IACSS 2016

INTERNATIONAL ACADEMIC CONFERENCE ON SOCIAL SCIENCES

THE INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT



THE 4th INTERNATIONAL ACADEMIC CONFERENCE ON SOCIAL SCIENCES

CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

EDITOR – MALKHAZ NAKASHIDZE

July 28-28, 2016 BARCELONA, SPAIN

The 4th INTERNATIONAL ACADEMIC CONFERENCE ON SOCIAL SCIENCES

July 28-29, 2016 – Barcelona, Spain

Edited by

Dr. Malkhaz Nakashidze

Batumi Shota Rustaveli State University, Georgia

CONFERENCE SCIENTIFIC COMMITTEE AND EDITORIAL BOARD

Prof. Wolfgang Babeck Bond University, Australia **Prof. David Schultz** Hamline University, USA Dr. Gianluca Passarelli University of Rome – La Sapienza, Italy Prof. Anisul M. Islam University of Houston-Downtown, USA **Dr. Daniel Stockemer** University of Ottawa, Canada Prof. Dr. Sule Toktas Kadir Has University, Turkey **Prof. Willibald Ruch** University of Zurich, Switzerland Dr. Erdogan Ekiz King Abdulaziz University, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Dr. Leila Kajee University of Johannesburg, Sauth Africa **Prof. Dimitrios Buhalis** Bournemouth University, UK Prof. Giusto Traina University Paris-Sorbonne (Paris IV), France **Prof. David Makofsky** Minzu University of China, China Prof. Robert Launay Northwestern University, USA Prof. Marco Frev Scuola Superiore Sant'Anna, Italy **Dr. Simo Matias** Mikkonen University of Jyväskylä, Finland **Dr. Shivakumar Deene** Central University of Karanataka, India **Dr. Bruce Whitfield** American University in Bulgaria, Bulgaria **Mohammed Saleem Tariq** legal assistant, R.R. Sanghvi & Co Solicitors, UK

Dr. Dan Musinguzi Stenden University, Qatar Dr. Angela Roman "Alexandru Ioan Cuza" University of Iasi, Romania Dr. Krzysztof Borowski Warsaw School of Economics, Poland **Dr. Sorin Anton** Alexandru Ioan Cuza University of Iasi, Romania Dr. Beatrice, Poh Theng, Loo I-Shou University, Taiwan Dr. MILICI Laurențiu-Dan University of Suceava, Romania Dr. Sameer Babu M Aligarh Muslim Univeristy, India Prof. Akbar Nikkhah University of Zanjan, Iran Dr. Pardis Moslemzadeh Tehrani Tehrani National University of Malaysia, Malaysia Dr. SMAGA, Paweł Wojciech Warsaw School of Economics, Poland **Prof. Mircea Georgescu** "Al. I. cuza" University of Iasi, Romania Dr. Shivan Ahmed Mohammad Doski University of Duhok, Iraq **Dr. Zeyad al-Salameen** United Arab Emirates University, UAE **Dr. Sorin-Avram Virtop** University "Constantin Brancusi" of Targu-Jiu, Romania **Dr. Garry Kuan** Universiti Sains Malaysia, Malaysia Dr. Georgică PANFIL Alexandru Ioan Cuza Police Academy, Romania Dr. Berislav Andrlić Polytechnic of Pozega, Croatia

CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS 2016

The 4th INTERNATIONAL ACADEMIC CONFERENCE ON SOCIAL SCIENCES

www.academicinst.com

All rights reserved. No part of this work may be reproduced, stored in retrieval system or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise, without prior written permission of the Publisher. The authors of the articles published in this proceedings are each solely responsible for the accuracy of their respective articles. Their respective views do not necessarily coincide with the views of the Editorial Board.

Published by

THE INTERNATIONAL ISNTITUTE FOR ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT



59 Rustaveli str. 6000 Batumi, Georgia E-mail: <u>info@academicinst.com</u> Website: <u>http://www.academicinst.com</u>

ISBN 978-9941-0-9064-6 (PDF)

Copyright © 2016. The International Institute for Academic Development

TABLE OF CONTENTS	
Keynote Speaker	06
ANTHROPOLOGY, EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGY	
Faik Ardahan, Akdeniz University, Turkey - Developing and Doing Validity and Reliability of the Motivational Factor Scale of being Choir Singer	07
Faik Ardahan, Akdeniz University, Turkey - Comparison of Life Satisfaction Level of Recreational Choir Singers and Non-Choir Singers	15
Iman Baobeid, University of British Columbia, Canada - Women's Movements in the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen: From Decolonization to Unification (1950-1990)	23
John F. Maune, Hokusei Gakuen University, Japan - Keeping in Mind Brain-Friendly Activities in an EFL Content-Based Life Science Course	31
Chaiwat Tantarangsee, Suan Sunandha Rajabhat University, Thailand - he Impact of Social Media on Students' Engagement with English outside the Classroom	36
Claira Newton, Dr. Helen Gavin, University of Huddersfield, UK - Studying The Long-term Psychological Effects of Emotional Abuse Experienced in Childhood	41
Mohammed Al-Sadoun, United Arab Emirates University, UAE - The War in Syria through Children's Drawings	50
LAW AND POLITICAL SCIENCES	
Eugena Bisha, European University of Tirana, Albania - The International Legal Framework on the Rights of Children	54
William De Soto & Hassan Tajalli, Texas State University, USA - Do Latinos and African Americans Have a Different View of Criminal Offenders than Anglo Students?	58
Bahar Ayaz, Gazi University, Himmet Hülür, Abant İzzet Baysal University, Turkey - The contemporary state of culture and the new media of control	63
ECONOMIC, FINANCE AND MANAGEMENT	
Laura Diaconu (Maxim), Andrei Maxim, <i>Alexandru Ioan Cuza" University of Iasi</i> , Romania - Changes in the Determinants of the FDI in Romania after 2000	70
Ömer Faruk Tan, Marmara University, Şirin Özlem, MEF University, Turkey - Regression Analysis of Stock Exchanges During the Ramadan Period: Analysis of 16 Countries	77
Vasilisa Makarova, National Research University, RussiaN Federation - The analysis of approaches to the definition of "efficiency" of the corporate risk management	93

KEYNOTE SPEAKER



Prof. Oriol Miralbell

Professor and Researcher - CETT - Universitat de Barcelona, Director of IFITT national chapters and of Innovation Fund in the IFITT Board - Barcelona, Spain

Dr. Oriol Miralbell holds a PhD in Information and Knowledge Society and a Master degree in Management Information Systems. Dr. Miralbell is President of the Spanish chapter and member of the Board Committee of IFITT (International Federation for IT and Travel and Tourism). He is professor and researcher of CETT. He has lectured at the UOC and UAB. He has also was responsible for tourist information systems of the Generalitat de Catalunya, creator and coordinator of the Network of Tourist Offices in Catalonia, and has participated in various technological tourism projects at European and Spain level. He has advised the Spanish government in technological innovation projects for tourism and has participated in the strategic plans for tourism Barcelona and of Catalonia. He is the author of several books on management of these tourist destinations and on technologies for travel and tourism.

For farther information, please visit: <u>http://cett.academia.edu/OriolMiralbellIzard</u>

Developing and Doing Validity and Reliability of the Motivational Factor Scale of being Choir Singer

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Faik ARDAHAN Akdeniz University,

School of Physical Education and Sport, Turkey <u>ardahan@akdeniz.edu.tr</u>

Abstract: The main aims of this study are to develop "The Motivational Factors Scale of being Choir Singer (MFSCS)" and define the validity and reliability for Turkish population. This research is descriptive research restricted by the choir singers in Antalya city center. In this study, face to face data collecting method applied to all choir singers (n=653) in Antalya. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was done, and varimax rotation was performed on 40 items for MFSCS and the MFSCS was grouped into seven factors. Whether the data was suitable to this analysis, Kaiser Mayer Olkin and Bartlett Spheritiy test results were taken into consideration and then, EFA was performed. Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency test was applied to the identified sub-factors and overall scale. It was found that CFA parameters were in limits. Pearson Correlations Test was conducted to define the statistical correlation between sub-classes and items. Results have been assessed according to significant level 0.01 and 0.05. As a result, it was founded that Cronbach's Alpha as 0.928, total explained variance as %65.58 and CFA parameters were in statistically satisfactory limits. It can be concluded that MFSCS has reliability and validity in the estimation of "The Motivational Factors Scale of Being Choir Singer" for the Turkish population.

1. The Motivational Factors of Participating in Recreational Choirs

Music is defined as an important branch of art and has been accepting as a way of explaining themselves as an individual or as a community since the ancient times. In this sense, music as a cultural element has indispensable role in human life as a one of the powerful instruments [1]. Physicians, philosophers, psychologists, psychiatrists and pedagogues use the music to affect individual's mental and physical development with regards to treatment and education since the ancient times [2].

The choir is one of the ways to play music or sing. A choir can be defined as a musical ensemble of singers [3]. Choirs, singing in a choir, vocal ensembles, choir practice, vocalist, choral rehearsals are the words conjure up all same meanings. Pierce [4] defines singing in a choir as a solitary occupation, co-occupation or a shared occupation. Singing in choir can be accepted as co-occupation and choirs can be professional and/or amateur [5]. When leisure occupation defined as an activity that individuals engaged in to enjoy life [6], and as things individuals do to obtain mental wellness, to of their volition, to meet personal/group goals of their choosing [7], singing in amateur choir can be accepted leisure activity and has active recreational effect. In addition to these, while listening to music as a favorite hobby or pastime is globally acknowledged accepted passive leisure, active engagement in recreational music making activities is associated with a host of individual and group benefits [8, 9].

Scientists claim that the needs motivate individuals to do or not to do somethings. This was known as Maslow Needs Hierarchy. Maslow grouped need in two groups as primary needs (food, security, and belonging) and secondary needs (being with friend, creativity, curiosity, getting rid of ego and building self) [10]. Lawler [11] concluded that action of human is the result of psycho-social and physiological outcomes in his expectancy-value model. The relation between behavior and motivation was the main purposes of many researchers to explain "why" a person participates in leisure. The most famous one is Driver's [12] "Master list of items from Recreation Experience Preference scales and domain", then Manfredo et al. [13] used master list of items to define the motivational factors affecting an individual to participate in active and/or passive leisure activities.

Generally, there are many reasons to affect individuals to participate in any of recreational activities and privately singing in a choir also. Crandal [14] claims that the personality and the condition have affect to participate in active and/or passive activities, Levy [15] claims that there is interaction between social conditions and personality which promote individuals to participate in recreational activities. Some others try to explain why people participate in recreational choirs by using motivation theories like; a) Self Determination Theory [16], b) the Achievement Goal Theory [17], c) Needs Theory [10], d) Activity Theory [18).

In addition to these; there are some studies on defining the motivational factors which motivate individuals for singing in choir. But none of them is based scale as listed below;

- Beck et al. [19] studied the implementation of Singers Emotional Response Scale (SEES) with members of a Professional chorale
- Sichivitsa [20] studied students' academic and social integration, self-concept of musical ability, value of music by using The Choir Participation Survey II.
- Bailey and Davidson [21]) studied adaptive characteristics of group singing.
- Bittman et al. [22] studied the effect of recreational music making on nursing students' burnout and negative mood.
- Bailey and Davidson [23] studied effects of group singing and performance for marginalized and middle-class singers.
- Cynthia et al. [24] studied on lived experience of participating in a non-competitive choir as a leisure activity.
- Clift and Hancox [25] studied the significance of choral singing for sustaining psychological wellbeing.
- Dingle et al. [26] studied the social and mental health benefits of choir singing for disadvan-taged adults.

The importance of current study is to develop Motivational Factor Scale of Singing Choir and defines the validity and reliability for Turkish population.

2. Method

The main aims of this study are to develop "The Motivational Factors Scale of being Choir Singer (MFSCS)" and define the validity and reliability for Turkish population. The scope of this study is restricted to recreational choir singers in city center of Antalya.

Sampling: The Sampling group of this study consists of 653 participants of 37 amateur choirs. The exact number of the choirs in Center of Antalya was 43 and six choirs were excluded from the study, two of them were professional and four of them did not want to join the survey.

The tool of gathering data: The questionnaire form derived from Driver's [12] "Master list of items from Recreation Experience Preference scales

and domain" to gather data suitable for the purpose of this study was delivered to the singers before their practice and give them enough time to answer the questions and get it back. The form includes demographic questions and motivational factors. A fivepoint Likert scale was used and the range covers (1: definitely disagree, 5: definitely agree).

Before performing an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) on the 44 items, six items were excluded from further analyses due to low initial communalities (<0.40). The factorability of the correlation matrix of the remaining 38 items for MFSCS's Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) value was 0.920 and over then the recommended value of 0.6 (Kaiser, 1974), and has a statistically significant value for Bartlett's Test of Sphericity. Varimax rotation was performed on 38 items for MFSCS and rotated results were given in Table-1, the factor loadings of all factors were strong and all variables having loadings substantially from only one factor. Seven motivational factors obtained after AFA. Confirmatory factor analysis was done and all fit indices were satisfied.

3. Results

We used EFA method to determine sub-dimensions of factors which motivate persons to singing in recreational choirs. For this, we added 38 items and performed the Bartlett test of sphericity (Chisquare=15124.475, P=0.000) and calculated Keiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (0.928>0.6) and saw that EFA method is applicable to our data set. Varimax rotation was performed on 38 items for MFSCS and seven factors obtained for 65.582% of the total variance. Motivational factors including factor components, factor loadings, communalities, and descriptive statistics for each item, Cronbach's Alpha values for the components and all the scale and all the other EFA results are given in Table-1. Motivational Factors are named as follows;

F1: "Renovate/Developed" factor describes the renovated and/or developed skills and it includes "to renovate and improve myself", "to obtained use the new skills", "because it gives opportunity to use my skills", "to add value to my cultural life", "to add my daily life variety and range", "to developed my personal and spiritual values", "to create and developed my spiritual life" and "to add new dimension to my life". It has "0.908" Cronbach's Alpha coefficient and "11.054" eigenvalues.

F2: "Relaxing as Mentally" defines all the things mental wellness and it includes "to slow down and

relax my mind", "to add positive value to my mental health", "to have productive work and social life", "to rest as mentally", "being in choir makes me happy", "being in choir felt me good" and "to have a great time". It has "0.889" Cronbach's Alpha coefficient and "5.248" eigenvalues.

F3: "To be away / Escape" factor defines to be away and/or escaping reasons and it includes "to be away from my family for a while", "to be away from my work/school for a while", "to be away from my daily life for a while", "to be away from gossip and whispering for a while", "to be away from problems and responsibility of my daily life for a while" and "to be away from the people around me for a while". It has "0.871" Cronbach's Alpha coefficient and "2.448" eigenvalues.

F4: "Socialization" factor is the physical and emotional relation created between the participant and the others before/during/after the activity and it includes "to meet and talk with new people", "to do/share something with my family member", "to be together reconciled individuals", "to do/share something with my friends", "to belong to a friend group" and "to be together with the individuals have common hobbies". It has "0.842" Cronbach's Alpha coefficient and "2.014" eigenvalues.

F5: "Liking Music" factor describes the importance of hobbies in personal life and it includes "because I like singing", "because I like music", "because it is in my field of interest" and "to do something about music". It has "0.889" Cronbach's Alpha coefficient and "1.577" eigenvalues.

F6: "Recognition and Social status" factor describe the importance of recognition and social status as external motivational factors and it includes "because I like singing", "because I like music", "because it is in my field of interest" and "to do something about music". It has "0.765" Cronbach's Alpha coefficient and "1.349" eigenvalues.

F7: "Exemplifying" factor describes the importance of being a model for others and it includes "being a model for family member", "to be a model for individuals around me" and "to be a model for individuals in the society". It has "0.891" Cronbach's Alpha coefficient and "1.231" eigenvalues.

Correlations between items and components were given in Table-2. As seen in Table; the correlation results confirm that the items grouped in correct and the relevant sub-dimensions with the highest values after EFA. Path Diagram of The MFSCS was given in Figure-1 and CFA fit indexes values are given in Table-3. All fit indexes value has statistically satisfactory limits. CFA and AFA define the validity and reliability of MFSCS.

4. Discussion

This paper introduces the Motivational Factors Scale of being Choir Singer and defines the validity and reliability of MFSCS for Turkish population.

It can be said that MFSCS is an adaquate validity to explain motivational factors to participate in singing choir for the Turkish population. Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency test is 0.928 was applied to the identified sub-factors of scale. The variance explained by these subscales was %65.582 for MFSCS. In addition to these CFA fit indexes were in statistically satisfied limit.

The MFSCS' sub-dimensions can be explained by motivational theories. The Need Theory explains the seven factors of MFSCS. While "To be away/ Escaping" and "Relaxing as Mentally" sub-dimensions can be thought in physical needs, "Socialization" and "Renovate/Developed" sub-dimensions fall into Belonging Need and Self-actualisation Need, "Recognition and Social status" sub-dimension is related with Social Status Need and "Exemplifying" sub-dimension is related with Selfactualisation Need. In addition to these, "Liking Music" sub-dimension is related internal motivational factor and "Recognition and Social status" is related external motivational factor can be explained by using Self Determination Theory [16]. On the other hand, these motivational factors which motivate individuals to sing in choir can be explained by the Achievement Goal Theory [17]. Participating in choir requires active participation and being active as physically and mentally can be explained by the Activity Theory [18].

The MFSCS' seven sub-dimensions overlaps with the Driver's (1983) Master list of items from Recreation Experience Preference scales and domain. At the same time, the results of studies done by Beck et al. [19], Sichivitsa [20], Bailey and Davidson [21], Bittman et al. [22], Cynthia et al. [24], Clift and Hancox [25], Dingle et al. [26] confirm the validity of MFSCS.

Finally, results reveal that the Motivational Factors Scale of being Choir Singer were reliable and valid in the estimation of the motivational factors for the Turkish population.

References

[1] Coskuner, S. (2009). The Effects of Amateur Choir Education on Children's citizenship and Character Development. Proceeding book. International Conference on Primary Education. 25-27.11.2009, Hong Kong.

[2] Yavuzer, H. (2006). Çocuk Psikolojisi. İstanbul: Remzi Kitabevi Yayınları.

