questions was developed to collect information leading to finding answers to the two research questions (see Appendix A). The survey contained both closed questions and open-ended questions.

Five types of demographic data sets were collected: type of school where respondent taught; grade level of the teaching assignment; teacher’s years of experience; teacher’s gender; and teacher’s age. There were also four different sets of numerical answer questions that focused on teachers’ perceptions of leadership effectiveness, staff culture, level of influence, and likelihood of moving schools based on the principal’s capacity for leading, practices, and behaviors. Additionally, there were short answer questions that solicited responses related to the reasons for leaving the respondent’s previous job; the aspects of the teaching job that produced most and least satisfaction for the respondent; and the areas of influence on school issues the respondent had. One question on the survey asked about the teacher’s performance – as evidenced by the annual official teacher effectiveness rating based, in part, on student academic achievement or growth.

The survey was distributed online, via Qualtrics, to preserve the anonymity of respondents. The assurance of anonymity was important to participants, since the subject matter addressed respondents’ perceptions about their supervisors’ capacity to lead schools and concerns about use of information had to be addressed. Participants were provided with a Consent Form incorporated in the very first pages of the actual survey. There were no pre-test or post-test procedures. This survey took approximately 20 minutes to complete and closed after six weeks from when participants received the invitation email.

The Participants

Voluntary participants included teachers of different ethnic backgrounds, age, gender, teaching experience, effectiveness ratings, etc. Participants were recruited through an email invitation to fill out the survey. The email was distributed in two ways: a) to the entire teaching staffs of traditional public and public charter schools in both rural and urban areas in Southeast (Metro Detroit) and Western Michigan areas; and b) randomly, to teachers at various schools in the targeted areas. A universal link to the survey was included; the link allowed the recipient to share with other teachers, through teacher networks and personal connections. Recipients of the email invitation were provided with a Consent Form incorporated in the very first pages of the actual survey. All subjects who fit the description “teacher;” have worked in a targeted school; and filled out the survey were included in the preliminary data analysis.

Data Analysis Procedures and Limitations

Roughly 315 responses were collected using this survey. The initial step included a “data cleaning” phase, which resulted in the elimination of approximately 15 surveys – those from respondents other than “Teacher”; from Central Office or Intermediate School District staff; and those missing too many answers to be of any value for this study. The “Private School” and the “GED” (General Educational Development) groups were too small to analyze with a high degree of statistical certainty; therefore, responses from these 2 groups were excluded for some items.

The next step involved an analysis of whether the initial survey data was organized in a way that was appropriate for statistical analysis. Three main problems were identified that required correcting: missing data; too many numerical
questions to have short, meaningful summaries; and uncategorized short answer questions. As stated before, there were several respondents who opted out of answering one or two questions or sub-questions. To adjust for this, these responses were ignored on a need-by-need basis, and still used for all the answered questions, as they still provided valuable information.

To determine the internal consistency of the Likert-type questions and to resolve the problem of too many numerical questions to have short, meaningful summaries, the Cronbach’s alpha test was employed. The goal was to determine if it was possible to combine the sub-questions of the sliding scale questions into single variables. Questions 8, 12, 13, and 24 were analyzed using this method. Based on the results of this test, questions 8, 12 and 13 were converted to a super-score. This super-score was an average of all of the respondent’s answers for all of the sub-questions, meaning that 4 super-scores were calculated for each individual. The purpose of the super-score was to keep each individual answer independent and usable for further analysis.

The third challenge to resolve was the short answer questions. These included questions 14 through 23. Categories needed to be created to group the answers into a useable form. This was done manually, by going through all of the observations for each question, determining similarities in responses and developing categories to use. This method is a limitation because of the possible subjectivity in the groupings and the large amount of manual effort needed to change the dataset.

Although the numerical questions were treated as hard numbers, answers to “Likert-scale” questions on the survey could be somewhat subjective. To solve for this problem and because the questions are on a scale of 1 to 100 instead of the more common 1 to 10, the researcher chose to treat them numerically, as the alternative of converting the answers into bins, groups of ranges of answers, or different numbers takes away much of the variability of the data.

A last data collection and analysis limitation is also related to variability. The act of converting the sliding scale questions into solitary variables could be problematic because this can hide some information that might be interesting to look at in a future study. However, the researcher believes that it was important to balance this limitation with having a concise frame of data on which to make decisions, and that using three variables that effectively elicit the information needed to address the research questions is a worthwhile approach for this study.

Findings

The results and findings of this research study are consistent with findings from previous research, and provide additional insights to why teachers choose to stay at a school and in the profession, or leave. The results also indicate that there are some differences between what high school teachers would need to remain at a school and teachers from the elementary or middle school levels.

Description of Participants

Roughly 300 responses submitted from all grade levels were used consistently for this study. The largest group (n = 145, 63.0%) reported teaching at the elementary level. The second largest group was comprised of high school teachers (n=59, 19%). Forty-three (13.6%) teachers were teaching at the middle school level. There were 24 teachers (7.6%) who reported that their certification and teaching assignment span from Pre-k to Grade 12. A somehow non-traditional school configuration was the Grade 6 – Grade 12 group: nine teachers (2.8%) taught in these schools. Finally, two teachers (0.6%) worked in the General Educational Development (GED) Program. Fifteen respondent (4.7%) either missed to answer the question, or indicated they were not working as teachers, disqualifying their responses from being included in the data analysis.

The majority of teachers (n = 274, 87.0%) were female and forty-one (13.0%) teachers were male. This gender distribution aligns with data from the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), whose 2016 report on Distribution of Gender and Age for teachers in the United States indicated 87.1% women.

The teachers were asked to indicate their age, the number of years they had been teaching, and the type of school where they worked when they took the survey. The largest group of teachers (n = 116, 36.8%) were between 30 and 39 years old; the second largest group (n=74, 23.5%) were the teachers between 40 and 49 years old; sixty-three (20%) reported being between 20 and 29 years old; and forty-nine (15.5%) were between 50 and 59 years old. There were thirteen (4.1%) teachers who did not provide a response to this item.
The largest group of teachers (n=97, 30.8%) had been teaching for more than 16 years; the next largest group (n=46, 14.6%) were teachers with 4 to 6 years of experience in teaching; thirty-five (11.1%) teachers reported between 7 to 9 years in teaching; while thirty-four teachers (10.8%) had both between 10 to 12 years of experience and 1 to 3 years. Finally, thirty-one (9.8%) teachers reported between 13 to 15 years of teaching, and eleven (3.5%) were in their first year of teaching when they took the survey. Twenty-seven (8.5%) respondents did not respond to this item or were in a non-teaching position at the time of the survey.

When asked about their annual effectiveness rating for teacher evaluation purposes, 157 (52.3%) of teachers responded that they were rated “Effective” in the past 3 years; 140 (46.7%) were rated “Highly Effective”; and 3 (1%) were rated “Minimally Effective”.

For the type of school where they worked, the largest group of respondents (n=141, 47%) worked in traditional public schools. Seventy-one teachers (23.6%) were employed by Grand Valley State University (GVSU) chartered public schools, while 54 teachers (18%) worked in charter public schools authorized by other entities in Michigan. A small group of teachers (n=7, 2.3%) reported employment in private schools and six (2.0%) worked in Special Education Centers. Twenty-one (7.0%) respondents from the teaching ranks did not indicate the type of school where they worked.

Cursory observations of these data sets showed that for the grade level and school type categories, the “Special Education Center” and “Private School” groups are too small to be analyzed with a high degree of statistical certainty. Problems within the student grade level demographic include small sample sizes for the “GED Program”.

Research Question 1: Data Analysis, Findings, and Discussion

Research Question 1 asked: “What are the effects of the school leadership on teachers’ attrition”?

For this summary, the main numerical question is 24, designed to elicit perceptions about the importance of school leaders' experiences, attitudes, actions, and practices. This question has a 6-part sliding scale response format, where each of the sub-questions is related to a respondent’s likelihood of leaving their school based on specific reasons. It was determined via the Cronbach’s alpha test that the separate responses could not be grouped together as one overarching question. Across the various age groups, number of years teaching, and the grade level for the teaching assignment, all teachers indicated that school leadership had a considerable impact on their decision to stay at a school. There was very little difference in how the sub-questions were answered, except between the different school types.

The analysis of numerical questions treated as hard numbers on a scale 1 to 100 (where 100 means “the most important” and “most likely”) revealed that teachers from Non-GVSU-Authorized Charter Schools had the most likelihood of being influenced in their decision to leave a school by the principal’s level of experience, attitudes, actions, and practices – with an average around 86.6%. The least likely teacher group to be influenced by the principal’s attitudes and actions were teachers from Private Schools. This could be explained, partially, by the fact that this was the smallest group analyzed (with n=7), and partially by the specific profile of teachers working in nonsectarian private schools. In general, these teachers are more satisfied with their class size (smaller than in traditional public schools) and the level of control they feel they have over school curriculum, the choice of textbooks, and class content (National Center for Education Statistics, 2005). Teachers from private schools might also have stronger community ties that could influence their decision to stay at a school more than their principals’ attitudes and actions.

Looking at sub-questions 5 and 6, it could be inferred that teachers are not as likely to quit the teaching profession based on the principal’s or other administrators’ attitudes, actions, and practices, except for those who teach at GVSU-Authorized Charter Schools. It is important to note that, although this group of teachers is more likely to quit the profession, the average answers were still relatively low (around 50 on a scale of 1 to 100).

One of the specific sub-questions (24_4) asked about the likelihood that a teacher would be willing to change schools to follow a principal. Based on an answer average of 50 or higher, in all cases except for Private Schools and Special Education Centers, teachers would at least consider this possibility. We hypothesize that the reason we see a difference in these two school types is that there is a distinguishable difference in how these particular teachers view their roles. Teachers who are associated with a private school system, may have more autonomy and community ties, so they are not as beholden to the principal and other administrators as teachers from more traditional schools. We also hypothesize that “special needs” teachers are more likely to be attached to their students, regardless of the principal or administration.
These teachers could have overlapping managers: their principal and a Special Education Supervisor, who might be responsible for their teacher evaluation. So, this category of teachers might not be as tied to their principal as others.

Question 17 asked about the last time participants left a school, including whether they were planning to leave their school at the end of the current school year and the circumstances of their departure: if they left at will; were encouraged to leave; were laid off, or terminated. The majority of those who left at will were from traditional public schools (n=147, 49.1%). The next highest demographic was GVSU-Authorized Charter Schools (n=68, 22.6%), followed by Non-GVSU Authorized Charter Schools (n=51, 17.0%). Looking at the percentage breakdown of how many responses participated in the survey, by school, approximately 50% of the respondents were from traditional public schools, and the next highest percentages were again GVSU-Authorized and Non-GVSU-Authorized Charter Schools. This means that the responses for leaving at will follow the same distribution as the number of responses from each school type, which means that there is no school type where the teachers are leaving at will at a higher rate than other school types.

As a follow-up to question 17, question 18 asked those who indicated they left their school at will about their reason. This was one of the open-ended questions that was manually re-categorized. Approximately one third of the teachers (29.9%) left because of poor or unstable leadership. Teachers from traditional public schools (17%), followed by both GVSU-Authorized (12%) and Non-GVSU-Authorized (12%) charter schools had the most responses in this category.

The next analysis pertains to responses given to question 21, “Under what conditions under the control of your principal would you have remained at the school?”. A manual re-categorization was required for this question. The 3 key conditions that teachers feel are under the control of the principal that would have affected decisions to stay were “more support” (7.7%) at par with better compensation and benefits (7.7%), followed by more respect (4.8%).

Research Question 2 Data Analysis, Findings, and Discussion

Research Question 2 asked, “Are teachers from various demographic backgrounds, school systems, rural-urban areas, etc. affected differently by the quality of their school principals and work environments”?