[3] Ucan, A. (1997). Müzik Eğitiminde Temel Kavramlar-İlkeler-Yaklaşımlar. Ankara: Müzik Ansiklopedisi Yayınları.

[4] Pierce, D. E. (2003). Occupation by design: Building therapeuticpower. Philadelphia: F. A. Davis.

[5] O'Toole, P. (1994). I sing in a choir, but I have no voice. The Quarterly Journal of Music Teaching and Learning. 4(5):65-76.

[6] Law, M., Polatajko, H., Baptiste, S., & Townsend, E. (2002). Core concepts of occupational therapy. In E. Townsend (Ed.), Enabling occupation: An occupational therapy perspective (pp. 29-56). Ottawa: CAOT Publications ACE.

[7] Daniel, A. and Manigandan, C. (2005). Efficacy of leisure intervention groups and their impact on quality of life among people with spinal cord injury. International Journal of Rehabilitation Research, 28, 43-48.

[8] Bittman, B. (2001). Music-making: An Integrative Strategy For Managing Chronic Pain. The Pain Practitioner, 11(1), 2-11.

[9] Bittman, B., Berk L., Felten D., Westengard J., Simonton O., Pappas J., & Ninehouser M. (2001). Composite effects of group drumming music therapy on modulation of neuroendocrine-immune parameters in normal subjects. Alternative Therapies, 7(1), 38-47.

[10] Ibrahim, H. and Cordes, K.A., (2002) Outdoor Recreation, Enrichment For a Lifetime. Second Edition, Sagamore Publishing, Il.

[11] Lawler, E. E. (1973). Motivations in work organizations. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.

[12] Driver, B. L. (1983). Master list of items from Recreation Experience Preference scales and domain. Unpublished document. Fort Collins, CO: USDA Forest Service, Rocky Mountain Forest and Range Experiment Station.

[13] Manfredo, M., Driver, B.L., and Tarrant M.A. (1996). Measuring leisure motivation: a meta-analysis of the recreation experience preference scales. Journal of Leisure Research, 28 (3), 188-213.

[14] Crandall, R. (1980). Motivation for leisure. Journal of Leisure Research, (12)1, 45-54.

[15] Levy, J. (1979). Motivation for leisure: An intereactionist approach. In H. Ibrahim and R. Crandall (Eds.), Leisure: A psychological approach. Los Alamitos, CA: Hwong Publishing.

[16] Deci, E.L. and Ryan, R.M. (1985). The general causality orientations scale: Self determination in personality. Journal of Research in Personality, 19,109-134.

[17] Pintrich, P.R. (2000). An Achievement Goal Theory Perspective on Issues in Motivation Terminology, Theory and Research. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 25, 92–104.

[18] Engeström, Y., Miettinen, R. and Punamaki, R.L. (2003). Perspective On Activity Theory, Cambiridge University Press, Second Edition, NY, 10011-4211, USA

[19] Beck, R., Cesario, T., Yousefi, S. and Enamoto, H. (2000). Choral Singing, Performance Perception and Immune System Changes in Salivary Immunoglobulin and Cortisol. *Music Perception*. 18(1): 87–106.

[20] Sichivitsa, V.O. (2003). College Choir Members' Motivation to Persist in Music: Application of the Tinto Model. JRME. 51(4): 330-341

[21] Bailey, B. A. and Davidson, J. W. (2002). Adaptive Characteristics of Group Singing: Perceptions from Members of a Choir Forhomeless Men. Musicae Scientiae, 6(2), 221-256.

[22] Bittman, B.B., Snyder, C., Bruhn, K.T., Liebfreid, F., Stevens, C.K., Westengard, J., and Umbach, P.O. (2004). Recreational Music-making: An Integrative Group Intervention for Reducing Burnout and Improving Mood States in First Year Associate Degree Nursing Students: Insights and Economic Impact. International Journal of Nursing Education Scholarship. 1(1): 1-26.

[23] Bailey, B. A. and Davidson, J. W. (2005). Effects of group singing and performance for

marginalized and middle-class singers. Psychology of music, 33(3), 269-303.

[24] Cynthia, J., Guptill, C.and Sumsion, T. (2009). Motivation for continuing involvement in a leisurebased choir: The lived experiences of university choir members, Journal of Occupational Science, 16:3, 187-193, DOI: 10.1080/14427591.2009. 9686661.

[25] Clift, S. and Hancox, G. (2010). The significance of choral singing for sustaining psychological wellbeing: Findings from a survey of choristers in England, Australia and Germany. Music Performance Research, 3(1), 79-96.

11

[26] Dingle, G. A., Brander, C., Ballantyne, J., and Baker, F. A. (2013). 'To be heard': The social and mental health benefits of choir singing for disadvantaged adults. Psychology of Music, 41(4), 405-421.

Table-1: Factor Analysis of the Motivational Factors of Singing in Choir

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin				cy.	0.920	175				
Bartlett's Test of Spi	nericity Ap	prox. Cni-	-Square df		15124. 703	475				
			Si		0.000					
		Comp		<u>g.</u> Id Factor						
Items	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	Com.	M ± SD	
YG01	0.687							0.684	4.01±1.16	
YG02	0.747							0.660	3.99±1.06	
YG03	0.687							0.670	4.12±1.04	
YG04	0.691							0.418	4.25±0.96	
YG05	0.710							0.616	4.05±1.06	
YG06	0.753							0.685	4.01±1.11	
YG07	0.692							0.632	3.76±1.24	
YG08	0.683							0.631	3.76±1.20	
MOR01		0.648						0.611	3.80±1.14	
MOR02		0.671						0.680	4.10±1.03	
MOR03		0.651						0.592	3.90±1.11	
MOR04		0.796						0.639	4.10±1.04	
MOR05		0.661						0.620	4.32±0.98	
MOR06		0.687						0.671	4.27±0.96	
MOR07		0.631						0.656	4.22±1.00	
UZ01			0.696					0.715	2.23±1.39	
UZ02			0.780					0.619	2.56±1.44	
UZ03			0.774					0.648	3.13±1.44	
UZ04			0.749					0.561	3.14±1.52	
UZ05			0.752					0.607	3.04±1.47	
UZ06			0.760					0.614	2.42±1.41	
SOS01				0.619				0.750	3.23±1.25	
SOS02				0.561				0.671	2.91±1.31	
SOS03				0.780				0.689	3.62±1.25	
SOS04				0.781				0.583	3.60±1.23	
SOS05				0.703				0.815	3.24±1.29	
SOS06				0.653				0.657	3.74±1.24	
TSS01					0.857			0.813	2.49±1.35	
TSS02					0.741			0.676	3.00±1.39	
TSS03					0.845			0.774	2.48±1.35	
TSS04					0.759			0.870	2.93±1.43	
MZ01						0.790		0.806	4.46±0.92	
MZ02						0.751		0.464	4.59±0.84	
MZ03						0.758		0.474	4.31±0.97	
MZ04						0.467		0.718	4.05±1.11	
OO01							0.819	0.749	3.22±1.36	
OO02							0.852	0.614	3.30±1.36	
OO03							0.801	0.567	3.36±1.37	
Cronbach's Alpha:	0.908	0.889	0.871	0.842	0.889	0.765	0.891			
Rotated Eigenvalue		5.248	2.448	2.014	1.577	1.349	1.231	For	all scale.	
Rotated variance(%		10.899	10.000	9.429	8.740	7.107	6.295	Cronbach's		
Rotated cumulati	-	24.011	34.011	43.440	52.180	59.287	65.582	Alpha	=0.928	
variance (%):										

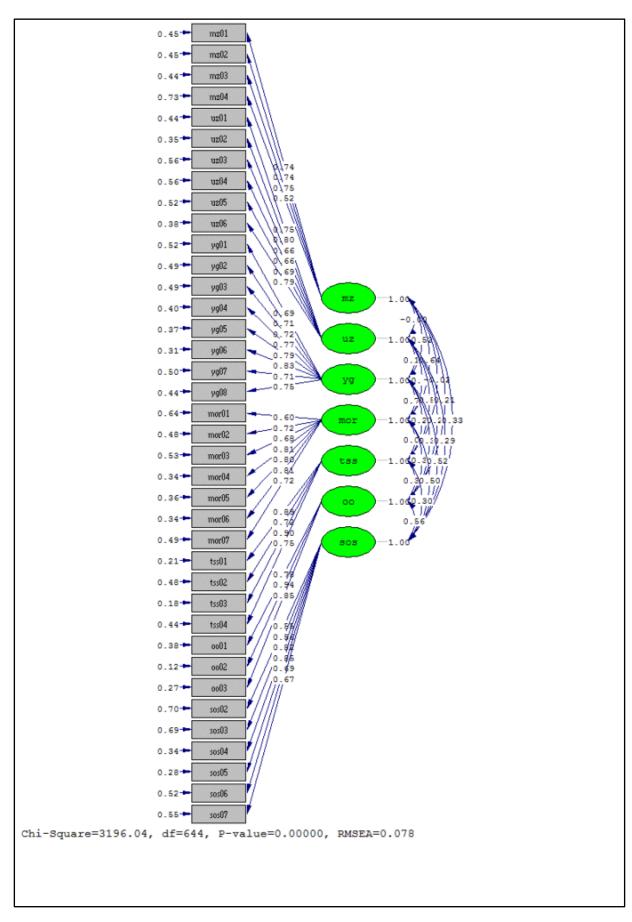
Table-2: Pearson Correlations between items and components									
Items	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7		

12

YG01	0.753**	0.507**	0.083*	0.307**	0.202**	0.380**	0.267**
YG02	0.776**	0.503**	0.106**	0.304**	0.176**	0.372**	0.231**
YG03	0.757**	0.538**	0.075	0.331**	0.165**	0.439**	0.268**
YG04	0.780**	0.615**	0.078*	0.325**	0.066	0.420**	0.242**
YG05	0.799**	0.575**	0.147**	0.381**	0.147**	0.404^{**}	0.246**
YG06	0.841**	0.579**	0.171**	0.399**	0.231**	0.362**	0.311**
YG07	0.764**	0.474**	0.246**	0.366**	0.314**	0.285**	0.287**
YG08	0.792**	0.529**	0.239**	0.411**	0.332**	0.315**	0.310**
MOR01	0.496**	0.711**	0.219**	0.282**	0.190**	0.319**	0.238**
MOR02	0.556**	0.781**	0.092*	0.345**	0.069	0.421**	0.218**
MOR03	0.576**	0.762**	0.195**	0.332**	0.206**	0.374**	0.255**
MOR04	0.550**	0.850**	0.093*	0.331**	0.082*	0.436**	0.212**
MOR05	0.537**	0.793**	0.048	0.331**	0.020	0.528**	0.212**
MOR06	0.545**	0.803**	0.014	0.342**	0.013	0.498**	0.215**
MOR07	0.471**	0.741**	0.047	0.338**	0.034	0.444**	0.211**
UZ01	0.067	-0.009	0.756**	0.177**	0.436**	-0.041	0.189**
UZ02	0.122**	0.071	0.820**	0.193**	0.414**	0.038	0.195**
UZ03	0.173**	0.176**	0.760**	0.224**	0.236**	0.090*	0.210**
UZ04	0.225**	0.202**	0.765**	0.263**	0.284**	0.142**	0.293**
UZ05	0.200**	0.172**	0.774**	0.275**	0.305**	0.082*	0.198**
UZ06	0.084*	0.008	0.805**	0.194**	0.436**	-0.035	0.190**
SOS01	0.253**	0.193**	0.204**	0.674**	0.326**	0.126**	0.328**
SOS02	0.275**	0.193**	0.231**	0.683**	0.350**	0.117**	0.431**
SOS03	0.378**	0.376**	0.222**	0.827**	0.230**	0.287**	0.436**
SOS04	0.425**	0.439**	0.215**	0.834**	0.203**	0.350**	0.429**
SOS05	0.322**	0.277**	0.287**	0.761**	0.362**	0.160**	0.372**
SOS06	0.382**	0.427**	0.114**	0.708**	0.143**	0.315**	0.352**
TSS01	0.183**	0.046	0.420**	0.260**	0.887**	0.023	0.318**
TSS02	0.313**	0.175**	0.322**	0.365**	0.833**	0.111**	0.359**
TSS03	0.174**	0.030	0.449**	0.274**	0.896**	-0.008	0.295**
TSS04	0.258**	0.154**	0.369**	0.351**	0.850**	0.060	0.366**
MZ01	0.329**	0.400^{**}	0.000	0.168**	-0.035	0.789**	0.139**
MZ02	0.334**	0.441**	-0.069	0.151**	-0.069	0.766**	0.097*
MZ03	0.400**	0.435**	0.031	0.191**	0.062	0.820**	0.146**
MZ04	0.379**	0.423**	0.189**	0.378**	0.172**	0.714**	0.291**
OO01	0.285**	0.250**	0.242**	0.430**	0.323**	0.194**	0.880**
0002	0.324**	0.265**	0.254**	0.494**	0.356**	0.202**	0.937**
OO03	0.334**	0.269**	0.248**	0.502**	0.373**	0.224**	0.902**

Table-3: CFA Fit Indexes

X ² / deg. freedom	= 3196.04/644=4,96	SRMR	= 0.075
GFI	= 0.76	CFI	= 0.96
AGFI	= 0.76	NFI	= 0.94
RMSEA	= 0.078	NNFI	= 0.95
RMR	= 0.11	PGFI	= 0.69



Comparison of Life Satisfaction Level of Recreational Choir Singers and Non-Choir Singers

Associate Prof. Dr. Faik ARDAHAN

Akdeniz University,School of Physical Education and Sport Recreation Department,Turkey <u>ardahan@akdeniz.edu.tr</u>

Abstract: The main aim of this study is to compare the Life Satisfaction (LS) level of Recreational Choir Singers and Non-choir singers and define the effect of motivational factors to be a choir singer on LS by using linear regression model of LS and the benefits of participating in choir as choir singer. This research is descriptive research restricted by the choir singers in Antalya city centre. In this study, the questionnaire was handed to all choir singers (n=653) in Antalya and collected back in 15 minutes. The designed questionnaire addresses demographic variables, and The Satisfaction with Life Scale-(SWLS) developed by Diener et al. [1] adapted in to Turkish by Köker [2] and The Motivational Factors Scale of Being Choir Singer (MFSCS) developed by Ardahan [40] was used. The LS level of non-choir singers was collected with electronic questionnaire form on social media. As a result of this study, participating in choir as choir singer has positive effect on LS. In other word; when compared LS level of recreational choir singers with non-choir singers, LS level of choir singers is higher. In addition to this result, when compared LS level of choir singers, there is no statistically meaningful difference by marital status, gender, and being salary earner, but there is statistically meaningful difference by monthly income, the higher income is the higher LS level is. In addition to these, there is statistically meaningful positive correlation with LS and age. The seven sub dimensions of MFSCS have positive correlation with LS.

Introduction

All human relations with music usually start when their mothers' and/or other care givers' cradle-song [3] and they believe this is the one way to communicate with baby [4]. Many theoretical approaches suggest music has important role in influencing human daily life and emotional life as an intrinsic and/ or extrinsic motivators. Sometimes it can be main reason of behavior and the tool having interaction world outside the self and plays significant role for adaptation in the cognitive, emotional, social, and physical processes of behavior [5]. There are there types of singing; first; solitary occupation (a choir singer comprehend his/her experience completely alone -singing by oneself-), second; shared occupation (a choir singer's experience run parallel way instead of interactive -singing national anthem together with other in the beginning of a sporting event) and third; the most social of occupation called co-occupation (need more than two persons having interaction between them). Singing in a choir as singer can be accepted as co-occupation [6].

In music literature, there are two kinds participation, as defined active and passive. In many research, researchers focused on the uses and the effects of listening music which is passive participation and the complexity and diversity of listening experience. The active participation can be defined as making music [3]. The Flow Theory developed by Csikszenrmihalyi [7] is insights and the importance of the active participation on life satisfaction, mental absorption whereas passive activities result in dissatisfaction and mental entropy. In addition to these, active participation and group singing usually create social interaction and increasing in happiness, self-esteem and decreasing in loneliness, opportunities for experiencing the mental stimulation's positive effects.

There are many reasons for demanding of participating in recreational activities for relaxing, improving oneself, having new social relations, achieving self-realization, spending time with friends/family, taking social responsibility, getting out of boredom, escaping from responsibility, crowd, routine, family and someone else, belonging to a group, making new friends, improving and taking social status and power, being recognized, helping others, learning new skills, having physical, emotional and mental rehabilitation and fitness, being a fighter or to challenging or revolting, whether casual or serious, indoor or outdoor, with a group or alone, free of charge or not, official or not [8, 9, 10, 11]. Listening music or singing in a choir is casual or serious leisure.

Participating in a choir as a singer or as a listener of their concert, need motivational factor to begin and or to continue. To explain these motivational factors, Crandal [12] and Levy (13] says that the personality and the conditions and their interactions have effect on the beginning and continuity. In addition to these the other motivational theories, a) Self Determination Theory developed by Deci and Ryan [14] with intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, b) the Achievement Goal Theory developed by

Pintrich [15] with outcome oriented goals and task oriented goals, c) Needs Theory developed by Maslow [16], d) Activity Theory developed by Engeström et al. [17], and e) Lawler [18] add an conclusion to these motivational theories as the action is the result of physiological and psycho-social outcomes.

Tinto [19] studied on a theory called Tinto's Theory of Individual Departure. In this theory it was claimed that the parents who were interested /involved in music, usually support their children's decision to study music, and they are usually follow their steps [20]. Ucan [21] claimed that music and participating choir has certain effect on human life as social benefits, economic benefits, individualistic benefits, cultural and educational functions and benefits. Beck et al. [22] reported that group singing had positive emotional, physical, creative and emotional outcomes. Clift and Hancox [23] found that singing in choir as choir singer perceives social, emotional, physical and spiritual health. Pitts [24] concluded that singing provide achievements, opportunity to escape for a while everyday responsibilities, frustrations of realities, and challenge, opportunity to make and developed new friendships who has same interest. In addition to these; Bailey and Davidson [3, 25, 26] explored that group singing provided positive life changes, and bring opportunity to obtain benefits associated to group process, therapeutic benefits, benefits assignable to choir/audience provision, and benefits obtained from mental stimulation.