The One-Way ANOVA statistical test was performed on the sliding scale questions 8, 12, and 13. The analysis revealed that the only demographic where there seemed to be some degree of difference is within the grade level of the teacher’s assignment. Both sets of ANOVA tests agreed that there is a score difference for questions 8 and 13. To find out which groups are different from each other, a post-hoc test called Tukey’s Honest Significant Difference was performed. This test checks every pairwise combination of groups within the demographic variable and returns a p-value similar to the ANOVA test to help indicate which groups are significantly different.

After running the TukeyHSD test, we found that there is one group that is significantly different than two others for the Teaching Grade Level demographic: the high school teachers, who have significantly different scores with respect to the school environment and teacher influence. To find out the reason for this, the researcher looked at the average scores for these three main teaching grade levels for questions 8 and 13. The high school teachers have an average score of 10 less compared to the other school types. Because the averages comprise over 50 observations, the volume means that seemingly smaller differences are much more important. One key finding of this analysis then is that high school teachers are less satisfied with their school environment and teacher influence than teachers from other grade levels.

To gain a deeper understanding of the teachers’ specific concerns, the short answer questions were analyzed. Question 10 asked about the frequency of work-related social gatherings organized by school leaders. While there were some small differences, the percentages were roughly the same for each teaching grade level group. This consistency across grade levels could be attributed to the fact that this question could be associated more with staff culture than with the school work environment and teacher influence.

Question 23 asked about what the teachers would change at their current school, given the opportunity. The most standout responses are a need for a supplies budget, higher compensation, and better student discipline. Additionally, the response rate for school leaders’ communication, better teacher evaluation, consistency, curriculum input, and school culture are all fairly high for high school teachers. These teachers are more focused on specific things an administrator needs to provide them in terms of support. While elementary teachers are looking for constant feedback and collegial contact, high school teachers see themselves as more entrepreneurial in the classroom; they want to be provided with the materials and supplies they need, make curriculum decisions, and then be allowed to do their job without much interference.
Seven of the eight categories fit the parameters of “school environment” and “teacher input”, leading to the conclusion that these areas are important to address in a high school environment. Furthermore, these categories had relatively larger response rates from elementary and middle school teachers, too, pointing towards areas of improvement for all schools, regardless of the grade level taught.

Finally, question 20, “What specific aspects of your job did you least enjoy?” could also reveal discrepancies between teachers assigned to different grade levels. Although this question is phrased in a way that asks about the teacher’s previous job, the information provided could still be relevant to the same grade level because teachers’ certification rarely changes from one year to another. There are many response categories for question 20; however, there are some that stand out from the rest. These include “Lack of Administration Support”, “Paperwork”, “Students”, and “Staff Issues”. Three out of the four of these are common problems among all three grade levels. The exception is “Staff Issues” that appears to be more of a concern for high school teachers. The four areas indicate some of the organization and leadership-related issues that would need to be addressed if higher retention of teachers is desirable.

To conclude the findings for the second research question, the only sizeable difference found within the demographics concerns the grade level of teachers’ assignments related to the school environment and teacher influence variables. The data analysis was accomplished via a One-Way ANOVA test, and the post-hoc tests revealed that the high school teachers group was significantly different. Upon looking into the high school group further, it was evident that the biggest points of complaint were fiscally motivated (supplies budget and greater compensation); and desiring of better administration support (teacher evaluation practices, student discipline, and more curriculum input). Furthermore, we found that some of the common issues that teachers of all types of students had with their previous jobs that are likely still issues were with a lack of administration support, students and their behavior, staff issues, and excessive paperwork.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The results of this study support the claim that more effective principals know how to create environments where teachers flourish, consequently preventing the attrition challenges common to schools with less effective school leaders. While it is true that a number of problems identified have to do with finances, which can be harder to solve, some of the most important organizational factors affecting teacher retention are at the management and the interpersonal level. The implications of this study for principals include finding and providing resources; creating systems and structures that lead to order in the organization; encouraging collaborative environments; better practices in supporting, developing, and evaluating teachers; reducing bureaucratic tasks for instructional staff; implementing strong induction and mentoring programs; showing and giving respect – attributes that result in better working conditions and job satisfaction for teachers.

The implications of this study for those developing future leaders are related to best ways to teach supportive leadership skills to aspiring principals. With similar findings across contextual factors, should the development of teacher leaders have some variations because of the different contexts of specific schools? One example would be developing leaders of schools with limited resources to know how to access and utilize community resources. Similarly, since principals might need a different skill set depending on the environment where they will work (urban settings v. rural; less affluent v. affluent; schools where there is a large discrepancy between the racial composition of students v. teachers; etc.) should educational leadership programs train principals to lead differently? This aspect has not been yet addressed in previous literature.

Finally, recommendations for policymakers include creating policies to promote a more equitable distribution of experienced teachers and to prevent the concentration of beginner teachers in high-needs schools, as well as strengthening educational finance reforms that have multiple goals: to attract new individuals to the profession; to provide adequate resources to existing teachers and school administrators (including increased instructional spending and salaries); and to increase the overall effectiveness of school finances and operations.
References


Appendix A

Survey Questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>Intro and permission to use question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2</td>
<td>At which type of school did you teach during the 2017-2018 school year?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q3</td>
<td>Choose all that apply</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q4</td>
<td>What is your current age and gender?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q5</td>
<td>Indicate the number of full time professional years of teaching experience you have, since graduating with a teaching degree to date (exclude student teaching).</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q6</td>
<td>Is teaching your first professional/degreed career?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q7</td>
<td>In the past 3 years of my teaching, my teaching effectiveness for evaluation purposes has been mostly:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q8.1</td>
<td>Using the scale provided below, rate each of the following with respect to your perception about school effectiveness, with 100 being the most satisfactory: Overall instructional leadership (school leader involvement in planning, classroom observations, data analysis meetings, etc.).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q8.2</td>
<td>School safety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q8.3</td>
<td>Your own classroom culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q8.4</td>
<td>Your own classroom safety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q8.5</td>
<td>Instructional planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q8.6</td>
<td>Observation-feedback</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q8.7</td>
<td>Teacher evaluation clarity and fairness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q8.8</td>
<td>Professional development usefulness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q8.9</td>
<td>Timely interventions for struggling students</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q8.10</td>
<td>Career progression opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q8.11</td>
<td>Compensation and Benefits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q8.12</td>
<td>Non-monetary recognition from your school leader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q9</td>
<td>During this last school year, did teachers have opportunities to earn bonuses or incentives for exceptional work?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q10</td>
<td>How often did the principal or the admin team organize work-related social gatherings?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q11</td>
<td>How often did the principal or the admin team hold team building activities?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q12.1</td>
<td>Using the scale provided below, rate each of the following with respect to your perception about staff culture, with 100 being the most satisfactory: How well you worked with the principal on a professional level?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q12.2</td>
<td>How well you worked with the principal on a personal level?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q12.3</td>
<td>The level of communication you had between yourself and the principal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q12.4</td>
<td>The level of professional support you felt the principal provided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q12.5</td>
<td>The level of trustworthiness you felt the principal had amongst teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q12.6</td>
<td>Using the scale provided below, rate each of the following with respect to your perception about staff culture, with 100 being the most satisfactory: The level of respect the teachers had for the principal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q12.7</td>
<td>The respect level the principal had for the teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q12.8</td>
<td>How well you worked with non-teaching staff members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q12.9</td>
<td>How well you worked with other teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q12.10</td>
<td>How well the principal handled issues of teacher-to-teacher conflict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q12.11</td>
<td>The overall sense of community within the school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q12.12</td>
<td>The degree to which any concerns you brought to the principal were adequately addressed</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q12.13</td>
<td>How well the principal showed genuine teacher appreciation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q12.14</td>
<td>The level of accessibility of the principal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q12.15</td>
<td>The level of comfort you felt going to the principal with work-related problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13.1</td>
<td>Using the scale provided below, rate each of the following with respect to your perception about teacher influence, with 100 being the most satisfactory: Curricular decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13.2</td>
<td>Instructional materials</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q13.3 Instructional strategies
Q13.4 Professional development choices
Q13.5 Your teaching schedule
Q13.6 Student discipline and behavior interventions
Q13.7 Student academic interventions
Q13.8 Budgetary decisions, as appropriate
Q14 Please list one or more areas in which you felt most satisfied with respect to the amount of influence you had:
Q15 Please list one or more areas in which you wish the principal had allowed you to have more influence
Q16 How large was your average class size?
Q17 Last time when you changed the school where you worked, which of the following best reflects the circumstances under which you left the school?
Q18 If you selected option "I left the school at will", please provide one or more factors that contributed most to your decision to leave the school
Q19 What specific aspects of your job did you most enjoy?
Q20 What specific aspects of your job did you least enjoy?
Q21 Under what conditions under the control of your principal would you have remained at the school?
Q22 What has been most rewarding about working at your current school?
Q23 What would you change in relation to working at your current school, if you could?
Q24.1 Using the scale provided below, rate each of the following, keeping in mind that 100 means "the most important" or "most likely":
   Importance of principal's experiences, attitudes, actions, and practices in your decision to stay at a school
Q24.2 Importance of other school administrators' experiences, attitudes, actions, and practices in your decision to stay at a school
Q24.3 Likelihood of you staying at a school mainly because you trust/like the principal
Q24.4 Likelihood of you moving to another school mainly because a principal you trust/like is moving to that school
Q24.5 Likelihood of you quitting the teaching profession within 1 to 3 years because of a principal's attitudes, actions, and practices
Q24.6 Likelihood of you quitting the teaching profession within 1 to 3 years because of other administrator's attitudes, actions, and practices
Using Experiential Learning Theory to Improve Teaching and Learning in Higher Education

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Abstract

The importance of skills has been expounded repeatedly as a crucial factor to thrive in the workplace, as opposed to mere knowledge of content. It is important to be able to adapt to new situations; this is especially true in today’s world, where volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity (VUCA) are prevalent. To better prepare undergraduates for entry to the workforce in such a tumultuous time, Experiential Learning Theory (ELT) can be employed in their programmes – for example, by using a computer simulation game called MonsoonSIM in a course on fundamentals of business modeling, or through an overseas experiential learning trip with thematic objectives. These two cases are chosen specifically as they deal with contrasting experiences of learning – one highly theory-based and typical of academic institutions, and the other geared toward practical skills. This paper explores the processes of the ELT, distinguishing it from common classroom experiences, and how they are applied in the two cases mentioned above in order to improve the quality of teaching and learning, and to inculcate self-directed learners who are able to better deal with environments of VUCA. The abovementioned cases serve as examples by which ELT can be deployed to improve both the breadth and depth of students' learning. The content of this paper stems from the authors' experiences in crafting, facilitating, and executing the ELT processes within the context of a university programme.

Keywords: experiential learning theory, higher education, VUCA, pedagogy, teaching and learning

Introduction

In a recent World Economic Forum report titled “The Future of Jobs” (WEF, 2018), a list of ten skills were presented, thought to be those crucial to thrive in the workplace in the year 2020. Among these skills included traits such as creativity, critical thinking, complex problem solving, negotiation, coordination, judgement and decision making, and cognitive flexibility. These skills are tied together with a single theme: to better enable the workforce to deal with an increasingly Volatile, Uncertain, Complex, and Ambiguous environment. This set of conditions is known as VUCA, and was first used in 1987, with reference to the leadership theories of Warren Bennis and Burt Nanus (2014), first introduced in 1985. Since the role of the university and/or higher education is to prepare graduates to be gainful contributors to society and in the workforce, it then follows that they must also inculcate resilience against a VUCA environment. This theme is also repeated in the report The Future of Education and Skills by OECD (2018), with a similar list of constructs to be included in the framework to achieve such a goal.