Many researchers describe how important and how significance passive participation as listening music and/or active participation as singing and healthy and/or healing [23]. Participating music activity (passive as audience or active as singing) with amateur expectation is a recreational behavior which holds many reasons behind it. These can be defined benefits of singing in a choir as a singer; as listed like; feeling more important, feeling relaxed and refreshed, taking responsibility of self and others, spending time with family members and/or friends, getting mental and emotional fitness, improve personal borders, belonging to a group, making friends and new connection, feeling happier, getting self-confidence, socialization, feeling ready for new challenges, being generous to diversity and a fault, improve and developed new skills and ability, defeat the stage fright, escape from sameness, distress and stress, having therapeutic touch of music, challenge with any fear, having motivation for other activities, get rid of being alone feeling, having opportunity to develop life skills and team work skills, having opportunity to express parts of his/her

personality and exercising their brain, [6, 9, 10, 27, 28]. All these benefits can be accepted as the determiners of the happiness and/or life satisfaction.

The satisfaction has many classifications like life satisfaction (LS), social satisfaction, emotional satisfaction, marital and role satisfaction, leisure satisfaction, economic and professional satisfaction. All these satisfaction effect and effected from ones's whole physical, emotional, mental and professional life and all kind relationship and interaction [29]. LS can be defined as the global perception and/or decision of an individual about his/her life or emotional attitude derived from his/ her life and a general attitude towards the life and one's LS level can be measured by the realization level of expectations [1, 11, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35].

LS can be affected by many factors as confidence in physical health, having meaningful and satisfied interaction and/or relationships with others including family member, friends, colleagues, relatives and others, quality of life, economic security and sufficiency, satisfactory income, reaching goals, having meaningful marriage or relation, helping others, physical, emotional and mental wellness, having close friends, having positive personality or being optimist, participating or having opportunity to participate in recreational activities, pleasure retrieved from daily life, finding the life's worth living, having a child, having a house/flat/car, having hobbies, and many other things [11, 27, 32, 34, 36, 37, 38, 39].

When individuals get pleasure and/or get positive satisfaction from leisure participation it effect positive LS [38].

1. Method

The main aim of this study is to compare the Life Satisfaction (LS) level of Recreational Choir Singers and Non-choir singers and define the effect of motivational factors to be a choir singer on LS by using linear regression model of LS and the benefits of participating in choir as choir singer. The scope of this study is restricted to recreational choir singers in city center of Antalya.

Sampling group of this study consists of 653 choir singers of 37 amateur choirs. The exact number of the choirs in Center of Antalya was 43 and six choirs excluded from study because, two of them were professional and four of them did not want to join to survey.

The designed questionnaire addresses demographic variables, and The Satisfaction with Life Scale-(SWLS) developed by Diener et al. [1] adapted in to Turkish by Köker [2] and The Motivational Factors Scale of Being Choir Singer (MFSCS) developed by Ardahan [40] was used. A five-point Likert scale was used for scales and benefit items and the range covers (1: definitely disagree, 5: definetely agree). In this study, the questionnaire was handed to all choir singers and collected back in 15 minutes. The LS level of non-choir singers (n=274) was collected with electronic questionnaire form on social media.

In the processing of assessing data the descriptive statistic methods, linear regression model have been used, results have been assessed according to significant level 0.01, 0.05 and 0.10.

In the equation Given in Table-1; α_i is constant, u_i is disturbance terms, LS which is dependent variable and independent variables listed in Table-1. Ordinary least square (OLS) estimators were used to estimate the coefficients of equation. Heteroskedasticity was checked out and Breusch-Pagan/ Cook-Weisberg test was performed and $Chi^2 = 18$. 48, P>Chi²=0.000 were found which is enough to reject the null hypothesis of constant variance for model. So, robust standard errors of the coefficients were computed because of heteroskedasticity in model. Then, possible multicolinearity problem and calculated variance inflation factors (VIF) for each independent variable in the model were checked and found that maximum VIF value is 4.26 which is in limits [41]. Finally, because of the large sample size, the disturbances are assumed as normally distributed. If sample size is large, the Central Limit Theorem accepts that normal distribution can be performed, even if disturbances are not normal [42].

2. Findings

Descriptive statistics of components were given in Table-2. As seen in table; the first important three factors of participating a choir as singer are "Liking Music", "Relaxing as Mentally" and "Renova-te/Developed". Their life satisfaction is not so high and average age is 53.16 years old. Majority of the choir singers were female, married, well educated, retired and have 1050\$ and lower personal monthly income. The LS level of choir participants is higher than non-choir participants and there are statistically meaningful differences (t=5.154 p=0.000) in favor of choir participants.

The result of regression model is given in Table-3. As seen in the Table, model is significant (F=14.01, P=0.000 for the model). The variables "Relaxing as Mentally" (Coef.= 0.1230, P=0.046), "Socialization" (Coef.= 0.1910, P=0.000), "Recognition and Social status" (Coef.= 0.1111, P=0.001), "Liking Music" (Coef.= 0.1030, P=0.044), "Exemplifying" (Coef.= 0.0973, P=0.003), "Age" (Coef. = 0.0055, P=0.086) have positive and significant effects and the variable "To be away / Escape" (Coef.= -0.0554, P=0.076) has negative and significant effects on LS. This means that one unit increase/decrease in these variables: LS will increase/decrease as coefficient value. In addition to these, when compared being male; being female (Coef.= 0.1400, P=0.030), when compared having 350\$ and below monthly income; having monthly income 1051-1400\$ (Coef.= 0.5913, P=0.000) and 1401\$ and above (Coef.= 0.6614, P=0.000) have positive and significant effect on LS. On the other hand, when compared being graduated from seconddary school; being graduated from High School (Coef.= -0.2009, P=0.046) and University (Coef.= -0.1822, P=0.088) have negative and significant effect on LS. This means that the higher the income, the higher the LS and the higher the graduation, the higher the LS. Age has positive and significant effects on LS level. When the individuals get older, LS level increases. Being retired or jobless including being unemployed, housewife or student may be a reason or give opportunity to participate in a choir as a choir singer, but it has no effect on individuals LS. Even if, the coefficient value of sub dimension "To be away / Escape" has negative sign, this has positive meaning, because of the Likert value ranges 1: definitely disagree to 5: definitely agree. This means that the average value of sub dimension "To be away / Escape" approaches to 1, the individuals do not prefer participating in choir not for escaping from something, and this has positive effect on LS.

17

The benefits of individuals who participated in choir as a choir singer are given in Table-4. As seen in table, the choir singer gets "feel happier", "satisfied", "learned new things", "make new friends", "feel relaxed and refreshed" and "waste their time more qualified and productive". All benefits have strong, positive and significant correlation with LS and majority of motivational factors.

Conclusion

Linear regression model used in this study takes The Motivational Factors Scale of Being Choir Singer (MFSCS) and some demographics variables as independent variables to examine the level and direction of its effect on LS.

Even if, the coefficient value of sub dimension "To be away / Escape" has negative sign, this has positive meaning, because of the Likert value ranges 1: definitely disagree to 5: definitely agree. This means that the average value of sub dimension "To be away / Escape" approaches to 1, the individuals do not prefer participating in choir not for escaping from something, and this has positive effect on LS. The seven sub dimensions of MFSCS have positive correlation with LS. It can be concluded that, if positive experience achieved, participating leisure activities whether casual or serious, indoor or outdoor, with a group or alone, free of charge or not, official or not have positive effect on leisure satisfaction, social satisfaction, emotional satisfaction and LS [11, 16, 29, 33, 34, 35]. The result of current study verifies that, when compared the LS level of choir singers and non-choir singer, the choir singers have higher LS and overlaps leisure literature about LS.

There is positive correlation between the reason and the benefits or outcomes as it was expected. The reason is the main determiner/motivator of the action and if the reason is realized satisfaction be formed. The benefit and outcomes which have positive effect on LS of participating in as a choir singer choir overlaps with the conclusion and the results of Weissinger and Bandalos [28], Ucan [21], Beck et al. [22], Clift and Hancox [23], Cordes and Ibrahim [10], Pitts [24], Bailey and Davidson [3, 25, 26], Jacob et al [6].

In many studies, the positive contribution of good marriage to life satisfaction was emphasized [43, 44]. In current study, the number or maried participants (%62.80) are higher then singles (%38. 20), while outdoor sports participants were single. In addition to this, it is obtained that, being female have positive advantages on participating in choir in contrast to participating outdoor activities [11, 34]. The majority of choir participants is female (%60.20) and married but there is no meaningful difference between LS level by gender and marital status. It can be concluded that choirs are not under "Man Hegemony".

The higher income gives individuals higher opportunity to participate leisure activities whether alone or with a group then individuals have lower income [11, 16], and higher income usually gives higher LS [1, 30]. The result of current study verifies this conclusion. White [45] concluded and Ardahan [11] also found that there is a positive correlation between age, education level and LS. When age of individuals increase, their education level increase and depending upon this, their LS will increase. But in this study, it was found that there is a negative effect of education level on LS. The reasons of this can be a) the majority of participant were retired, b) education level of them were high school and below and b) their retirement pensions are not high.

It is expected that when individuals aged, many structural problems (having occupation, get married, raise a kid, improve professional and social career, etc.) and basic needs (buying car, having house/flat, holiday etc.) of individuals were solved in years depending on his/her ages [1, 11, 30]. And this has positive effect on individuals LS level. The result of current study supports this conclusion.

In many research, it was concluded that being employed has positive effect on LS [1, 30], in this study, it was found that, there is no differences between unemployed, employed or retired participants' LS level. The reason of this can be the therapeutic touch of music.

Result

As a result of this study, participating in choir as choir singer has positive effect on LS. In other word; when compared LS level of recreational choir singers with non-choir singers, LS level of choir singers is higher. In addition to this result, when compared LS level of choir singers, there is no statistically meaningful difference by marital status, gender, and being salary earner, but there is statistically meaningful difference by monthly income, the higher income is the higher LS level is. In addition to these, there is statistically meaningful positive correlation with LS and age. The seven sub dimensions of MFSCS have positive correlation with LS.

References

[1] Diener, E., Emmons, R.A., Larsen, R.J., and Griffin, S. (1985). The Satisfaction With Life Scale. Journal of Personality Assessment. 49, 71-75.

[10] Cordes K.A. and Ibrahim H.M. (2003). Applications in Recreation and Leisure for Today and Future Third Edition, Von Hoffmann Press, New York. [11] Ardahan, F. (2011b). The profile of the Turkish mountaineers and rock climbers: the rea-sons and the carried benefits for attending outdoor sports and life satisfaction level. In 8th Inter-national Conference Sport and Quality of Life/ 2011, 10–11 Nov 2011, Congress Centre-Brno/ Czech Republic.

[12] Crandall, R. (1980). Motivation for leisure. Journal of Leisure Research, (12)1, 45-54.

[13] Levy, J. (1979). Motivation for leisure: An intereactionist approach. In H. Ibrahim and R. Crandall (Eds.), Leisure: A psychological approach. Los Alamitos, CA: Hwong Publishing.

[14] Deci, E.L. and Ryan, R.M. (1985). The general causality orientations scale: Self determination in personality. Journal of Research in Personality, 19,109-134.

[15] Pintrich, P.R. (2000). An Achievement Goal Theory Perspective on Issues in Motivation Terminology, Theory and Research. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 25, 92–104.

[16] Ibrahim, H.M. and Cordes, K.A., (2002) Outdoor Recreation, Enrichment for a Lifetime. Second Edition, Sagamore Publishing, II.

[17] Engeström, Y., Miettinen, R. and Punamaki, R.L. (2003). Perspective On Activity Theory, Cambiridge University Press, Second Edition, NY, 10011-4211, USA

[18] Lawler, E. E. (1973). Motivations in work organizations. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.

[19] Tinto, V. (1975). Dropout from higher education: A theoretical synthesis of recent research. Review of Educational Research, 45, 89-125.

[2] Köker, S., (1991). Normal ve Sorunlu Ergenlerin Yaşam Doyumu Düzeylerinin Karşılaştırılması. Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi. Ankara: A.Ü. Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü.

[20] Sichivitsa, V.O. (2003). College Choir Members' Motivation to Persist in Music: Application of the Tinto Model. JRME. 51(4): 330-341

[21] Ucan, A. (1997). Müzik Eğitiminde Temel Kavramlar-İlkeler-Yaklaşımlar. Ankara: Müzik Ansiklopedisi Yayınları.

[22] Beck, R., Cesario, T., Yousefi, S. and Enamoto, H. (2000) Choral Singing, Performance Perception and Immune System Changes in Salivary Immunoglobulin and Cortisol. Music Perception. 18(1): 87–106.

[23] Clift, S. and Hancox, G. (2001). The Perceived Benefits of Singing: Findings from Preliminary Surveys of a University College Choral Society. Journal of the Royal Society for the Promotion of Health. 121(4): 248–56.

[24] Pitts, S.E. (2004). Everybody Wants To Be Pavarotti": The Experience of Music for Performers and Audience at a Gilbert and Sullivan Festival. Journal of the Royal Musical Association. 129: 149–67.

[25] Bailey, B. A. and Davidson, J. W. (2005). Effects of group singing and performance for marginalized and middle-class singers. Psychology of music, 33(3), 269-303.

[26] Bailey, B.A. and Davidson, J.W. (2003). Amateur Group Singing as a Therapeutic Instru-ment. Nordic Journal of Music Therapy. 12(1): 18–32.

[27] Bruce, A. C., Stan, L. A., and Phillip, R. K. (1976). Marital and family role satisfaction. Journal of Marriage and Family, 38(3), 431–440.

[28] Weissinger, E. and Bandalos, D.L. (1995). Development, Reliability and Validity of a Scale to Measure Intrinsic Motivation in Leisure. Journal of Leisure, 27(4): 379-400.

[29] Ardahan, F. (2014). The Effect of Participating in Official Recreational Activities on Organizational Citizenship, Organizational and Professional Commitment, Life Satisfaction and Achievement Perception. The Online Journal of Recreation and Sport. 3(3):7-17.

[3] Bailey, B. A. and Davidson, J. W. (2002). Adaptive Characteristics of Group Singing: Perceptions from Members of a Choir Forhomeless Men. Musicae Scientiae, 6(2), 221-256.

[30] Diener, E. (1984). Subjective well-being. Psychological Bulletin. 95(3):542–575.

[31] Pavot, W. and Diener, E. (1993). Review of the satisfaction with life scale. Psychological Assessment. 5(2): 164–172.

[32] Sung-Mook, H. and Giannakopoulos, E. (1994). The relationship of satisfaction with life to personality characteristics. Journal of Psychology Interdisciplinary and Applied 128/5, 547.

[33] Rodriguez, A., Latkova, P. and Sun, Y.Y. (2008). The relationship between leisure and life satisfaction: application of activity and need theory, Social Indicators Research, 86:163–175.

[34] Ardahan, F. (2011a). Examining relation between emotional intelligence and life satisfaction on the example of outdoor sports participants. In Ith International Sport Economy and Management congress, 12–15th Oct 2011, Izmir, Turkey.

[35] Ardahan, F. (2012). Examining the Relation Between Social Capital, Life Satisfaction and Academic Achievement: School of Physical Education and Sport Case, Posper Presentation, 12th International Sport Sciences Congress, 12-14th December, Denizli-Turkey.

[36] Palmer, B., Donaldson, C. and Stough, C. (2002). Emotional intelligence and life satisfaction. Personality and Individual Differences, 33, 1091–1100.

[37] Schmitter, C., Zisselman, M. and Woldow, A. (2003). Life satisfaction in centenarians residing in long-term care. Annals of Long Term Care, 7(2), 437–442.

[38] Ngai, V.T. (2005). Leisure satisfaction and quality of life in Macao, China. Leisure Studies, 24(2), 195–207.

[39] Augusto, J. M., Lo'pez-Zafra, L. E., Marti'nez de Anton ana, R. and Pulido, M. (2006). Perceived emotional intelligence and life satisfaction among university teachers. Psicothema, 18, 152–157.

[4] Papousek, M. (1996). Intuitive parenting: A hidden source of musical stimulation in infancy. In I. Deliege and]. Sloboda (eds), Musical beginnings: Origins and development of musical compaence .pp. 88-112. New York: Oxford University Press.

[40] Ardahan, F. (2016). The Motivational Factors Scale of being Choir Singer (MFSCS). 4th International Academic Conference on Social Sciences (IACSS 2016), 28-29 July 2016, Barcelona, Spain.

[41] Gujarati, D. N., 2003, Basic Econometrics, fourth edition, McGraw-Hill/Irvin, New York.

[42] Baltagi, B.H., 2008, Econometrics, 4th edition, Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg.

[43]Hicks, M. W., Platt, M., (1970) Marital happiness and stability: A review of the research in the

sixties. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 32: 553-574.

[44] Laws, J. L., (1971) A feminist review of marital adjustment literature: The rape of locke. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 33:483-516.

[45] White, T. H. (1975), Relative importance of education and income as predictors in outdoor recreation participation. Journal of Leisure Research, 7(3), 191-199.

[5] Kaemmer, J. E. (1993). Musicin human lift: Anthropological perspectives on music. Austin, Texas: University of Texas Press.

[6] Jacob, C., Guptill, C. And Sumsion, T. (2009). Motivation for continuing involvement in a leisurebased choir: The lived experiences of university choir members. Journal of Occupational Science. 16(3), 187-193.

[7] Csikszenrmihalyi, M. (1997). Finding Flow: The Psychology of Engagement with Everyday Life. New York: Basic Books.

[8] Burnett, D. (1994). Exercising better management skills. Personnel Management, 26(1): 42–46.

[9] McKenzie, M.D. (2000). How are adventure education program outcomes achieved?: A review of the literature. Australian Journal of Outdoor Education, 5(1): 19–28.