It has come to attention that common current models of teaching do little to cultivate such traits; most education systems strive to reduce the amount of VUCA presented to the students, instructing them under static, idealized, and theoretical conditions, instead of introducing them and leading them through the process of making sense out of the perceived chaos. At the early stages of education, this reductionist perspective may be necessary in order to properly show theoretical frameworks and provide clear understanding of correlations and theories; in higher education, however, simulating a VUCA environment would be far more beneficial, especially since students are expected to have a higher level of maturity, and will shortly need to deal with the realities of the working world.
This paper describes the application and framework of experiential learning, in order to simulate a VUCA environment, in two contexts within a higher education institute; firstly, as part of an academic course, and secondly as a crafted, credit-bearing overseas learning experience.

The Experiential Learning Theory and Applied Framework

There are various models of the Experiential Learning Theory (ELT), echoing similar attributes. In our development of the ELT framework for use, we have used Kolb’s ELT model (Kolb, 2015) and also modified it into a thematic version for practical purposes and clarity, both of which are briefly explained below.

Kolb’s ELT model can be summarized in the below cycle:

![Kolb's Experiential Learning Cycle](image)

*Figure 1: Kolb’s Experiential Learning Cycle. The stages can also be reframed as a repetition of “grasping” and “understanding” knowledge.*

Care must be taken not to confuse Kolb’s cycle with repetitive drilling, especially that under direct instruction. The differentiation between these lie in two aspects:

Firstly, in repetitive drilling, the process reflects more of a trial-and-error situation, even if systematic. This is often reflective of a reductionist perspective in physical sciences, where there are direct correlations between two isolated variables or features. It often does not take into account the complexity of a situation, or the environmental and internal conditions. Repetitive drilling also removes the “experimenting”, “contemplating”, and “exploratory” aspects of the experiential learning process, and has to do more with direct instruction and rectification of any present errors, as opposed to allowing the learner to consider varying alternative factors reflectively. This often has the consequence (often unintended) of removing the learner from the actual context, and isolates them from all but the instructors’ own perception. The active learning process of self-discovery, by contrast, has a stronger focus on the stages characterized by Reflective Observation and Abstract Conceptualization, both of which requiring deliberate, practiced mindfulness, forming the second distinction. It is this feature that holds the utmost importance, and is also the feature that requires the most care and guidance from instructors to students, as it is largely neglected in common educational systems.

One of the advantages of the ELT model is that it naturally accounts for what is commonly known as “learning styles” – rather than having to recreate a lesson for students who have different perceived learning styles, the ELT cycle is universally applicable; students with different “learning styles” would start their mental processes at different stages of the cycle, and linger at the processes between different stages, sometimes even repeating the connection between two stages repeatedly before moving to the next. The ELT cycle itself does not differ, only on occasion the starting point and the duration/repetition of the stages.

The modified thematic model replicates Kolb’s elaboration of processes, but takes a different perspective, which stems from the idea that a “theme” can be common across different contexts, and one expression of the “theme” would focus on the learning of a specific “craft”. In such a model, the “craft” is deemed to be an entire process or art, related to the theme, and often in attempts to navigate through the latter. Each unique context of application of the “craft” can be tied to an
“object”, from which an “objective” (or “desired outcome”) is the aim. “Skills” are them employed to manipulate the “object” to reach the “objective”. A schematic illustration of such a model is illustrated in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Thematic model of the ELT, showing the hierarchy of the various components - in some cases, a single craft has more than one object. Similarly, a craft can also have more than one object (not shown here). Note also that the cycle repeats itself, and relates continuously with the theme

In cases where the “skill” within the “theme” carrying a similar “objective” is translatable to another “object”, it is often a matter of adjusting the necessary tools and perspectives (components of the “skill”), once the abstract concept is grasped (akin to Kolb’s model); the desired outcome to each of the parameters may remain constant, but the parameters to be observed may be appropriately adjusted. To use a traditional example, if the craft were to take the form of “woodworking”, the various objects may be the various kinds of wood – timber, teak, oak, and so on. Each of these require similar skills in principle – to grind, shape, saw, etc., but the expression of each changes between the different “objects”.

How the thematic model is used in ELT is based on the reflection of the intricacies of expression of the same skills – if one were to take the abstract theme of “material shaping”, we could compare “woodworking” with “stonemasonry” as two different crafts under the same theme. To “shape” an oak tree trunk could yield the same outcome/objective as “shaping” a rock in stonemasonry, but the tools and the requisite observations of the process differ in nuance. Reflection aims to distil the principle of the “skill”, and its relationship between the “object” and “objective”. Once the principle is made clear, the “skills” are transferrable across various “crafts”, and applicable throughout the “theme”. A modern-day example, which is also the topic of one of the overseas trips conducted, is the theme of “Entrepreneurship”, where the object of study is the concept of the “Entrepreneurial Spirit”. Under this theme, students visit countries such as Israel with a high rate of innovation and start-up success, with the selected objective and idea of creating a start-up. They are then tasked and led through investigation of the skills – soft and technical skills – as well as individual attributes required to achieve a successful start-up, while taking into account the nuances and contexts in which the peoples have managed to inculcate those skills into common everyday practice, and perhaps even parts of their culture. The overseas trip allows for the student to observe and analyze the various factors in the visiting country; if the principles are accurately identified, the relationship between them and the theme clearly distinguished, distilled, and deconstructed from their observations in the visit, they would also be able to replicate similar attributes in their own home country. If the selection of such countries also bears considerable similarities to the students’ host countries, the attributes are more easily deconstructed, distilled, and replicated; but even if otherwise, the principle and process still holds. In essence, although the theme is applied in different contexts, it remains the same. The fundamental skills and factors are also transferrable.

Part of the conditions for this thematic model is the presence of intangible expertise and experience, and often nuances that are obtained through said experience, which are not easily elaborated, recorded, and transferred from instructor to student. However, it should also be noted that such is precisely the principle of the shift to the ELT framework – to avoid direct transfer of knowledge in a theoretical context, and instead lead the learner through the deciphering and nuanced process in order to bring an intrinsic and experiential understanding of the contextual application.

One advantage of the thematic model is that when the overarching theme is clearly identified and constructed, one is able to see how a set of skills functions and are translatable for use on another “object”, as well as the complex connections in the model. In contrast to Kolb’s model, however, the focus in the thematic model is not on the distinct components of the model, but the relationship between them. Despite that, a similar cycle reflecting on the relationships between the different components should be employed, as each “objective” becomes the “object” of reflection for the next stage. This can be illustrated as follows:

The objective (a.k.a. outcome or desired outcome) of the craft, starting from the object, as initial relationship for reflection.
The objective of the reflection becomes the object of conceptualization.

The objective of conceptualization becomes the object of experimentation.

The objective of the experimentation repeats itself as the object of the craft.

To reiterate, in each of these stages, the focus of reflection is the relationship between the two mentioned features; how the objective of each stage is to be achieved from the “object” and the environmental/structural influences that come into play in shaping these processes. The thematic model is found to be more appropriate when deconstructing a particular trait from a selected environment, in attempts to replicate them in another host environment.

In both the Kolb’s ELT cycle and the thematic model, a few distinct differences are found between the ELT models and the more commonly used, direct instructional mode of teaching:

Students are poised as active experimenters in discovery of knowledge instead of listeners of instruction.

Students are made aware of prior conceptions as part of reflective observation, instead of confirming inherent biases.

Students are led to revisit prior conceptions and debunk their own assumptions, as opposed to a linear, one-directional correlation and path of learning.

Students are exposed to similar (preferably exact) and simulated environments of operation and employ observation, rather than absorb second-hand information.

The application of both these models are in attempts to provide a renewed, holistic learning experience, with an increased awareness of the discrete cognitive processes and the environmental/structural influences for each context and application, in contrast to absorption and repetition of information and repeated drilling of processes.

Case Study 1 - ELT in Business Modeling Course

There has been extensive research done in the area of experiential learning in university programmes across various disciplines ranging from computer science, engineering, and business. Experiential learning is an important pedagogical approach used in teaching-learning processes to facilitate “doing and learning”. Bhajantri et al. (2016) adopted an experiential learning approach in a web technology course with explanation of concepts, followed by a series of hands-on demonstrations, allowing students to simultaneously practice the relevant skills. Most students find this kind of training valuable as it brings them through an entire system, starting from design, then through the stages of implementation, operations, and finally documentation. Experiential learning was found to motivate students not only in the acquisition of knowledge but also in experience and application of skills on the two projects; in some cases, this was also found to motivate them to pursue careers in similar or related areas.

Yonghui et al. (2009) explored the use of experiential learning theory as a model for teaching and learning and applied it to both formal and non-formal education settings. They then concluded that experiential learning is more suited for a non-formal education and the role of facilitators is to encourage the learners to learn through an inquiry-based process, generalizing the concepts, and finally applying it to relevant situations.

Granlund (2008) analyzed the learning processes of a group of students engaged in the computer-based simulation training environment, C3Fire, for training and research within the domain of dynamic decision-making. The author explained how the four stages of the experiential learning cycle enhances the students learning experience as a group in the learning environment and emphasized that the experiential learning has had a positive impact on their learning in this experiment.

Bailey et al. (n.d.) described how the experiential learning model is incorporated within Rochester Institute of Technology’s (RIT) undergraduate engineering programs. ELT is used for designing a course in thermodynamics, which is traditionally taught in lecture style, ensuring that the activities are planned to complement the same four ELT stages. Based on their end of course assessment and student feedback, they noted a high level of perceived learning by using the ELT model to frame the lessons.

Desai et al. (2018) developed a hypothesis to evaluate the effectiveness of the experiential learning approach to determine the academic performance and students’ success from two different colleges. One group (from college A) has adopted an experiential learning approach through Project Based Learning (PBL), working on a project to apply the knowledge gained
in the course in solving a real-world problem. Another group (from college B) adopted the traditional learning approach in class. Two sample T-tests were conducted on the data collected from two groups, and the result indicated a significant difference in the scores of students based on Semester End Exams (SEE) scores and placements, and therefore concluded that the use of Experiential Learning was found to improve students' performance – particularly in innovation, creativity for generation of new knowledge, and the motivation to learn and solve problems.

One of the compulsory courses for all undergraduates in business programmes in SUSS deals with Business Skills and Management. The course aims to provide students with key business skills and problem identification and solving skills, using various spreadsheet-driven, industry-derived case studies. It also helps students learn spreadsheet features and how to use a systematic approach to solve real-world problems. In addition, leadership and management concepts (such as planning, controlling, decision-making) as well as the Business Excellence Framework are discussed. The course objectives are to prepare students for task management within their undergraduate years, and equip them with necessary life skills to deal with the challenge of the VUCA workplace and world. Students are assessed through their application of spreadsheet modeling to arrive at justifiable conclusions for a given scenario.

In 2017, we incorporated experiential learning (EL) within this course, using a competitive business simulation game called MonsoonSIM. MonsoonSIM is a unique, experiential learning, pedagogical platform for business studies, to allow students to discover business concepts through experiential learning using a business simulation game. The students run a virtual business entity, comprising of twelve interdependent business departments:

B2B or Wholesales
Customer Service
Finance & Accounting
Human Resource
Logistics and Warehouse
Maintenance
Marketing
MRP
Forecasting and Planning
Procurement
Production
Retail

Figure 3: An artistic representation of the interconnectivity of the departments within the simulation. Nodes indicated are only for illustrative purposes and do not represent the actual algorithm within the game. (Image courtesy of Monsoon Academy)
The experiential learning setup in the course is developed for a period of six lessons, with the following plan:

In the first lesson, teams are formed, and the first run of the simulation game is conducted. Little or no instruction is given about the intricacies of the game or the relationship between the various departments, and how they affect the outcome – any instruction focuses primarily on the technical aspects of the game. This allows the students to form their own context of the eventual lessons, without being told about the theoretical constructs involved, and serves as a warm-up for the rest of the classes.