Table-1: Linear Regression Model of LS

 $LS = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1$ Relaxing as Mentally + α_2 Renovate/Developed + α_3 To be away / Escape

+ α_4 Socialization + α_5 Recognition and Social status + α_6 Liking Music

+ α_7 Exemplifying + α_8 Age + α_9 Female + α_{10} Single + α_{11} High School

+ α_{12} University + α_{13} Post graduate and upper + α_{14} Employed + α_{15} Unemployed

+ α_{16} 351-700\$ monthly income + α_{17} 701-1050\$ monthly income

+ α_{18} 1051-1400\$ monthly income + α_{19} 1401\$ and above monthly income + u

Table-2: Descriptive Statistics of Components

Variables	Mean	S.D.	Variables	n	%
F1- Liking Music	4.35	0.74	Married	410	62.8
F2- Relaxing as Mentally	4.10	0.81	Single	243	37.2
F3- Renovate/Developed	3.99	0.86	Primary School	53	8.1
F4- Socialization	3.39	0.94	High School	247	37.8
F5- Exemplifying	3.29	1.24	University	284	43.5
F6- To be away / Escape	2.75	1.13	Post graduate and upper	69	10.6
F7- Recognition and Social status	2.73	1.19	Retired	372	57.0
Life Satisfaction of Choir Singer	3.44	0.83	Employed	169	25.9
Life Satisfaction of Non Choir Singer	3.13	0.88	Unemployed	112	17.2
	53.16	13.2		89	13.6
Age min-max (13-87)		3	350\$ and lower monthly income		
Variables	n	%	351-700\$ monthly income	274	42.0
Male	260	39.8	701-1050\$ monthly income	187	28.6
Female	393	60.2	1051-1400\$ monthly income	62	9.5
PS: Currency rate is 1\$= 2.85 TL and			1401\$ and above monthly income	41	6.3
minimum wage is 456\$ in Turkey in	n June 20	016	Total	653	100.0

Table-2: Life Satisfaction Regression Model

N	653		
F (19. 633)	14.01		
Prob.	0.000		
\mathbf{R}^2	0.2852		
Variables	Coef.	Robust St. Err.	Р
Cons.	1.0083***	0.3028	0.001
Relaxing as Mentally	0.1230**	0.0616	0.046
Renovate/Developed	-0.0162	0.0573	0.777
To be away / Escape	-0.0554*	0.0311	0.076
Socialization	0.1910***	0.0474	0.000
Recognition and Social status	0.1111***	0.0340	0.001
Liking Music	0.1030**	0.0511	0.044
Exemplifying	0.0973***	0.0323	0.003
Age	0.0055*	0.0032	0.086
Female	0.1400**	0.0644	0.030
Single	0.0641	0.0657	0.330
High School	-0.2009**	0.1004	0.046
University	-0.1822*	0.1066	0.088
Post graduate and upper	-0.1484	0.1428	0.299
Employed	-0.0581	0.0804	0.471
Unemployed	-0.0047	0.1079	0.965
351-700\$ monthly income	0.1573	0.1133	0.166

701-1050\$ monthly income	0.1588	0.1172	0.176
1051-1400\$ monthly income	0.5913***	0.1402	0.000
1401\$ and above monthly income	0.6614***	0.1567	0.000
Ψ ' 'C' / 101 1 ΨΨ ' 'C' /	051 1 *** ' 'C'	4 4 011 1	

* significant at .10 level, ** significant at .05 level, *** significant at .01 level

 Table-3: The Benefits of Being a Choir Singer and Pearson Correlations with LS and The Sub Dimension of Motivational Factors Scale of Being Choir Singer

Benefits and Factors	Mean	SD	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	LS
Feel happier	4.24	0.98	0.396*	* 0.483*	• 0.388*	0.325*	0.238*	0.034	0.067	0.415*
Learned new things	4.21	1.01	0.336*	* 0.422*	• 0.409*	0.343*	0.246*	0.115*	0.177*	0.396*
Meet new friends	4.18	0.96	0.304*	* 0.392*	0.444*	0.416*	0.329*	0.154*	0.324*	0.395*
Feel relaxed and refreshed	4.10	1.01	0.421*	* 0.494*	• 0.489*	0.353*	0.261*	0.033	0.129*	0.451*
Spent the time more qualified and	4.05	1.01	0.360*	* 0.505*	• 0.493*	0.414*	0.324*	0.106*	0.187*	0.379*
productive										
Get self-satisfaction	3.95	1.08	0.346*	* 0.440*	• 0.417*	0.365*	0.254*	0.064	0.138*	0.387*
Developed myself on rhythm,	3.94	1.26	0.256*	* 0.389*	0.450*	0.444*	0.368*	0.186*	0.368*	0.277*
solmization, musical note										
Increased self-confident	3.90	1.17	0.289*	* 0.392*	• 0.470*	0.419*	0.349*	0.171*	0.337*	0.316*
Feel belonging to a group	3.85	1.13	0.264*	* 0.368*	• 0.413*	0.400*	0.281*	0.139*	0.273*	0.321*
After practice. worked more	3.82	1.11	0.329*	* 0.441*	0.428*	0.394*	0.300*	0.069	0.169*	0.405*
productive										
Escaped from sameness. distress and	3.74	1.27	0.156*	* 0.236*	• 0.305*	0.424*	0.291*	0.269*	0.424*	0.314*
stress										
My imagination on music increased	3.70	1.18	0.241*	* 0.364*	• 0.382*	0.414*	.285*	0.217*	0.317*	0.386*
Get rid of being alone feeling	3.40	1.36	0.191*	* 0.219*	• 0.224*	0.162*	0.191*	0.114*	0.223*	0.298*

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

Iman Baobeid

University of British Columbia, Canada <u>iman.baobeid@alumni.ubc.ca</u>

Abstract: This paper seeks to analyze women's movements in South Yemen, particularly during the moments of decolonization and the later establishment of the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen as a Marxist Leninist post-colonial state (1950s — 1980s). I trace the trajectory of women's movements in South Yemen beginning with the collective organizing of women's factions in the anti-colonial struggle against the British Empire that sought to bring about a decolonizing process conscious of gender inequality in South Yemeni society. However, post-independence, these organizations were consolidated into a state regulated women's union that severely limited the development of diverse feminisms. This case study is illustrative of the underlying issues with postcolonial nationalist discourses that constitute a backdrop to women's movements in South Yemen. It further reveals how state sanctioned feminisms utilized narratives of women's emancipation by incorporating women as key political actors to further a nationalist project of development and modernization.

Introduction

The history of women's movements in Yemen has been relatively unexamined, with limited scholarly discussion on the participation of Yemeni women as active agents mobilized in advancing their stated gender interests.¹ Crucial to any investigations of gender relations in a nation is a critical examination of the trajectory of women's activism and the social movements they generate in their confrontations with gender inequality. This paper seeks to analyze women's movements in South Yemen, particularly at the moments of anti-colonial struggle and the later establishment of the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen as a Marxist Leninist post-colonial state from the 1950s to the late 1980s. Women's movements in South Yemen were heavily implicated with the anti-colonial struggle, but were subsequently consolidated into a state regulated workers union that severely limited the development of various feminisms in the South. This case study is illustrative of the underlying issues with nationalist discourses that constitute a backdrop to women's movements in South Yemen, and reveals how the specific state sanctioned feminisms utilized narratives of women's emancipations to advance a nationalist project of modernization. A critical tracing of the history of women's movements in South Yemen will be followed by an analysis of the implications of state intervention into women's organizing.

While it may be beneficial to engage in a comparative analysis of women's movements in North and South Yemen, the two countries distinct histories require separate frames of reference. The postcolonial and post-socialist nature of South Yemen requires in-depth engagements with the implications of its colonial and Marxist legacy. This past cannot be extended onto North Yemen by any means. Moreover, the trajectories of women's organizing in North and South Yemen remained demonstrably distinct up until the unification of both nations. Therefore, within the boundaries of this study, I find it advantageous to privilege specificity and differentiate between the separate realities of women in the South and North. This is not intended to disparage the lived experiences of women in the North, as the transformations they underwent were radical in their own right, but to emphasize that they must be accorded a separate and considerate analysis that effectively engages with the North's historical complexities.

British occupation of South Yemen, then referred to as the Aden Protectorate by the British government, lasted from 1839 to 1967 [1]. British control in the country was centralized in Aden, which was governed as part of British India until its separation and establishment as the Colony of Aden in 1937 [1]. The 1960s in South Yemen were an especially turbulent decade as the country fought to gain independence from the British. Two main organizations emerged to counter British colonial power, the National Liberation Front (NLF) and the Front for the Liberation of Occupied South Yemen (FLOSY). Both organizations engaged in

¹ As scholarly work on women's movements in South Yemen is severely limited, this paper draws extensively on the work of Amel al-Ashtal and Maxine Molyneux, whose research on women's organizing and the history of gender issues in South Yemen I am deeply grateful for.

guerrilla warfare, against the British and each other, leading up to the Aden Emergency in 1967 that would end British rule in the country [1]. The NLF proceeded to gain full control of the country, disposing of FLOSY in the process, and declaring the country as the People's Republic of South Yemen in 1967. However, by 1969 a radical Marxist faction of the NLF gained power, renamed the NLF to the Yemeni Socialist Party and reordered the country to become the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen. The PDRY was governed along a one party Marxist Leninist framework, and held power until the unification of North and South Yemen in the 1990s [2].

2. Historicizing Women's Movements in South Yemen

The first ever women's organization in Aden emerged out of the Aden Women's Club, which was founded by the wife of the British High Commissioner in 1952 [1]. Much of the women's organizing came out of discontent with racism from the club's British leadership and the marginalization of Adeni women within the club, which echoed larger frustrations towards British colonization of the country. By the end of the 1950s, leadership and membership of the club was entirely Adeni, and it was renamed to the Arab Women's Society (AWS) [2].

The organization took on a more radical socialist and nationalist agenda, moving from organizing social outings and cultural activities to greater consideration of Adeni women's sociopolitical concerns such as fighting for women's education and challenging the colonial authorities on several fronts [2,3]. However, a group of women dissatisfied with the radical turn of the organization left to organize a new group called the Adeni Woman's Association (AWA) [2]. AWA was structured as a less radical welfare organization, pushing to simply help women in need. AWA attitudes were largely maternalistic and imbued with a savior complex that framed Arab women as in "need of continuous guidance and education" [2, pp.205]. The association was perceived negatively by the AWS, who regarded it as a 'right wing' organization that was closely entwined with the bourgeoisie class and the British directorship [2]. In contrast, the AWS was especially active in connecting with decolonizing movements outside of Yemen and met with the UN's Decolonization Committee several times in order to report on oppressions faced by Adeni Women at the hands of the British [2]. While AWA's ideology was

along reformist lines that was not supportive of direct opposition of British colonialism, AWS was focused on radical transformation and decolonizing efforts [2].

24

Schools and universities became critical sites for women's political activism in the early 1960s, specifically in revolt against British colonial power [2.3]. In 1960, students at a British run secondary school for girls organized demonstrations, strikes, and sit-ins that called for an improvement of the curriculum to ensure equality of educational material with that of boys schools, employment of better teachers and faculty, and replacement of the British administration [2]. The AWS worked closely with the students by providing logistical support, articulating their demands, and connecting them with organizations such as the Arab League and the Afro-Asian Solidarity Organization [2]. The schools reopened after 8 months with several slight improvements to the educational system, but were followed by strikes and demonstrations at Aden College that followed along the same strain of demands [3]. These demonstrations were the beginnings of the revolutionary anti-colonial struggle, and highlighted the growing discontent with British control over Adeni society [2].

By 1963, resistance against the British reached new heights as the National Liberation Front and the Front for the Liberation of Occupied South Yemen were established [2]. Armed revolt against the British caused a deep rift within the AWS that led to the creation of a leftist faction within the organization that strongly supported the NLF. In response, a women's section was created within the NLF that attracted women outside of the AWS to the struggle. Women within the NLF organized and led demonstrations and sit-ins, supported trade union movements, campaigned strongly for the decolonizing of the educational system, and smuggled arms [2].

Sit-ins and demonstrations organized by the AWS and the women's faction of the NLF were crucial to the anti-colonial struggle [2]. The British were undertaking mass arrests of male political leaders and revolutionaries, and in response the women staged sit-ins to call for the release of the political detainees. A key sit-in was on December 27, 1963, at the 'Asqalani Mosque where hundreds of Adeni women gathered and remained for 15 days [2]. In solidarity, students at several schools organized strikes and demonstrations. A joint committee was established by the AWS and the AWA to relay the demands of the women to the British officers. Radhia Ihasan, a leader and member of the AWS, was arrested for planning more extensive demonstrations in solidarity with the women at the 'Asgalani Mosque, but continued to show her support by going on hunger strike from prison. The sit in ended with promises from Aden's prime minister to release the political prisoners. However, his failure to fulfill them led the women to organize another sit in at the government headquarters for the Federation of South Arabia, where many of the prisoners were detained $[2]^2$. They took control of one of the buildings main entrance, and brought the federal government's routine activities to a standstill. Not unexpectedly, they were met with strong onslaught by the British forces who shut down the power and water systems in the building, leading to the disintegration of their resistance efforts.

However, in addition to their anti-colonial struggle women faced resistance and opposition from their own families, and various religious groups that voiced discontentment with their political involvement [2]. In response, the AWS pushed for dialogue with religious groups in order to ensure solidarity with the community. The NLF voiced its strong support for the women's faction against the onslaught of criticism, and within their National Charter in 1965 called for "the liberation of women from tradition" [2, pp. 211]. Their engagement with the discourse of tradition versus modernization was key for legal reforms that would target women after independence. Nevertheless, the anti-colonial struggle took the forefront in the NLF's interests, with little attempt to be attentive to women's interests and demands [2].

Upon the retreat of the British in 1967, the NLF, now in power, encountered severe fragmentation and intra-party conflict in response to regional calls for Arab Nationalism and the ideological convictions of the various party factions that complicated decisions over which socialist frameworks to undertake in forming the new government [4]. The NLF perceived the Arab Nationalist Movement as one that underlined alliance amongst all socioeconomic classes in a move towards sociallism in the Arab world, and they opposed this position arguing that such a framework legitimized the power of the Arab bourgeoisie [4]. The Arab bourgeoisie were framed as natural supporters of imperialism and neocolonialism, and a socialist state could not exist without "militant leadership

of the working class" [4, pp.60]. At the leadership of its most radical wing, the NLF disconnected itself from the Arab Nationalist Movement, and underwent a violent purging of leadership and membership opposed to their radical leftist ideology and/or sympathetic to the past colonial regime [4]. The struggle ended with the establishment of the country as the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen [2]. The NLF was renamed the Yemeni Socialist Party, and led the PDRY under a one party Marxist Leninist framework [4]. The PDRY underwent radical economic, political, and social transformations, and chief among them was the enshrining of gender equality and women's emancipation in the 1970 constitution [2]. The state heavily relied on Lenin's On the emancipation of women and Engel's Origin of the family, private property and the State to formulate policies relating to women [1]. Lenin's and Engel's claims can be simplistically summarized as the following: women's emancipation hinges on their ability to "participate in social production" and be free from the "domestic slavery of the home" [1, pp.5].

25

However, the centrality of gender equality in the PDRY's constitution constructed women as both 'producers' and 'mothers,' and within both capacities women were required to fulfill their duties as workers [3]. While men were similarly framed as producers within the nation, they were no longer conceived of as the primary providers in the family [3]. Women, within their duties as both mothers and producers, were required to become the major providers in the event that male providers became unemployed or incapable of work [3]. Women often struggled to reconcile their roles as both producers and reproducers within this new conception, as state sanctioned services remained limited in that capacity.

Immediately upon independence, the General Union of Yemeni Women was established, and consolidated the various women's movements (AWS, AWA, women's section of NLF). As the only women's organization in the PDRY, it starkly limited women's choices in various feminist ideologies, yet they joined it with force as it grew to have 14,926 members by 1977 [2]. The GUYW mobilized women to become economically productive, and promoted women's increasing political involvement. A key campaign they undertook was the promotion and debate of the Family Law of 1974, that was commonly referred to as the "women's law" [1, pp.92]. Throughout the entire drafting process, the GUYW was consulted for modifications, and they initiated and sustained heavy

² The Federation of South Arabia was the British imagination of what would become of the Aden Protectorate upon the introduction of a new governing entity that would keep the territory under British "protection and advice." See Robert Stookey, *South Yemen: A Marxist Republic in Arabia* (Boulder, CO: Westview Press, 1982),

debate surrounding the law in the press and public meetings [5]. The drafting of the law was reliant on a "modernized" and new interpretation of Islamic Sharia, but more importantly highlighted the state's dependency on legal reform consistent with socialist policy as the means of actualizing "women's emancipation" [3].

Women's economic participation was framed by both the state and the GUYW as central to the attainment of gender equality [2]. In 1974, the GUYW held its first congress with the slogan "Yemeni women shall struggle against ignorance and for the love of work" [1, pp.19]. The country's president, Salem Robava Ali, affirmed the state's position on women's emancipation by attributing their oppression to the colonial state and familial control [2]. He further argued that their emancipation was possible under the socialist regime that would educate and incorporate them into the mode of production [2]. Accordingly, the GUYW created various programs with the support of the states with the end goal of advancing women's entry into social production [5]. Chief amongst their various programs was the creation of Technical Training Centers that provided education on various mechanical and technical skills. In addition, the GUYW heavily campaigned for various policy in order to ensure that women's employyment was made easier such as policy provisions on equal wages and paid maternity leave included in the Labour Code [5].

However, the GUYW faced opposition, specifically to their training program, stemming from conservative sentiments in various pockets in the community. Their response was mindful of the various sociopolitical and religious frameworks their families and communities held in regards to the issue of women's emancipation, but heavily reliant on the discourse of traditionalism versus modernity in order to comprehend such sentiments [2]. Historical outlines of the GUYW's response often highlight the Union's position towards the veil as especially telling, as women began to wear it to a lesser extent [2]. Yet, the veil was not framed as an obstacle to 'women's emancipation' by the GUYW, and the Union often refrained from positioning itself against the veil for the sole belief that it would naturally disappear as the society developed [2,5]. As one activist argued, "there is no need to push strongly against the veil because objective processes will destroy the veil" [5, pp.17]. Their response was strongly embedded in the belief that such "conservative" and "tradetional" sentiments would die out with the continuing incorporation of women into the mode of production. They further placed such opposition within the discourse of economic "underdevelopment" that fueled inequality and "backwards social relations" [5, pp.12]. Aida Yafai's [5] response to the resistance the GUYW faced for their programs is especially insightful of the underlying ideologies the Union engaged with in combating gender inequality. She states:

26

"We might think that men are the cause of women's situation; but men are *not* the cause because they are governed by the feudal and tribal social relations of the society itself. When we declare that we want to be equal to men, we want to be equal in rights, but we don't want to be equal if men are trapped in underdeveloped thoughts...We have to fight with men to eradicate these backward social relations...We believe that there will be no real equality with men until the whole economic situation changes; at the same time there must be a complete educational process for both men and women" [5, pp.12].

Yafai further emphasizes the centrality of education in advancing women's emancipation. Entry into the workforce, she argues, is not enough to guarantee equality. Rather, women should participate in every aspect of the country's development, and their emancipation hinges on the support of a "progressive revolutionary regime" that she identifies in the PDRY [5, pp.13].

However, while the GUYW was promoting the new woman's role as a producer, they concurrently emphasized her role in reproduction [5]. A larger aim for the nation state was the increase of country's small population. Therefore, women were encouraged to fulfill their roles as reproducers. While production was framed as key, reproduction was framed as more crucial to the development of the nation [5]. The GUYW was in complete awareness that the two could not be reconciled without state sponsored services such as childcare (both inside and outside of the workplace) [5].

Lastly, up until the unification of South and North Yemen, the GUYW remained incredibly active in bringing forward women's demands to the state and larger society. Members of the Union often worked to ensure that citizens abided by the 1974 Family Law, going as far as arbitrating divorce proceedings, acting as marriage counsellors, and resolving child custody issues [2]. In addition, they pushed for increased women's political participation in government. While leadership remained entirely male in the government, local city councils saw a growth of female representatives, the most significant being 17 percent women's representation in the Local People's Council in Aden [2]. However, within the party ranks, women only reached middle-ranking leadership roles, and were restricted to roles in the area of social welfare [1]. Within the Presidential council and the Politburo, all members were male, and only 5 of the 68 members of the Central Committee were women [1, pp.18]. Despite that, there was at least one member of the GUYW present at every level of the Yemeni Socialist Party, and the Union occupied a quota of members in the legislative sector [1].

Moreover, the Union functioned as a space to debate policy issues relating to women, specifically over new legislation and changes to provisions in exist laws [1]. Apart from this, it was active in the press and media, and addressed various issues regarding gender equality in the country. They further introduced and spoke to various representatives of women's organization from the Arab world on air, with the sole aim of connecting the public with the various gender issues the rest of the region was heavily engaged with [2].

In essence, the GUYW was incredibly central to advocating gender equality within the PDRY government. However, it did not conceive of itself as a feminist organization working to advance women's interests specifically. Instead, as Molyneux argues, "it acts as part of the state's political apparatus and as such its function is to implement government policies which affect women" [1, pp. 21]. Although the state had made it a central goal to actualize women's emancipation in the PDRY, the gender composition of government leadership as largely male made the existence of the GUYW even more crucial for the advancement of gender equality. However, as I will go on to argue, the discourse of women's emancipation as embedded within the nationalist discourse of the PDRY was incredibly complex and problematic.

3. Nationalism, Modernity and Women's Movements

The transformation of women's movements in South Yemen highlights the incorporation of women as key actors in a nationalist project of development and modernization. There is a significant shift within women's organizing in South Yemen from independent organizing to state directed unionization that highlights the dramatic attempts by the state to limit women's movements. Maxine Molyneux conceives of three types of organizational principles for women's movements, independent, associational, and direct mobilizations; all of which can be identified in the trajectory of organizing in the South [6]. First, women's organizing was *independent*, as was apparent from the AWS and AWA, although they initially emerge from a colonial institution. These organizations were able to set goals and decide their forms of struggle on their own terms, as was clear from their diverging strategies. Second, women's organizing became associational as they formed alliances with various political organizations such as the NLF in the anti-colonial struggle. The AWS and AWA remained institutionally autonomous, however, they engaged in constant (re)negotiations of power as the anti-colonial struggle was framed as pre-eminent. Last, women's organizing was under directed mobilizations whereby the authority and strategy was external to the organization, in this case coming directly from the state. This type of organizing, argues Molyneux, puts women's movements under a higher institutional authority, that dictates the nature of the organization and the causes it would undertake [6].

27

As Afsaneh Najmabadi argues, we must remain conscious of the ways in which projects such as state sanctioned programs of "women's emancipation" can be both regulatory and emancipatory [7]. Nationalism within the PDRY utilized the notion of modernity and ascribed it onto the woman. In other words, the woman's "emancipation" became central to the country's move towards modernity. As a post-colonial state, the Marxist nature of the PDRY complicates analyses of the construction of nationalist consciousness. Women's oppression in South Yemen was largely attributed to colonialism and 'traditionalist' family control, however as Meyda Yegenoglu states "in the battle between nationalism and imperialism, it is the question of woman which is 'doubly in shadow" [8, pp.122]. Yegenoglu locates a further 'Orientalization of the Orient' in the modernization attempts employed by this nationalist discourse [8].

I employ Kandiyoti and Cole's definition of nationalism; conceiving of nationalism as a "set of changing discursive and institutional practices that differ from pre-modern self-conceptions and political arrangements...[nationalism] is the subjective counterpart of the nation" [9, pp.190]. The nation state is one that governs a territory through an imposition of "common identity on all citizens through state education" [9, pp.190]. Kandiyoti and Cole further argue that anti-colonial struggles have inherited this nationalist consciousness in order to allow for an imagined community to conceive of itself as a nation within a particular territory [9]. The woman becomes the foundation upon which nationalism constructs a discourse of national identity [8]. This nationalist discourse promotes modernization as the key to women's emancipation in the post-colonial nation [8].

By attributing the source of women's oppression to colonialism and traditional family relations, the nation state undertakes a process of modernization highlighted by rapid transformations in the social, political and economic arenas [5]. As seen by socialist reforms undertaken by the PDRY government, women become "recipients of state policy" as they are given the right to vote, education, and work [6, pp.55]. Thus, they become the primary symbols of modernization. However, women continued their attempts to influence state policy. via collective organizing. Yet, the PDRY containned their activism from diverting from state sanctioned narratives by consolidating the various associations and organizations into one main union - the GUYW. Under such limitations, "women's movements independent of the state have been allowed little or no space to develop" [10, pp.26]. However, it is important to note that South Yemeni women were able to harness the benefits of such state policies, even though they were not given the space to conceive of feminisms beyond the state sanctioned one [11].

Consequently, the GUYW undertook and negotiated with state manufactured modernization discourse in its understandings and framings of gender inequality in the society. The dichotomous discourse of 'tradition' versus 'modernity' was utilized as both the justification for the persistence of resistance to social change, and the necessary mechanism to rectify said resistance. It was further embedded in the Marxist discourse of 'development' that promoted the socio-economic transformations necessary for the disintegration of traditional society represented by feudal social relations [12]. A key example is the statement made by Aida Yafai, a member of the AWS and subsequently the GUYW, when she refers to the cause of gender inequality as the entrapment of both men and women in "feudal and tribal social relations" [5, pp.12]. The remedy to such 'traditionalist' social relations, she argues, is education and the participation of women in public life, specifically the workplace [5, pp.12,18]. By relying on the discourse of tradition, they were able to engage with culturally complex issues without disturbing the nationalist discourse of productivity.

Partha Chatterjee conceived of this relationship with modernity as evident of nationalism's complicity with imperialism [13]. In a paraphrasing of his argument, Yegenoglu states that such processes are the "reverse of that of Orientalism in the sense that the object still remains the Oriental except that he or she is now endowed with subjecttivity" [8, pp.123]. The native subject maintains the essential Orientalist characteristics attributed to them by the colonizer, within the discourse of tradition, yet conceives of himself as autonomous and sovereign [8]. Chatterjee postulated that the nationalist immediately rejects this implication with colonial logic, yet the nation remains trapped within Eurocentric categorizations in its pursuit of modernity [13]. In a direct sense, the PDRY's engagement with the gendered nationalist discourse of modernity is reflective of its entrapment. As Deniz Kandivoti asserts, nationalist movements allow women to participate in collective public life as "national actors" yet it defines the boundaries of the acceptable so that women articulate their gender within the margins of the nationalist discourse that remains locked in this Orientalist logic [14].

28

Furthermore, central to this logic is the identifycation of the veil as a trope that will slowly disappear as society moves into modernity. The GUYW undertook one campaign against the veil in 1972, but ceased any advocacy against veiling under the premise that "objective processes" would lead to its disappearance [5]. These "objecttive processes" were identified by the GUYW as women's active participation in the country's development - economic, political, and social. However, the end goal remained a de-veiling, a rhetoric that was and remains a colonial preoccupation conceived of along an Orientalist discourse [8]. The Aden Women's Club under British leadership, for example, was heavily involved in campaigning against the veil [1]. As Yegenoglu contends, the colonial obsession with the veil manifests itself in these attempts to "modernize" and "liberate" [8, pp.46]. Within the post-colony, the veil is "transformed into a medium through which the male subjects of the nation can articulate their desires and fears, but more importantly, can assert 'national' difference" [8, pp. 126]. The PDRY nationalist project simultaneously identified a move away from the veil and the inclusion of women as producers as critical to the creation of a modernized nation. As Noor Ba'abad, a member of the GUYW, notes, girls in their schools did not veil and khaki uniforms replaced the sheidor, highlighting this shift as women come to embody their new roles [5, pp.17]. Although both Ba'abad and Yafai frame this shift as natural.

it is still representative of what Yegenoglu terms the "imperial divide" that is reproduced within the post-colony that upholds Orientalist thought [8]. While the move to un-veil appears to be a natural process of development, the nationalist discourse underwritten by a gendered Orientalist rhetoric is active in its attempts to regulate and circumscribe the parameters for women's behavior.

Conclusion

While this analysis focuses on women's movements from the anti-colonial struggle to the establishment of the PDRY, its critical to trace the consequences of the unification of North and South Yemen in the 1990's on women's organizing. Upon unification, women's associations in the North were merged with the GUYW in the South to form the Yemeni Women's Union (YWU) [2]. The hope was that this unification would be mutually beneficial, as the North had access to more capital and wealth than the South, while the South had a considerable history of social reform targeted at women [2]. However, tensions between the socialists and Islamists percolated into the Union, as both views clashed in their expectations for social reform [2]. The subsequent civil war in 1994 resultant of the former PDRY's attempt to secede deeply affected Southern women, as they became subject to gendered anti-communist propaganda and subsequent violence that constructed Southern women as 'sexually promiscuous' [2, pp.221]. This had a deep impact on the women's movement in the south and resulted in the intermittent inactivity of the Yemeni Women's Union after 1994 [2]. Since unification, Yemen has been subject to a significant increase in non-governmental organizations concerned with women's issues, and the YWU itself has attempted to operate as a non-government organization [2]. The (in) efficacy of these organizations and their entwining with neoliberalism and neo-colonialism requires further analysis that is not within the scope this paper. As apparent by the tensions resulting from unification, the women's movement in Yemen contains diverse sociopolitical ideologies and strategies that at times clash, but continue to produce wide-ranging feminist consciousness [8].

In closing, I echo Gayatri Spivak's words as she asserts, "between patriarchy and imperialism, subject-constitution and object-formation, the figure of the woman disappears, not into a pristine nothingness, but into a violent shuttling which is the displaced figurative of the 'third-world woman' caught between tradition and modernization" [15,

pp.306]. Spivak's claim is reified in the condition of the women's movement under the PDRY, as their activism was forced to operate through a state structure that preferred to frame their positioning under a restrictive nationalist discourse. These state structures were both favorable and limiting to their activism, and indeed resulted in substantial social change that in many ways improved women's conditions. However, this nationalism remained entrapped in a developmental narrative that confined women's feminism to the traditional versus modern dichotomy. Such a narrative limits the potential for the advancement of women's position in society, and furthermore relies on a colonial logic that reifies and restructures enduring patriarchal power relations.

29

References

[1] M. Molyneux, *State Policies and the Position* of Women Workers in the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen, 1967-77. Geneva, Switzerland: International Labour Office, 1982.

[2] A.N. Al-Ashtal, "A Long, Quiet, and Steady Struggle: The Women's Movement in Yemen." In *Mapping Arab Women's Movements: A Century of Transformations From Within*, edited by Pernille Arenfeldt and Nawar Al-Hassan Golley, 197-252. Cairo, Egypt: American University in Cairo Press, 2012.

[3] S. Dahlgreen, *Contesting realities: the public sphere and morality in Southern Yemen.* Syracuse, NY: Syracuse University Press, 2010.

[4] R. Stookey, *South Yemen: A Marxist Republic in Arabia*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press, 1982.

[5] A. Mohsen, A. Yafai, and N. Ba'abad. "Women and Revolution in the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen." Interview by Maxine Molyneux. *Feminist Review* 1 (1979): 4-20.

[6] N. Al-Ali, Secularism, *Gender, and The State in The Middle East: The Egyptian Women's Movement.* Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press, 2004.

[7] A. Najmabadi, "Crafting an Educated Housewife in Iran." In *Remaking Women: Feminism and Modernity in the Middle East*, edited by Lila Abu-Lughod, 91-125. Princeton, United States: Princeton University Press, 1998.

[8] M. Yegenoglu, Colonial Fantasies: Towards a Feminist Reading of Orientalism. Cambridge,

United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press, 1998.

[9] D. Kandiyoti, and J. Cole, "Nationalism and the Colonial Legacy in the Middle East and Central Asia: Introduction." *International Journal of Middle East Studies* 34, no. 2 (2002): 189-203.

[10] S. Graham-Brown, "Women's Activism in the Middle East: A Historical Perspective." In *Women and Power in the Middle East*, edited by Suad Joseph and Susan Slyomovics, 23-33. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001.

[11] M. Badran, "Unifying women: Feminist pasts and presents in Yemen." *Gender & History* 10, no. 3 (1998): 498-518.

[12] M. Molyneux, "The Law, the State, and Socialist Policies with Regard to Women: The Case of the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen 1967-1990." In *Women, Islam, and the State*, edited by Deniz Kandiyoti, 237-71. London, United Kingdom: Macmillan Academic and Professional Ltd, 1991.

[13] Chatterjee, P. (1993). *The Nation and Its Fragments: Colonial and Postcolonial Histories*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

[14] D. Kandiyoti, "Contemporary Feminist Scholarship and Middle East Studies." In *Gendering the Middle East*, 1-28. London, United Kingdom: I.B. Tauris, 1996

[15] Spivak, G. C. (1988). Can the Subaltern Speak? *Marxism and the Interpretation of Culture*, 271-313.

Keeping in Mind Brain-Friendly Activities in an EFL Content-Based Life Science Course

John F. Maune

Hokusei Gakuen University, Japan <u>jfmaune@gmail.com</u>

Abstract: A very exciting relatively new area of research involves combining knowledge from neuroscience, psychology, and education, which is often called mind, brain, and education science (MBE). MBE backed findings often confirm what methods teachers have found to be effective during their years of teaching, but perhaps more importantly the reason why some methods are effective is something that MBE strives to answer. This paper will describe a range of MBE inspired methods used in the contentbased ELT course Life Science from simple physical concerns to mindfulness. Examples include the layout of the class itself, engaging students physically and socially—not just mentally, utilizing tests as learning tools, striving for variety in mode and method, and understanding the role—and the importance therein—of the teacher. This paper will discuss on specific course, Life Science, but the ideas behind the methods, if not the exact activities, are applicable to any learning situation.

Introduction

One of the most telling findings in education from Hattie's meta-analysis of almost 1,000 studies is that just about any method will result in learning, but the rate or effectiveness of methods varies greatly [1]. It seems we are designed for learning, if not for teaching. One of the core concepts of the emerging field of Mind, Brain, and Education Science (MBE, though also called by other names) is that teaching methods be scientifically evaluated to determine what works to take the guesswork out of how to allocate precious classroom time. MBE involves psychology, neuroscience, and education, specifically in the area where the three disciplines overlap [2]. A definition of MBE (which he called brain-based education) from Jenson is "the engagement of strategies based on principles derived from an understanding of the brain" [3]. Pedagogy had ignored, or not incorporated at least, findings in neuroscience and psychology that could provide insight into reasons why particular educational methods were effective or not. For too long effective methods in education were sought without considering biological reasons behind successes and failures.

MBE is changing this by including current biological knowledge into the core of pedagogy; our brains, thus psychological profiles, are products of our evolutionary journey over millions of years. To ignore this in educational contexts is no longer acceptable. MBE concepts should be known by all educators, as least those working with humans.

2. Life Science

Life Science is an EFL content-based course for Japanese Junior College English majors that covers a wide range of biological concepts (e.g., the scientific method, cell theory, chemistry, heredity, cancer, evolution, and the brain) [4]. Students must take three or more content-based courses as part of their graduation requirement. Content-based courses should interest students more than standard EFL texts, but in more than 20 years, only a handful of students at most, have initially expressed interest biology. This means that counting on students' intrinsic motivation due to interest in the subject is not feasible [5]. Thus attempting to engage students utilizing sound MBE based methods is a critical issue for teaching Life Science, though doing so makes good pedagogical sense no matter what the circumstances.

3. MBE-based Methods

3.1 Mindfulness

In a conference talk, MBE expert Tracy Tokuhama-Espinosa—her talks are highly motivational and indicate that she practices what she preaches mentioned a study that done in the not so distant past that will forever stick with me. The simple experiment that she related would most likely not be allowed for ethical reasons today, but the results are enlightening. She told of a professor who invited students to attend a pre-course introduction. Half of the class met one day, and half another. The first group of half of the students were given a very positive inspiring preamble stating how it would be a fruitful course, students would do well, and there was much learning to be looked forward

to. A minute or two at most. The other half of the class was given an opposite intro claiming that the subject was difficult to learn and a high percentage of students would fail—again two minutes at most. The two halved student groups, then all experienced the same course. There was a noticeable differrence with the positively introduced students performing better than the gloom and doom fed students [6, 7].

This is a narrative that I cannot ever imagine forgetting. A simple mindfulness [8] time for reflecting on how as a teacher I have to remember that I have the power to uplift or downgrade my students just with my attitude exclusive of course methods or materials. Therefore, I reflect for a short while on such before every class; kind of like a prizefighter psyching themselves up—without any intent toward fisticuffs of course.

This is one part of the story. Many of the following points are also reflected on before entering the class to keep me focussed on best practices or proven methods.

3.2 Passion

Another point by Tokuhama-Espinosa, taken from Hattie, is that a teacher's passion for their subject matter is perhaps most important for effective teaching [2, 6, and 7]. This is something that can most teachers can not be fake. I happen to love the sciences, but knowing that passion is so important means that I do not try at all to be at reserved or impartial when lecturing, but rather know that my passion can positively influence how my students perceive the subject.