After a set duration, the game is paused. With that initial experience, they are asked to document and discuss about the perceived connections between the departments and iron out the various roles within each team. Different strategies may be formed across teams, and they are allowed to explore the options as they see fit. After the discussion, the game resumes, and continues till an additional set duration has passed. Due to the complexity of the game and the numerous inter-relationships, at this first attempt most teams will fail to make a profit and run into bankruptcy. This also provides additional context for forming abstract concepts and the relationships invoked in the event.

During this first game, students are led through at least one iteration of the four stages in the ELT - forming a concrete experience, a practice in reflection (guided by the instructor), conceptualization of the relationships and planning and experimentation with the desired objective in mind. Ideally, every member of the team should participate in the discussion, and the instructor can assign teams to explain some of their fatal errors during this first trial. If the instructor notices that the team members are inactive during the discussion, he is to intervene and try to give directions for a useful discussion.

The process is repeated throughout the course, with the students immersed in the game, a different condition each time to mimic various scenarios, each lesson with a different objective or relationship/correlation to explore, to be covered in presentation, defense, and discussion at the end of each class. These topics include the appropriate strategies for each scenario, what are the performance indicators (at the early, middle and late stages of the simulation), areas for improvement and/or focus, and other causalional/correlational factors to achieve the outcome. They will have to defend their hypotheses, and cross-defend themselves as other groups/teams present both supporting and conflicting theories.

This arrangement allows for students to crystallize their thoughts through the presentation, and put into practice discernment of choice of observed parameter, and craft the appropriate experimental conditions to test the hypothesis. The dynamism of the simulation, involving various teams, who are all changing factors within the same “market”, is also a point of consideration; while this appears to be an ineffective method of testing a hypotheses, as variables are not held constant through the “experimental” phase, part of the objective is also to openly consider the other factors in holistic analysis and avoid reductionistic theorizing – for accurate testing, students are also given opportunities outside the class to run multiple games under controlled, static conditions.

Students are graded according to their competency in:

- In-depth analysis (i.e. reflective observation and abstract conceptualisation)
- Strategy formulation (i.e. application of conceptualisation objectives and forming paths of active experimentation)
- Presentation skills (i.e. crystallisation of concepts formed)
- Learning points (i.e. metacognition and reflection on the processes)

An end-of-term assessment incorporating spreadsheet modelling with the simulation is also assigned. This includes questions relating to the various operational issues of the simulated companies, which can be answered by applying business modelling concepts, integrating it with spreadsheet skills, and taking into account the context of the simulation. We see a significant improvement in the average score of the assessment by > 15% compared to the previous term where an ELT framework was not applied. This is related to the fact that students are more interested and engaged in their learning process, rather than solving any generic business problem - the experiential learning has urged them to explore ways to make their own “virtual company” a success by applying the relevant skills, which are all positive outcomes of the ELT.

According to student feedback, most prefer the experiential learning mode over traditional lectures as it allows them to understand the complexity in business operations using an interactive approach. The intensity of the game, and the digital nature of the game allows for them to consider and test the application of their hypotheses or other theories, instead of just absorbing them – this allows for better memory retention.
Through this interactive learning process, the students were also imparted a number of soft skills which are also considered important in the job market today, such as communication and teamwork, human/team management, and leadership roles with the respective decisions.

**Case Study 2 – Thematic ELT in Overseas Learning Programmes**

The second application of the ELT is in the exploration of a theme by immersion into the context of application, usually one that is best explored in another country – this could be related to the country in question is exceptional in that theme, or is deemed to have positive traits along the theme that is worth learning from. Examples of such trips and their themes include the investigation of what entails an "Entrepreneurial Spirit" in the context of Israel, and the complexities behind the welfare policies in Hong Kong. For such credit-bearing overseas trips, students conduct independent research and form their own notions about the people, their culture and habits, and relate them to the object of the theme prior to the trip. Subsequently, the students are brought to the host country for an extended trip, with arranged meetings with industry partners, and site visits that expose them to cultural and historical aspects of the peoples of the country. This is done in order for the students to get a feel of local sentiment, and to use their observation to draw conclusions, analyses, and refute preconceptions in addition to reforming their notions of the relationships between the various contextual conditions and the object of the theme. Instructors accompany students and lead them through activities of reflection upon the social, cultural, economic, and political state of affairs, and how they have influenced the trait(s) of the people. This echoes the structuralism argument, in that structures determine agency, and therefore also the thoughts, perspectives, and behavior of the peoples.

On this perspective, Émile Durkheim (1956) states that firstly, "education is the socialization of the younger generation". His successor, Paul Fauconnet, explains Émile’s perspective:

“...in each of us, one may say, there are two beings, which although inseparable except by abstraction, are none the less distinct. One is made up of all the mental states which relate to ourselves and the events of our own personal life: this is what may be called the individual being. The other is a system of ideas, feelings, and habits which express in us not our own personality, but the group or different groups of which we form a part; such are religious beliefs, moral beliefs and practices, national and vocational traditions, and collective opinions of all kinds. Their entirety forms the social being. **To form this being in each one of us is the end of education.**" (Fauconnet, P.,1923, emphasis added)

Fauconnet also highlights the core of the structuralism argument in education, that each educational system, culture, or any other structure put into place, forms the subjects under that structure into whatever conditions they exist within at that time, and very often reinforcing the structure itself once more, citing examples of the Spartans in the Lacedemonian city, Athenian education, and French education at the time (1923). Durkheim (1956) had mentioned this as well in *Education and Society,* and was later echoed by Lear (1961).

If the attributes of the people are a product of their environmental structures, including the social, economic, and political spheres, then it stands to follow that the most holistic way of learning these attributes are to expose said students to as many of the conditions as possible; granted, historical conditions, along with many others that depends on time, race, and other individual attributes, cannot be replicated, but they can minimally be understood, to provide the intellectual basis and relational factors under which the attributes can be deconstructed and hopefully replicated.