I remember a literature teacher who was the antitheses to passion. He sat in front of the class and read in a deadpan voice and related dry facts about great pieces of literature that brought to mind what Flaubert wrote in Madame Bovary: "Human speech is like a cracked kettle on which we tap crude rhythms for bears to dance to, while we long to make music that will melt the stars" [9]. No stars, let alone the other students and I, were at all melted, unless some entered the melting mood out of despair.

Luckily, my love of literature was not killed. I try to incorporate topics that I truly feel passion for, one of which is Shakespeare. I have managed to combine science with Shakespeare teaching biological concepts through *Romeo and Juliet*—here's much to do with love [10]. There is no need for feigned passion when the material excites you.

On the other hand some photos that I use to teach memes are very emotive, but in a depressing way. However, passion arises from powerful or extreme emotion, and are real world examples that are valid teaching tools. The depressing photos in the section on memes are so powerful I must avoid looking at them and exert effort to read my notes (one of the few times I focus intently on my notes, as I consciously try to make eye contact and draw in the students) and at all costs avoid looking at the powerfully emotive pictures. One was drawn by a five year old cancer patient shortly before they died. Again, the passion is palpably real and the concepts tied with emotions are know to stick much more effectively in our memories [2, 6, 7, 11, and http://www.brainrules.net/].

32

It is interesting that using *Romeo and Juliet* and emotive examples was something I did before I ever read heard about Hattie's findings or MBE.

3.3 Narrative

Another proven effective way to stimulate memory and attention is to incorporate narrative into learning. *Romeo and Juliet* is a passionate narrative that will stay will the students for a long time if not forever. Using it to highlight concepts such as paternal investment and the biochemistry of love should be more effective than standard textbook fare.

I try to utilize narratives to emphasize a point whenever possible. For example, I relate a humorous (see below) story, about a girl friend of mine in college who wore new perfume to introduce the sense of smell. The story will lead to better me-mory retention and attention—we are social ani-mals [12]. My students always seem to get excited when my personal details come up: sharks and their ability to detect blood comes to mind for me.

I often make points using examples from stories about my children or other relatives or friends. The passion is real, and the stories do get their attention. Often when I meet previous students they ask about my daughters. Recently, one former student said that she missed hearing the stories and that my love for my daughters was readily apparent, and she greatly enjoyed the stories—that made me happy.

One story that I use does not involve a friend, but the great physicist Albert Einstein. At age five he was fascinated by unseen forces after he was given a compass. This led him to question how these unseen forces exerted there influence. At age 16 he wondered what he would see if he could run next to a beam of light at the same speed as the light. This question he worked on throughout his life. This is used to illustrate the first step of the scientific method about stating the problem, or asking the question. Without questions, there would be no impetus to find answers—i.e., perform science.

My own narrative relating breaking my neck, neardeath experience, quadriplegia, and subsequent partial recovery is used when discussing the brain and the nervous system. Again, passion is not at all lacking.

3.4 Humour

Tying into narrative is humor. Happy brains learnremember-better than stressed brains [11, 12]. In my lecture notes most of the bold font is used for making sure I segue to a joke, and more importantly, that I don't skip or miss the timing for the joke. My notes are littered with jokes, and if I adlib into a good one in a class, I will make sure to enter it into my notes. The jokes keep up student's interest and grease the wheels of learning. The literature teacher I mentioned earlier never once ventured at all close to humour. This is not a call to do stand up and have then rolling in the aisles, but rather that even for a subject with a reputation for being dry and void of feeling, humour is something to be embraced, not shunned. I had a biochemistry teacher in college who did get the whole class roaring with laughter at times, but he was also one of my favorite teachers of all time.

Jokes can used for good transition points to change into another part of the lecture, to create a break in the action for students to reset their attention clock, and for concept review. This leads us to John Medina's 10 minute rule [11].

3.5 Short periods of attention

Research shows that after a fairly short period of time, 10 minutes is what John Medina aims for, it is time for some shift in order to best keep the students engaged. With that mindfully in mind, jokes or narratives can be used as such a shift which includes a seamless chance to review the target concept then continuing on with an activity or transitioning to a new one. I also try to have students get up and move during class if possible. This leads to an easy way to block off 10 minutes as well as tying into another brain rule that active bodies lead to active brains [2, 11].

Many meetings at my school are depressingly excellent examples that frequent movement and pauses are effective for keeping people engaged. Some meetings drag on for three or more hours during which it is a struggle to stay awake, let alone contribute meaningfully and maintain focus. After a particularly brutal meeting years ago, I was questioning the wanton mindlessness of the meeting system. A colleague told me that the system was such that the best result was not reached, but rather the result desired by the person(s) who talked everyone else into submission via attrition. Anyone reading this might personally relate to such worst practices.

3.6 All brains are different

Some of my colleagues and I find it hard to believe, but there are people, or one person at least, who truly enjoy such meetings of attrition. The one person in particular tried to insure that they would be able to participate in departmental meetings after retiring and becoming a professor emeritus. This was truly shocking myself and others I talked with, but it illustrates very well one of the major rules of brain science: all brains are different from each other, though with basic innate similarities. Medina writes this as, "Every brain is wired differrently" [11]. Methods and examples of concepts that might work well for one set of students might not convey the concept well to others. In genetic terms, classroom activities are not one hundred percent penetrant. Just as what is thought humorous varies from person to person, so too for bridges to concepts.

A personal teaching mistake that I find humorous: we are all wired differently involves a method I used for teaching, or tried to at least, classification of organisms [13]. I read somewhere about having students design there own classification system based on a wide variety of shoes. The idea sounded great to me. I brought in right shoes of own that were used for skiing, snow boards, cycling, snorkeling, hiking, rock climbing, ballet, and continuing throughout to sandals and formal shoes. At the end of the term students did not hold back when commenting on how they hated the activity. If you can remember the time former US president George Bush had a shoe thrown at him by an irate Iraqi citizen, that image reflects the students' intentions with their comments. Using my shoes in class was a massive failure. In more than 20 years, this is the only time that such a high percentage of students took time to write comments in the course evaluations.

When I think of Linnaeus and classification, I think of many Life Science students and my shoes which

for me is somewhat amusing. Thinking of someone wanting to participate in marathon-like meetings, I know that all of our brains are different and we cannot know what it is like to walk in another's shoes.

3.7 Tests as learning tools

Tests are too often a means to the end of assigning grades. Tests are better utilized as another method for teaching concepts [2]. After a quiz, it used be time to enter the grades and move on. Simply reviewing the answers after completion puts the quiz into the teaching tool category. Test results are useful for determining what concepts were assimilated well, and which weren't. Thus, the quiz/test can be used to evaluate what teaching methods worked and which failed evaluating the teacher, not the student. This is also an important concept to place responsibility on the teacher-do not blame the student [2, 6, and 7]. With the number and scope of IT teaching tools exploding, there are a variety of applications, ranging from commercial, to free and open source, that can give the teacher instant feedback that alert the teacher to what concepts need more attention. One exciting tool is Socrative (http://www.socrative.com/) which is easy to use and incorporates many current pedagogical findings in their layout: one example is the race function which utilizes competition that ties into the uncertainty and thrill found in gaming [14].

3.8 Classroom design matters

The easiest to execute alteration is to think about the physical design of the student seating. It has been said that standard classrooms and office cubicles might be the worst design for fostering learning and productivity [6, 7, and 11]. Just aligning desks in semi or full circles will create more social awareness as students will be able to make eye contact with a good percentage of the class [6]. Being in a group of people, but not interacting via visual cues is not normal behavior. We are designed to be interested in how others react. As a yawn can spread in a group, so too can feelings of interest. Also, if students sense, via facial expression, that others don't understand a concept, students might be more inclined to ask questions. After such questions, students will be able to see that others listened intently to the answer to their posited question. We naturally look at people's faces to gauge a variety of details. At conferences it is quite common when an audience member asks a question for others to turn to face the questioner-it is natural.

Though an easy concept to grasp, altering general floor plans does not happen smoothly in the standard scheme of things. Many large lecture hall's desk/seat units are bolted to the floor, while most classroom's desks are not easy to move. Some desks are lightweight and easy to move, and whether by chance, though likely not, the few rooms at my school with such desks are in high demand. Also discouraging is that a recently built building at my university is in a style almost unchanged from classroom design of 50 years ago. If a new addition is planned at your institution, try to get into the planning process and incorporate current design concepts that foster learning.

34

Conclusion

Research into effective methodologies for education are important for making the most of valuable class time. In the same vein as basic scientific research, choosing, or not, new methodologies would be best done following the scientific method: 1) forming a question (e.g.,), 2) gathering information about the question, and 3) forming a hypothesis. For example, would a certain classroom technique be effective, would be followed by gathering information. In this case current information utilizing neurological and cognitive findings in education that is MBE before making your hypothesis.

Knowledge of MBE is just increasing the available information for planning a lesson. It is possible that some questions or methods might best be avoided if the current information strongly suggests they would fail. Teaching is a series of experiments where over time, it is hoped, the best practices are kept, and others are given the boot—I am thinking of my classification activity with my shoes.

Many MBE supported concepts are easy to grasp and, more importantly, easy to incorporate into the classroom. Just being mindful of them is the necessary starting point. For a great introduction to the MBE relevant concepts, John Medina's book is a great place to start [11]. The book is crafted with his 12 rules, when possible, incorporated into the layout. When I attended a two lectures on MBE by Tracy Tokuhama-Espinosa [6, 7], she too utilized MBE concepts into her talk-it was riveting. No one could question her passion for her work and her desire to expose her audience to MBE. She formed the desks, luckily this was somewhat easily done, into a few semi-circular rows that impressed her points on social learning. She repeatedly reinforced that we were all earnest teachers or why else would we be using our weekend to listen to MBE lectures? After a while I sensed that this positive reinforcement was a purposeful MBE method, but after enough repetition, I was almost starting to believe.

References

[1] Hattie, J. (2012). *Visible learning for teachers: Maximizing impact on learning*. London: Routledge

[2] Tokuhama-Espinosa, T. (2014). *Making Class*rooms Better: 50 Practical Applications of Mind, Brain, and Education Science. New York: W. W. Norton & Company

[3] Jenson, E. (2008). *A Fresh Look at Brain-Based Education*. Teachers.Net Gazette, 5(10). Retrieved from http://www.teachers.net/gazette/OCT08/jensen

[4] Maune, J. F. (1997). Teaching Life Science in English to second year English majors at Hokusei Gakuen Women's Junior College. *Journal of Hokusei Gakuen Women's Junior College*, (33): 51 - 57

[5] Maune, J. F. (2013). Intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation in an EFL content-cased class. In Bekirogullari, Z., & Minas, M. Y. (Eds.), *Cognitive-crcs Volume I* (pp. 10 - 14). Retrieved from http://www. c-crcs.com/files/menu_items/other/volumeIC crcs. pdf

[6] Tokuhama-Espinosa, T. (2015, September). Social Contagion. Plenary presentation at FAB8: Kyoto, Musubiwaza-Kan, Kyoto Sangyo University, Kyoto, Japan

[7] Tokuhama-Espinosa, T. (2015, September). *The Science in the Art of Teaching: New Discoveries in Neuroscience that Influence Education*. Plenary presentation at FAB8:Kyoto, Musubiwaza-Kan, Kyoto Sangyo University, Kyoto, Japan

[8] Davis, D., and Hayes, J. (2011). What Are the Benefits of Mindfulness? A Practice Review of Psychotherapy-Related Research. Psychotherapy, 48(2):198-208

[9] Flaubert, G. (n.d.) Madame Bovary Quotes. goodreads. Retrieved May 20, 2016 from https:// www.goodreads.com/work/quotes/2766347madame-bovary

[10] Maune, J. F. (2015). Shakespeare's Romeo and Juliet in an EFL Life Science Course. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *171*, 396-400. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.01.138

[11] Medina, J. (2014). *Brain Rules*. Seattle: Pear Press

[12] Kelly, C. (2015, May). *Why Our Brains Like Stories*. Plenary presentation at PanSIG 2015, Kobe City University of Foreign Studies, Kobe, Japan

[13] Maune, J. (2013, March). *Motivating EFL Students In A Content-Based Course*. Poster presentation at Mediterranean Conference for Academic Disciplines 2013, Valletta, Malta

[14] Howard-Jones, P. (2016, June). *Can neuro-imaging inform the principles of learning technology?* Plenary presentation at JALTCALL&BRAIN 2016, Tamagawa University, Tokyo, Japan

The Impact of Social Media on Students' Engagement with English outside the Classroom

Chaiwat Tantarangsee

Suan Sunandha Rajabhat University, Thailand ceewattantar@yahoo.com chiwat.tu@ssru.ac.th

Abstract: The purposes of this study are to identify types of social media tools most frequently used by 3rd year English major students, and to study the students' engagements with English outside the classroom. Samples include $78 - 3^{rd}$ year students, English language program, faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Suan Sunandha Rajabhat University, Bangkok, Thailand. A Likert Scale Questionnaire is used to collect the data, and the statistics employed include percentage, mean, and Standard Deviation. The research findings point out that the most frequently used social media tool is Line followed by Facebook, YouTube, and Twitter respecttively. Moreover, students' engagements with English outside the classroom accomplish a range of communicative functions in English in high level taking about 6-8 hours per day. 7 functions found in high level with the highest mean score of such engagements include 1) watching cartoon with English sound track from websites followed by 2) reading articles in English form journals and magazines, 3) watching TV programs in English from TV, 4) using online dictionaries to solve linguistic problems, 5) reading comments in English from blogs and forum based, 6) watching entertainment and documentaries in English from online medias, and 7) reading news in English from printed newspapers respectively. It is noticeable that 4 out of the 7 functions found in high level are ca-rried out by social media tools. However, 2 functions found in low level taking less than 2 hours/day inc-lude 1) listening to music in English from CD or radio and 2) using printed English-English dictionary to solve linguistic problems.

Introduction

Due to the fast growing Information Communication Technology, English is a vital tool for communication among people around the world. That is because the Internet or World Wide Web enables an important event happening in a part of the world to be simultaneously and clearly broadcast to people in other parts of the world with pictures, texts, and video clip, etc. [1] People with different races who speak different languages can consume the same piece of information or news, and share it to other internet users or netizens, and of course the core language used on the internet or websites is English language. That's why English is regarded as "World Language", or "Global Language". [2] The impact of English as World Language on Thai students learning English language is that chances of communication for Thai students are not between Thais and native speakers of English, but are between Thais and other non-native speakers of English. Moreover, the communication channel does not lie on face to face communication, but it mostly lies on reading and writing texts on varieties of websites. [3] This leads to the term "Texting Generation" referring to young people who excessively love texting messages to one another anywhere and anytime. Since time passes, the need of internet users has been satisfied more and more by the development of web technology from 1.0 -

webs presenting only texts to 2.0 or web application or programs enabling each user to be able not only to retrieve information in the form of texts, pic-tures, and video clips but also to connect to one another on web pages.[4]

And this kind of online communication technology has become 'social media'. The convenience and charm of social media capture the attention, and consume much longer time of more and more internet users. Based on the survey by The Office of Electronic Business Development, Bangkok, Thailand, it is found that Generation Y internet users or those who are 15-34 years old are the group spending their time on the Internet in highest level – with the average of 54.2 hours / week or 7.2 hours / day. [5]

Based on these findings, it can be concluded that university students who are in Generation Y spend more of their time on the Internet than on formal classroom learning which takes about 21 hours per week as suggested in the university regulation. [3] However, the most common language used on the Internet is English language. Ongoing monitoring by W3Techs showed that in March 2015, just over 55 percent of the most visited websites had English-language homepages. [4]

The assumption is that students use some English while surfing the net. They probably learn or at least practice using English informally and independently on the net outside the classroom. However, the development of Information Communication Technology and social media affect the teaching of English in some aspects. In classroom contexts, some learning management systems allow English language learners to learn from a variety of multimedia with pictures, texts, sounds, YouTube, etc. both in class and outside class while teachers can make use of the new media to faci-litate learning and teaching in more dynamic ways. Communication between teachers and students or students and students take place not only in class-room setting but also on web-blogs, Facebook, etc. The teaching methodologies have been changed from the so called "Talk and Chalk" or lecture to "Point and Click" or teaching with multimedia presentation. Moreover, "Task-based learning" and "Project-based learning" have become common and efficient by the use of the Internet. [7] It is, therefore, common for teachers to assign students to engage with English outside the class and bring into the class the authentic English in the forms of reports or classroom presentation. Meanwhile students upon their own interest and the drive of being up to date with social media spend most of their time on the Internet. But by ignoring what students do with English outside the classroom or refusing to engage with our students in social media, teachers will never truly understand their needs and never fully realize potential of social media as a language learning tool. The purposes of this study are 1) to identify types of social media most frequently used by 3rd year English Major students, and 2) to study the students' engagements with English outside the classroom.

2. Details Experimental

2.1 Samples and Procedures

Samples of this study are 78 3rd year English major students, English language program, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Suan Sunandha Rajabhat University, Bangkok, Thailand. Data is collected by using a 5-scale questionnaire which has been verified and tried out. Here are the details of the 5 rating scales.

 Table 1 Details of the 5-rating scale

Level Of Frequency	Description
5	Highest level – more than 8 hours a day
4	High level – average 6-8 hours a day
3	Medium level – average 4-6 hours a day
2	Low level – average 2-4 hours a day
1	Lowest level – less than 2 hours a day

Table 1 shows details of the 5 rating scales. The amount of time provided in the scales is in line with the research findings revealed by the Office of Electronic Business Development, Bangkok, Thailand.

The questionnaire includes 34 items of language functions or activities students accomplish outside the classroom during their engagement with English outside the classroom. These functions are divided into 2 groups; language functions accomplished during the engagement with English outside the classroom through 1) either social media tools or printed and multimedia materials, and 2) only social media. The questionnaire is used to ask 3rd year English major students to rate the frequency of their engagements per day.

2.2 Research Questions

Based on the purposes of this study including to identify types of social media most frequently used by 3^{rd} year English Major students, and to study the students' engagements with English outside the classroom, the research questions are as follows;

2.2.1 What social media tools are most frequently used by the 3^{rd} year English major students? And to what extent are they used?

2.2.2 What language functions do the students achieve during their engagements with English outside the classroom? And to what extent is each function used?

2.3 Definition

The term 'social media' is frequently mentioned in various contexts with different meaning. Here are some definitions. The use of social media has changed people's communicative patterns over the last 10 years by enabling users "to create, distribute, share and manipulate different types of content, most of them publicly accessible". [8] "Social Media" is defined as online media enabling users to interact with one another online through various web application allowing users to create, distribute, share and manipulate a variety of contents including texts, pictures, video, songs, etc to other netusers, and these contents can be accessible publicly. Social media investigated in this study include blogs, YouTube, Twitter, Instragram, line, etc.

"Students Engagements" with English outside the classroom can be defined as how students use English to achieve a language function outside the classroom. Using English outside the class does not simply mean study more, but it refers to using English to reach the students' own goals, such as to watch cartoon with English soundtrack for their enjoyment, to use English-English dictionary to solve linguistic problems, etc. It can be noted that students' engagements with English outside the classroom can be carried out both through social media or printed and multimedia materials,. For example, in the case of watching cartoon, it can be done by using social media like from websites or from CD or TV. Moreover, there are more options for using English-English dictionary, such as online or printed dictionary, and websites or application serving as a dictionary.

In this study, students' engagements with English outside the classroom are, therefore, focused on how students use English outside the classroom by using a variety of materials and media, such as social media and printed and multimedia materials.

3. Results and Discussion

The research findings reveal 5 types of most frequently used social media and 7 language functions achieved by the students during their engagements with English outside the classroom. The frequency of such engagements is in high level; 6-8 hours a day. The details of the findings are as follows;

3.1 Most frequently used social media

The research finding reveals 5 types of social media which is most frequently used social media by 3rd year English major students ranging from high to low level of frequency as shown in table 2.

Table 2 Most Frequently Used Social MediaTypes

no	Social Media Type	Percent
1	Line	100
2	Facebook	35.90
3	YouTube	28.21
4	Twitter	19.23
5	Instagram	6.40

Based on table 2, the most frequently used social media by 3rd year English major students is Line.

3.2 Achieved Language Functions

Table 3 Achieved Language Functions

	Language		S.D
no	Function	mean	
1	Watch cartoon with English soundtrack from websites	4.17	1.00
2	Read selected English articles from printed magazine or journal	3.90	1.13
3	Watch TV program in English on TV	3.82	1.04
4	Use online dictionary to solve linguistic	3.75	1.10

	problems		
5	Read comments in English on Blog and Forum for pleasure	3.63	1.42
6	Watch online movies and documentaries with English sound tracks	3.45	1.22
7	Read news in English from printed newspaper	3.41	1.32

Table 3 shows 7 language functions most frequently achieved by the students in high level which is 6-8 hours a day. The function with highest mean score is watching cartoon with En-glish sound track on websites. It can be noted that 4 out of 7 functions achieved during the students' engagements with English outside the classroom are carried out on social media while 3 out of 4 functions carried out on printed and mul-timedia materials.

3.3 Discussion

Based on the research findings, the impact of social media on the students' engagements can be divided into 2 points; its impact on 1) students' learning behavior, and 2) students' skills relating to social media.

3.3.1 Students' learning behavior

In the past most teachers and parents think that foreign language learners lack the opportunities to use English outside the classroom due to the contexts of countries not using English as official language. The only place these learners will learn English is in English language classrooms. However, the research findings reveal that there are about 20 language functions students can accomplish outside the classroom through the use of social media without having to face with native speakers of English. The communicative language functions range from watching cartoon from websites, practice English through online exercises and tests, retrieve information from websites in English for their own purposes, read comment in English from blog, forum, to create their own private blog and forum in English. Moreover, the average amount of time spent on these language functions is in medium level; 4-6 hours per day. The findings show the students' willingness to look for opportunities outside the classroom to practice English. [7]

Moreover the above language functions are authentic, meaningful, and fascinating so much to the students that the students autonomously manage themselves to achieve these functions without the tradetional teachers' assignment. Social media, therefore, plays vital roles on this kind of self-regulated learning because of its immediate feedback, its

38

availability anywhere, anytime, its convenience and its capability to allow connection and sharing among other net-users.

3.3.2 Students' skills supported by social media

The research findings reveal some students' skills supported by the use of social media. It can be noted that based on the language functions students accomplish through social media, receptive skills; reading and listening skills are mostly employed. [9] For example, watching cartoon with English sound track on websites can not only entertain the students, but also expose the students to simple authentic English used in various situations. Moreover, online dictionary and web application help develop the students' ability to use linguistic resources and media tools to understand English in authentic communicative contexts. That is because this communication technology is convenient to use and it is a kind of mobile tool satisfying the Internet users to use their mobile phones for learning purposes.

Moreover, since "Line" is the most frequently used social media, writing skills and creative thinking skills can be supported by this kind of social media. Thinking skills can, also, be challenged when the students play some online games. [8] It can be concluded that language skills; receptive skills like listening and reading with dictionary skills and writing skills with creative thinking skills can be supported by the use of social media.

3.4 Suggestion

For language teachers, it is advisable to use social media as a language tool. For example it's good opportunities for language teachers to share their experiences, tips and resources through social media. Moreover, teachers can engage with students on social media, such as creating a Facebook page, or blog for the class to access lesson plans, learning and teaching materials, quiz, samples of report, etc. It's also language teachers' job to bridge the outside world to classroom by designing tasks allowing students to bring into class variety of contents in the form of project based learning or learner's based activities. Furthermore, let students create some cultural contents and share them to the world through social media. However, the important role of language teachers is to facilitate the students about the language accuracy and to challenge the students with the use of language outside the classroom using appropriate social media.

Conclusion

It is unavoidable that social media becomes part of our daily life and learning environment. Based on the research findings, a high percentage of students use social media. Yet, a closer look at their engagements with English outside the classroom reveals a focus on receptive rather than productive language skills. The use of social media has changed the students' communicative pattern and behaviors. They are more willing to engage with English outside the classroom due to the fascination of social media enabling the Internet users to be more easily linked on a more global scale, to be able to distribute, share and let oneself known publicly. Moreover, social media can support some kinds of language learning. It is, therefore, suggested that language teachers should allow the implementation of social media in teaching and make use of it in designing tasks challenging the students to bring in contents as well as social media tools for language learning purposes. Teachers are also required to encourage and facilitate learners to collect and create relevant content, resources into a meaningful collection of virtual space, to construct and create new knowledge and understanding through blogs, Slide-shares presentation, Wikis, etc., and to share these work and communicate with others.

Acknowledgment

This is in the acknowledgment of funding by Suan Sunandha University' Personnel Development Fund for the oral presentation at the 4th International Academic Conference on Social Science (IACSS), 28th-29th July 2016, Barcelona, Spain.

References

[1] D. Crystal, "English as the Global Language", Cambridge; Cambridge University Press, 1997.

[2] D. Melitz, "English as the Global Language", CEPR Discussion Paper no. 6., 2009.

[3] W. Kunnu, "Teaching speaking skills to adult English language learners through ALM", International Journal of Social Behavioral Educational, Economic and Management Engineering, vol.26, pp.277-287, 2014.

[4] R.O. Gibson, "Using Social Media as a Language Learning Tool", the Guardian.com, teachernetwork, April 2012.

- 39

[5] Electronic Transactions Development Agency (Public Organization) "Thailand Internet Users Profile, 2015", Report, Bangkok, 2015.

[6] P. Sayer, and R. Ban, "Young EFL students' engagements with English outside the classroom", ELT Journal, vol. 68/3, pp. 321-329, 2014.

[7]"Usage of content languages for websites." W3 Techs.com. Retrieved March 24, 2015.

[8] K. Zourou, "On the attractiveness of social media for language learning: a look at the state of the art", Alsic, vol. 15/1, 2012.

[9] M. Miglbauer, and T. Kotikoski, "Students' use of English outside the classroom and its impact on teaching the four skills: a best practice example of an online writing project", ESL-lab Research, 2015.

Studying The Long-term Psychological Effects of Emotional Abuse Experienced in Childhood.

Claira Newton, Dr. Helen Gavin University of Huddersfield, UK <u>claira.newton@hud.ac.uk</u>

Abstract: Objectives: In order to study the effect of child emotional abuse (CEA) on adult well-being, a survey was conducted to determine the links. In order to understand how the various forms of abuse are dealt with by the victim, this research examines the different coping strategies employed in both childhood and adulthood. Design: An online survey was developed including questions designed to elicit qualitative and quantitative data. The online survey method was used in order to maintain anonymity of participants and produce rich and useful data. Method: Charitable organisations who work with adult victims of child abuse agreed to help network this survey to their client groups. The data from this client group will be compared to that collected from non-client groups who may or may not have been subject to abuse. Results:Data will be analysed using both qualitative (thematic) and quantitative (correlational) analytical procedures. The results discussed in this paper are preliminary results only. Conclusions: Practical implications in terms of understanding how emotional abuse experienced in childhood impacts on mental health and well-being in adulthood will be discussed, alongside the possibility of identifying the most effective defence mechanisms/coping strategies employed which could then be utilised effectively in child adult therapy sessions or interventions.

Introduction

Research into child emotional abuse and the potential impact this has on both physical and mental health in adulthood has been limited until relatively recent years. Childhood abuse is now understood to include: physical, sexual and emotional abuse, neglect and/or witnessing traumatic events or domestic violence [15]. However, Emo-tional abuse is still thought to be the most prevalent form of abuse inflicted on children but it is also thought to be the least recognised, least reported and the most difficult form of abuse to identify [8]. It is widely recognised within the literature that all forms of abuse, whether imposed on an adult or a child, include an element of emotional abuse [12]. For example, sexual abuse in childhood is known to include a huge element of psychological abuse or torment as this is one of the most powerful tools used by child sex abusers in order to manipulate and control their victims [14]. According to the NSPCC [16], any abuse inflicted on a child, regardless of intent, will have an emotionally damaging effect on that child. In 2014, more than fifty-six thousand children in the UK were on either a child protection register or subject to a child protection plan due to abuse and/or neglect [17]. This is a shocking figure considering that all forms of abuse are likely to include an emotional element [12] and that it is the emotional aspect of abuse that is thought to be the most damaging to the child, even when emotional abuse is experienced alone [1]. Another concern with this figure is that it is merely the tip of the iceberg as many child abuse cases go unreported each year and as emotional abuse is the most difficult to identify, it is also likely to be the least reported form of child abuse [9]. This statistic could therefore be hugely underestimated [1].

1.1. Defining emotional abuse

Emotional abuse has many different terms and definitions attached to it, for example, emotional abuse [12], emotional maltreatment [26], psychological abuse or maltreatment [19], non-physical abuse [6] and mental cruelty [19] are all terms which have been associated with emotional abuse. Moreover, there appears to be at least one definetion used to define each of these terms which makes the task of developing an operational definition a rather difficult one. Unlike definitions for physical and sexual abuse, emotional abuse cannot be defined in terms of the harm caused to victims as this will vary tremendously for each individual [25]. For the purpose of this paper, the term emotional abuse will be used throughout to describe all non-physical acts of abuse and this will be defined as "a repeated pattern of damaging interactions between parent(s) and child that becomes typical of the relationship" [10.p1].

The key point of this definition is that the damaging acts committed are "repeated" and become "typical" of the parent-child relationship. Isolated acts of emotional abuse will not tend to have the same level of long-term negative impact as a repeated pattern of emotionally abusive acts. For example, if a parent is having an unusually hard time (e.g. loss of a loved one) and they unknowingly reject and isolate their child for only a short period of time, the child will likely get over this with little to no impact so long as the caring, responsive relationship resumes. This differs somewhat from other forms of abuse such as, physical or sexual as these abusive acts can be isolated (e.g. rape) and still have long-term negative effects on the individual [20].

Horner provides an accurate description of childhood emotional abuse when she says that emotional abuse is unlike any other form of abuse. No weapons are used which could leave visible marks [9]. Instead, weapons used will consist of hurtful, derogatory words, rejection and/or with-holding emotion from the child. However, the consequences of using these "weapons" against a child can often be just as severe and long-lasting as any form of physical or sexual abuse. The long-term negative effects which are often associated with childhood abuse, particularly childhood emotional abuse can include a range of long-term issues, such as, physical and mental health issues and psychological issues. These may include among others; fatigue, poor general health, increased need for prescriptions [23], drug and alcohol abuse, anxiety [10], depression [3], sexual difficulties and decreased self-esteem [13].

1.2. Impact of childhood abuse on adult health

Greenfield and Marks examined patterns of associations between participants experiences of physical and psychological abuse during childhood. They found that experiences which involved both physical and psychological violence were associated with higher levels of negative affect, regardless of the gender of abuser [7]. However, psychological violence was reported to have greater negative affect when abuse was received from the mother, regardless of the frequency of the psychological violence. Violence from fathers, (whether physical or psychological) was only associated with high levels of negative affect when it was experienced frequently. This study indicates that the gender of the abuser and the frequency it occurs play a major role in how negatively it affects an individual in later life.

Studies have also provided evidence that experiencing multiple types of maltreatment in childhood increases the likelihood of poor mental health in adulthood. One study in particular found that sufferers of depression reported significantly more experiences of childhood abuse than non-depressed individuals [3]. The most frequent form of abuse reported was emotional neglect, followed by psychological abuse, sexual abuse and then physical abuse. Not surprisingly, this study also found that the more frequently abusive behaviours were experienced, the higher the probability the individual would develop depressive symptoms [3].

The relationship between childhood emotional abuse and the impact on various aspects of adult health has also been investigated by Gavin [6]. Gavin found a significant negative relationship between the participants experiences of childhood emotional abuse and their actual and perceived health in adulthood. Gavin suggested that the cumulative disadvantage theory can be applied to emotional abuse as her findings indicate that experiences of emotional abuse in early childhood can lead to continued negative experiences throughout an individual's entire life course. This finding supports Vallone et al [22] as they claimed that experiences of abuse in childhood would increase a child's chance of recurrent abuse by 50% and that an abusive home environment during a child's development may lead to a negative cumulative effect continuing long into adulthood.

Interestingly, in Gavin's study, a small number of participants reported high levels of emotional abuse in childhood but also reported healthy and satisfying experiences in adulthood [6]. Gavin found that the cumulative disadvantage theory did not appear to apply to these participants as they had reportedly adopted family avoidant strategies. This strategy of cutting all ties with their abuser was considered a healthy and necessary adjustment for those particular participants to have a healthy approach to adult life [6].

The limitations of this finding is that it was reported by only a small number of participants, however, the implications for this could be of great importance for future victims of abuse in order to make healthy adjustments and live a fulfilling adult life. The current study aims to examine this issue further. In relation to coping strategies employed by victims of abuse, previous studies have found that dissociation [22], eating disorders [4], selfharm and alcohol or substance use [2] are common coping strategies associated with childhood abuse. However, these behaviours tend to be most commonly associated with experiences of sexual or physical abuse but it is so far unclear as to whether it is the emotional element of these forms of abuse that cause these harmful coping strategies to be employed. For this reason, further investigation is needed into the coping strategies and defence mechanisms employed by victims of childhood emotional abuse in both childhood and adulthood in order to better understand and utilise these. If more positive strategies can be identified to assist victims of childhood abuse in dealing with their experiences, it may be possible to reduce the longterm psychological issues associated with their abusive experiences or in the very least, reduce the impact these issues have.

1.3. Research objectives

With this in mind, the objectives of the present study are to 1) explore the extent to which the cumulative disadvantage theory can be applied to victims of childhood emotional abuse, 2) to understand how the various forms of abuse are dealt with by the victim and what effective coping strategies are employed to deal with their experiences in both childhood and adulthood and 3) to raise awareness amongst the general public and health care professionals to how profoundly damaging emotional abuse is to anybody experiencing it, whether that be an adult or a child.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Sample

A total of 88 participants took part in the first stage of this research. These participants included 70 female (76.9%) and 18 male (19.8%) participants with an age ranging between 19-68 years (M= 36.99). In terms of demographics, the only criteria for participating in this research was a minimum age of 18. No restrictions were placed on geographical location or ethnicity of participants resulting in responses from a number of different countries (e.g. Britain, Cyprus, Australia, US and China) and ethnic backgrounds (Caucasian, Asian, Latino, etc.)

Participants were recruited from both abusive and non-abusive backgrounds. Participants were asked to indicate whether or not they had experienced abuse as a child. Of the 88 participants 49.4% (n=44) answered yes to this question and 50.6% (n=45) answered no to this question.

Volunteers for this research were obtained through various methods. Snowball sampling was the main recruitment method for non-abused participants as the survey information and link were posted on various social networking sites and passed on to others via word of mouth. Abused participants were recruited with the assistance of a number of charities and organisations designed to support, counsel and provide information to adult survivors of many different forms of abuse. These charities and organisations include; Help for Adult Victims of Child Abuse (HAVOCA), National Association for People Abused In Childhood (NAPAC), Rape, Abuse and Incest National Network (RAINN) and Mankind. The charities staff members assisted by posting the information and link to the survey on either their websites, forums or social networking pages. A major advantage of using these organisations to recruit participants who survived childhood abuse is that participants recruited via these methods are more likely to have sought some level of support or counselling for their experiences thus reducing the risk of psychological harm to participants following participation in this study.

2.2. Procedure

An extensive review of the literature surrounding childhood abuse and its psychological effects generated a large number of potential items for inclusion. These were used to develop a cross-sectional survey that consisted of both qualitative and quantitative questions. Following the development of the survey, experts with a wide range of knowledge volunteered to check this survey and establish face validity. The expert volunteers included psychologists, university psychology lecturers, a probation officer with research experience and people who work closely with adult survivors of childhood abuse. Experts were informed of the aims of the study and then asked to rate each individual item on the survey in terms of relevance to the study's aims. They did this using a Likert scale with 1 meaning highly irrelevant, 3 being neutral and 5 being highly relevant. Descriptive statistics were then carried out on the feedback received from these experts and the questionnaire was amended accordingly. These amendments included eliminating items that were too sensitive and items that were not collecting information relevant to research aims. The items that were deemed irrelevant or insensitive were those with a low mean (<4.70) and high standard deviation (>1.3) and items with a high mean (>4.70) and low standard deviation (<1.3) were kept. Amendments also included re-wording some questions and changing the format of questions to be made clearer. The developed survey also included the Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-being Scale (WEMWBS) which comprises 14 statements about participants' thoughts and feelings over a 2 week period. This scale was chosen to make it possible to assess participants' current well-being in relation to their

43

childhood experiences. Expert ratings for these items were disregarded in order to keep the validity of the Mental Well-being scale.