In the overseas experiential learning programme, the thematic model is more obvious and useful, though Kolb’s model is still used as the pedagogical framework. The attribute to be observed is first treated as the “object”, related to the more abstract “craft”, while the desired outcome is deemed the “objective”. As students are brought through the environments foreign to them, they are required to reflect upon how the various conditions (i.e. cultural, social, economic, and political) have allowed the people of the community to make their mark in such a domain. Once a tentative relationship is formed, students are then required to reflect on the relationship, and crystallize it into a conceptual form; in essence, the “objective” of the first step now becomes the “object” of reflection, with a new objective of describing the complex relationship. This “object-objective” shift iterates twice more, as mentioned previously as part of the thematic model, shifting from the conceptualization of the relationship to experimentation of the potential relationship, and obtaining an outcome which should then be observed, then led to reinforcement or refutation. While it is not always the case that active experimentation can occur from student initiative, examples (or contradictions) of their conceptualizations are usually readily observable, and the reflective cycle is repeated, with the newly observed concrete experience instead of the prior conception or initial observation.
In such a programme, a great deal relies on the instructor, and the proficiency at which he or she guide the students through their own thoughts. While substantial technical knowledge and content is necessary, the more significant, dynamic aspect of their role is to “uncover the hidden obvious” and “point out that which is common” to the students, e.g. where some thoughts, events, or observations appear so common that they are glossed over, without realizing their significance. In order to achieve this, the instructor must have a sense of the students' mental processes, and be able to dig deeper into the underlying “structures” which have led to the students' observations and analysis as consequence; the instructor must then allow students to question the integrity of these perceived “structures” in the students' minds, in relation to the context under which their analysis is applied. For example, in considering a particular situation in Hong Kong, a Singaporean student is likely to assume that certain habits, opinions, or perceptions from the home country are also legitimate in the individual experience and past environments, they are also observed to redirect any conflicts with the presence of unusual features in the environment.)

An increased awareness of inherent assumptions or biases and preconceived notions (e.g. biases)

An increased awareness of the possible origins of these initial notions

Heightened ability to observe holistically and qualitatively (e.g. students noted the absence of features rather than the presence of unusual features in the environment)

Ability to draw connections between environmental/social conditions and individual development

Students have also commented through feedback that they feel better equipped to appreciate the complex social issues present in our world today, such as international politics and trade, innovation, local policies, and the relationships between current day conditions and the history of the people involved. Some of these traits have manifested in their other extra-curricular activities, such as international symposiums. While such analysis is by no means perfect, it does reflect the practice of dealing with VUCA, crafting order out of the chaos, and re-formation of ideas through iterative, repeated, various modes of observation. It is perhaps the very reflection upon their own inherent limitations that allow them to address them adequately. The recognition of the complexity has also highlighted their awareness of the inherent influence of "structuralism" evident in all environments, and has thus enhanced observation.

Since students have been found to be more aware of their inherent assumptions and preconceived notions, including the influence of their individual experience and past environments, they are also observed to redirect any conflicts with observation and hypothesis not only with statistical doubt, but also whether their own prior beliefs and experiences have influenced their observation. In essence, they have also gained the habit of questioning any inherent biases and/or assumptions behind their observations and conclusions and those of peers, instructors, or other sources of information, instead of only the reductionist relationships between them. With the shift in the objective, they are then more motivated to uncover more aspects of the foreign peoples (e.g. history, cultural and social practices, traditions) and subsequently to consider the relationship between these and the perceived/observed traits of the collective people, again under the principle of structuralism. This has the effect of making them aware that any conclusion they have made is based on the limited observation and analysis humanly possible, and is also subject to further scrutiny, refutation, and reformation.
Discussion on effectiveness of ELT

In the common instructional mode of teaching, students take the role of listeners, and not active experimenters. By involving the students in the process of discovery, (i.e. the ELT stages in Kolb’s model), the variations between students’ prior knowledge are taken into account, allowing for any requisite guidance to assist their shortcomings clearly identified. They are also implicitly given far more responsibility in their learning, and cultivate patterns of educated questioning – the formation of clear and precise questions is crucial to proper inquisitive methods.

Careful crafting of the experience is crucial in curating an environment in which students are best able to reflect and question themselves. This depends not only on the proficiency and familiarity of the instructor in the relevant content matter, but also his or her ability to draw inter-/multi-disciplinary relationships between the observations and the subject, then lead the student to form their own conclusions through similar paths; admittedly a much harder task than simply dispensing “expert knowledge” to a listener. Such instructors must then be sensitive enough to the student’s cognitive processes, in order to tackle their assumptions and help them reconstruct perceptions from ground up. Instructors deploying the ELT as a learning tool should be careful to protect the students from their own influence, and allow them to craft their own concrete experiences, only guiding in proper reflection. Again, there is little worry if the initially crafted relationship or connection is inaccurate or erroneous, as active experimentation would reveal that clearly to the student, and the ELT process repeats itself ad infinitum to achieve increasingly refined conclusions. A great deal of restraint is required from the instructor to avoid employing the common “expert opinion” stance in imparting the skills to the students; the students should be allowed to fail, albeit constructively.

On the point of failures, we should also note that in both cases, the experience is either contained (in the case of the simulation) or curated in a protected form (in the case of the overseas trip). The scripted nature of the experience inevitably reduces actual risk levels, limits the extent of the experience, and is largely a consequence of the timeframe of undergraduate programmes; as such, the full, ‘real-life’ experience is rarely, if ever, fully achieved. The framework recognizes this, and attempts to cushion the negative effects by incorporating deliberate reflection both between the stages of Kolb’s model, as well as on the relationships in the thematic model, to accelerate the process of deconstruction and maximize the amount learned. The effectiveness of the programmes are also largely limited by the proficiency of the instructors and their ability to react dynamically with the students’ responses and behaviours without being overbearing and imposing their views on the students.

Conclusion

The ELT method has proven useful in cultivating both appropriate learning perspectives and inculcating habits that will benefit the students in the emerging VUCA environment. It has also been shown to be equally applicable in academic and non-academic activities, for the development of undergraduate students. While there are limitations to the method, we believe that the observations made in this study show that the ELT framework, when applied in appropriate fashion, is far more versatile than that of conventional teaching methods today.

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