The survey was then transferred onto an online survey website (Kwiksurveys), this enables participants to complete the survey in their own time and with complete anonymity as they can simply follow a link. A small pilot study was carried out to test the survey worked and to check that questions were understood correctly; no issues were identified from this.

All participants completing the survey were also asked to provide their contact details if they were willing to take part in the second stage of this study which involved participant interviews. It was emphasised here that in order to maintain anonymity, contact details should only be provided if participants were happy to participate in the second stage of this study. Thirty-four (39%) of all participants were willing to participate in the interview stage. Due to the geographical location of some of these participants (e.g. USA, Australia, etc), face to face interviews were not an option. An alternative for this was considered in the form of telephone or Skype interviews.

2.3. Ethics

Prior to any participant recruitment, this project was reviewed and approved by the University of Huddersfield, School of Human and Health Sciences research ethics committee. Approval was granted for both stages of the research as all methods and measures taken adhered to the ethical guidelines provided by the British Psychological Society (BPS). As previously mentioned, the only exclusion criteria for this research was those participants under the age of 18. All information regarding the study was provided to participants prior to the request for written consent, participants then had the choice whether to continue and complete the survey or disregard it with no consequence. A detailed debrief was provided for participants who completed the survey and contact details were provided for a variety of additional supportive organisations and help lines e.g. Victim support, Rape crisis and Mind. Information was also provided in the form of contact details for the NSPCC to assist any person wishing to voice concerns regarding a child following the completion of the survey. 3. Results and Discussion

As previously mentioned, findings discussed here are preliminary results only at this stage. Eightyeight participants completed the anonymous survey, these participants were predominantly White British (67%), employed (61.4%) and ranging in age from 19-68 years (Mean = 36.99). Additionally, participants were predominantly female (76.9%) with a sample of 18 male participants (19.8%). Of these 88 participants, 49.4% of them stated they had abusive childhoods. Table 1 below demonstrates the age of initial abuse experience and the length of abuse period for these individuals.

Age abuse starte d	Freq	%	Length of abuse	Freq.	%
From birth	7	15.9	Single event	1	2.3
Before age of 5	12	27.3	Up to 1 year	2	4.7
Betwe en age 5-10	17	38.6	1-2 years	2	2.3
Betwe en age 11-16	3	6.8	2-5 years	3	7.0
Unkno wn	5	11.4	5-10 years	11	25.6
			10+ years Still ongoing	18 5	41.9 11.6
			Unknown	2	4.7

Table 1: Age of initial abuse experience andlength of abusive period (in years).

Alarmingly, 32% of abused individuals reporting initial abusive experiences prior to the age of 5, also reported that their experiences of abuse had either lasted more than 10 years or is currently still ongoing. It is difficult to believe that in 10 years, there was no suspicions from outsiders or opportunities to intervene and safeguard these children. One survey question asked participants "...did you ever disclose the abuse to a 'trusted' adult?". Of this 32% (14 abused participants), over half of them reported to have disclosed the abuse to a 'trusted' adult at some point throughout the duration of their abuse. When asked "What was the result of that disclosure?" one participant recalls "Sometimes they told on me to my parents. Sometimes they didn't believe me. Sometimes they just didn't know what to do..." (P44).

Another question asked "...did your behaviour/ actions following an episode of abuse change in a way that you believe should have been noticeable by others?". Of the 14 individuals who reported initial abuse prior to the age of 5 and lasting more than 10 years, 12 of them believed that their change in behaviour was significant enough to raise concerns outside of the abusive relationship. P34 stated "I was a quiet child who was labelled moody. I wasn't moody I was deeply unhappy, scared and lonely". One 60 year old, female participant recalls:

"It WAS noticed, and commented on, even acted on in a couple of cases. I wet the bed. I dissolved into tears at the drop of a hat. I had everything going for me, but was suicidal...People didn't know what to do, and they didn't understand how deep the problem was...A guidance counsellor gave me a free pass to get out of class when I needed to, and just go sit in the palm garden and read a book until I felt ready to cope with the world again. I guess they all felt like they had done all they could, or all they were supposed to do." (P49).

These experiences highlight the importance of recognising the signs of abuse in children and knowing how to act upon signs and/or suspicions of abuse. If the victims disclosures had been taken seriously or if someone had questioned the children's unusual behaviour then it is possible that safeguards could have been put in place and the longterm psychological issues experienced by these victims could have been significantly reduced [13].

3.1. Single act of abuse VS frequently abused

As can be seen from Table 1, only one participant reported a single act of abuse, at least 34 participants reported ongoing abuse lasting a minimum of 5 years. This is consistent with previous research [5]. One female participant reported daily occurrences of physical and emotional abuse for more than 5 years of her childhood, when asked about the long-lasting negative effects of her childhood experiences, P36 stated she has "PTSD. Social anxiety. difficulty trusting others. difficulty with conflict resolution. low self-esteem ... ". Another participant (P48) who reported physical, sexual, emotional and spiritual abuse over a period of at least 7 years explained that the long-lasting negative effects she experiences include; "Complex PTSD. Chemical imbalance. Chronic anxiety. Recurring depression." These findings support previous research that frequent episodes of childhood abuse can lead to PTSD, anxiety disor-ders [22] and depression in adulthood [3].

P26 stated that her childhood was not an abusive one, although she did experience sexual abuse on

one occasion. However, this participants experience of a single abusive act does not appear to be an accurate depiction of how an isolated act of abuse would affect long-term psychological health. This is due to the fact that a number of her survey responses indicate that she did experience a level of emotional abuse as a child. For example, she reported being ridiculed or made to feel ashamed if she showed emotion, she recalled a member of her family threatening to hurt members of her family, siblings or favourite pets and feeling the need to protect them and she stated that a member of her household was drug or alcohol dependant which affected her relationship with that person. This finding potentially supports previous research that a person can experience long-term negative effects of abuse even when the abuse is not recognised as such [6]. Additionally, this finding also supports Edwards et al's theory that the effects of one form of abuse such as sexual abuse, can be amplified by the presence of an emotionally abusive home environment [5].

3.2. Experiences of abuse

Among all the abused participants, a wide range of relationships were reported between victims and abusers. Multiple abusers throughout childhood was the most frequently reported (33.3%), followed by father (15.4%), both parents (12.8%), nonspecified parent (10.3%), parents boyfriend or girlfriend (10.3%), sibling (5.1%) and family friend (5.1%). Comparisons between abuse experienced by Mothers and Fathers was not possible with this dataset as no participants reported experiencing abuse from Mothers alone. A small number of participants (n=5) reported abusive experiences from both parents. Typically this involved sexual and/or physical abuse from the father and emotional abuse from the mother, although 2 participants also reported experiencing emotional abuse from their father at various stages throughout childhood.

Moreover, no participants specifically reported experiencing emotional or psychological abuse alone. However, a number of participants who stated that they did not have abusive childhoods, also reported various experiences which indicate emotionally abusive behaviours from their caregivers. For example, being ridiculed or made to feel ashamed for showing emotions, parent or member of household ridiculing and insulting them as a child, threats made to loved ones, threats made to send child away, family environment feeling unpredictable, etc. According to the literature, research into emotional abuse has developed over recent years and researchers and professionals have a clearer understanding that emotional abuse can be experienced without the presence of other forms of abuse and in fact, may be the core component of all forms of abuse [18]. However, it is possible that victims of childhood emotional abuse do not recognise it as such and believe their experiences to be quite normal or at most, simply believe their parents were more strict than the parents of their peers.

Sexual abuse and witnessing Domestic Violence (WDV) were the only two forms of abuse reported to have been experienced alone. Five (11%) of the 44 participants who reported abusive childhoods, reported only sexual abuse and one (2.3%) participant reported witnessing DV between her parents throughout her childhood. Interestingly, the participant who witnessed DV (P82) remained in contact with her parents, particularly her father who was said to be the main instigator of DV and she was the only victim (of a single form of abuse) who went on to experience abuse in her adult relationships. It is possible that this participant modelled her own adult relationships on that of her parents which led to her accepting abuse as the norm.

All of the 5 other participants who reported experiences of sexual abuse only stated that they had not experienced further abusive relationships into adulthood. Four of these 5 have reportedly adopted family avoidant strategies. However, these findings do not support those of Gavin's [6] who suggested that family avoidance strategies lead individuals to achieve a healthy and satisfying adult life as a number of long-term mental health issues were also reported, such as, severe depression, bipolar disorder, anxiety, PTSD and others. Nevertheless, what this finding may support is Gavin's theory that the cumulative disadvantage theory does not apply to these individuals as the act of cutting all contact with their abuser may have reduced the severity of the negative impact of their experiences just enough to allow them to avoid entering into any further abusive relationships [6].

Most commonly reported combinations of abuse experienced together were emotional and physical abuse (20%), followed by experiences of emotional, physical and sexual abuse (18%). Participants who reported these combinations of abuse also reported a number of severe long-term mental health issues including; Complex-PTSD, Severe depression, anxiety, various addictions, OCD, selfharm, low self-esteem, low self-worth and various phobias. These findings support previous research that experiencing multiple types of abuse increases the likelihood of poorer mental health [5] and depression in adulthood [3].

In regards to further experiences of abuse in adult relationships, Five of the 12 participants reporting multiple forms of abuse were subject to further abusive relationships, irrespective of the fact they had adopted family avoidance strategies. These findings indicate that the experience of multiple forms of abuse lead to an increased chance of participants being drawn to violent partners [11] which also supports the cumulative disadvantage theory [6]. The other seven participants did not experience further abusive relationships, however, other factors affecting this could include; severity of their abuse, length of abuse, age of participant when they decided to sever ties with their abuser and/or coping strategies employed to deal with their experiences of abuse.

3.3. Coping strategies and defence mechanisms employed by abuse victims

Defence mechanisms employed by abused children will take many forms and can often appear in the form of; aggressive behaviour, withdrawal of communication, dissociation, deliberate self-harm or demonstrating excessively 'good' behaviour [15]. These defence mechanisms may develop into longterm coping strategies and adult victims of child abuse also appear to develop various other unhealthy behaviours in order to help them cope with their experiences. Findings from this study support previously identified coping strategies employed by abused individuals such as, drug and/or alcohol abuse [10], unsafe sex and/or promiscuous behaviour [24], self-harming behaviours [2], eating disorders [4] and dissociation [22].

Findings from this study also indicate a previously unknown coping strategy employed by abused individuals both in childhood and adulthood. This coping strategy is simple but seemingly very effective in helping individuals to deal with their experiences in a healthy way. Twenty per cent of participants in this study reported reading books to be their most effective tool, anything from short stories to fantasy, science fiction, etc helped them to 'tune out' of reality and immerse into a fictional world without necessarily dissociating. When asked "Are you aware of any defence mechanisms /coping strategies you used when you were growing up?", P12 reported "I used to read a lot to switch my brain off from what was going on around me." P49 answered "I escape into books" and P34 reported "I would retreat into my books and the stories I read". These participants went on to say that they still use this coping method in adulthood and it remains effective for them. Similarly, when asked the same questions, P30 stated "Reading (particularly fantasy stories, with heros on grand quests or with darker tones) helped sustain my sense of hope and made me believe I could overcome difficulties in my life, even if they seemed overwhelming. They also made me feel more normal...". P30 also remarked that this method is still one she uses often as an adult.

Some of these participants stated that writing had a similar helpful effect although this has the potential to turn into writing about negative experiences and the effectiveness of that is not clear here. As can be seen by P49 saying "...sometimes writing hate letters to myself. I get sick, I continued to write – journal, poems, story. I try to learn what normal looks like, and pretend to be that myself." This comment suggests that sometimes writing is effect-tive and other times it becomes a negative or far from productive exercise.

It is possible that the use of literature (both reading or writing) as a coping strategy is an effective one because it shares characteristics of dissociation and possibly self-harm. Dissociation can be understood in terms of leaving the current reality [12] and selfharm can be used as a means of blocking out emotional pain [21]. Participants in this study describe reading as a way to "switch off the brain", "retreat" or "escape" which suggests that by immersing themselves into the plot of the story, they are engaging in a mild form of dissociation from the present environment in order to block out emotional pain but in a much more healthy and beneficial way.

As this method of coping was reported by only 9 participants, it is difficult to apply these findings to a larger sample. However, further research into this area is needed in order to establish how effective reading and/or writing would be as a coping method for abuse victims in the future. This finding potentially has huge implications for implementtation as it is a fairly simple method to encourage. Teachers are often the first people to notice any changes to behaviour or signs of abuse in young children and they will already have some influence over the child learning to read and write. Obviously, when there is suspicions of abuse, the initial focus should be on intervention and putting a stop to any further abuse. However, if this coping strategy could be encouraged and employed at a young age, it could potentially reduce the long-lasting negative impact of those abusive experiences.

3.4. Limitations

As the full data set has not been completely analysed at this stage, the findings discussed and conclusions drawn are preliminary only and have to be considered with caution. The data for this study was obtained through self-report measures therefore, there is no guarantee that data or findings are completely accurate. All findings, (although preliminary at this stage), are based on reported, not confirmed abusive experiences.

In order to comply with BPS ethical considerations and reduce risk of psychological harm to participants, the survey allowed respondents to skip any questions they were uncomfortable with. This has resulted in a considerable amount of missing data throughout the 88 responses, it is currently unknown whether this has negatively affected the results in the form of a response bias.

Conclusion

It is obvious from the present study and from previous findings that childhood emotional abuse is a major issue. As emotional abuse is thought to be at the core of all other forms of abuse, it seems only sensible to try and understand this further. There appears to be a number of factors associated with childhood abuse, of all forms, that can affect the impact of those abusive experiences, e.g. presence of multiple forms of abuse, age of initial abuse, relationship to abuser, victims own perceptions of their experiences, etc. These need to be examined further in order to attempt to reduce the amount of impact they have. A better awareness is also needed among members of the public and among professionals into how to deal with disclosure of abuse by a child as findings from this study demonstrate that with effective intervention upon disclosure, years of abuse and torment could have been avoided for multiple victims.

As this research demonstrates, family avoidance strategies and more healthy ways of blocking out emotional pain in the form of reading fiction have been effective for a number of participants. However, more research is needed into these coping strategies in order to find the most appropriate way to develop these and assess whether these methods could be utilised by others without further impact to their mental health.

Acknowledgements

The authors gratefully acknowledge the assistance of the aforementioned charities; Help for Adult

47

Victims of Child Abuse (HAVOCA), National Association for People Abused In Childhood (NA PAC), Rape, Abuse and Incest National Network (RAINN) and Mankind in the data collection stage of this research. The authors also wish to thank all participants who completed the survey and shared personal experiences for the development of this research.

References

[1] Barlow, J., & Schrader-McMillan, A. (2010). Safeguarding children from emotional maltreatment. London: Jessica Kingsley Publishers

[2] Berelowitz, S., Firmin, C., Edwards, G., & Gulyurtlu, S. (2012). "I thought I was the only one. The only one in the world". The office of the Children's commissioner's inquiry into Child Sexual exploitation in gangs and groups. *Children's Commissioner: Interim Report.*

[3] Comijs, H. C., Van Exel, E., Van Der Mast, R. C., Paauw, A., Oude Voshaar, R., & Stek, M. L. (2013). Childhood abuse in late-life depression. *Journal of Affective Disorders*, *147*, *241-246*

[4] Doyle, C. (2001). Surviving and coping with emotional abuse in childhood. *Clinical Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, *6*, 387-402

[5] Edwards, V.J., Holden, G.W., Felitti, V.J. & Anda, R.F. (2003). Relationship between multiple forms of childhood maltreatment and adult mental health in community respondents: Results from the adverse childhood experiences study. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 160:8, 1453-1460

[6] Gavin, H. (2011). Sticks and stones may break my bones: The effects of Emotional abuse. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma*, 20, 503-529

[7] Greenfield, E.A., & Marks, N.F. (2010). Identifying experiences of physical and psychological violence in childhood that jeopardize mental health in adulthood. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, *34*, *161-171*

[8] Hibbard, R., Barlow, J., MacMillan, H., & the Committee on Child Abuse and Neglect, American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, Child Maltreatment and Violence Committee. (2012). Psychological Maltreatment. *Pediatrics*, *130*, *372-378*

[9] Horner, G. (2012). Emotional Maltreatment. *Journal of Paediatric Health Care, 26, 436-442*

[10] Kairys, S.W., Johnson, C.F., & Committee on Child Abuse and Neglect. (2002). The Psychological Maltreatment of Children - Technical Report. *Pediatrics, 109, 1-3*

[11] Kim, J., Talbot, N., & Cicchetti, D. (2009). Childhood abuse and current interpersonal conflict: The role of shame. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 33*, 362-371

[12] Loring, M. T. (1994). *Emotional Abuse*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

[13] Mullen, P.E., Martin, J.L., Anderson, J.C., Romans, S.E., & Herbison, G.P. (1996). The longterm impact of the physical, emotional, and sexual abuse of children: A community study. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 20, 7-21*

[14] NAPAC. (2011). Untangling the web of confusion. *The National Association for People Abused in Childhood*. Retrieved April 23, 2014 from: https://www.yumpu.com/en/document/view /15999049/untangling/23

[15] National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (2014). When to suspect child malt-reatment overview. *National Institute for Health and Care Excellence*. Retrieved June 15, 2015 from: http://pathways.nice.org.uk/pathways/when-to-suspect-child-maltreatment

[16] NSPCC. (2010). Child Protection fact sheet: The definitions and signs of child abuse. *The National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children.* Retrieved April 23, 2014 from: http:// www.essexclerks.org/sites/default/files/The%20def initions%20and%20signs%20of%20child%20abus e%20NSPCC%20June%202010%20(2).pdf

[17] NSPCC. (2015). Child Protection register statistics UK: 2010-2014. *The National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children*. Retrieved March 7, 2016 from: https://www.nspcc.org.uk/ globalassets/documents/statistics-and information /child-protection-register-statistics-unitedkingdom.pdf

[18] O'Dougherty, W. (2007). The long-term impact of emotional abuse in childhood. *Journal of Emotional Abuse*, *7*, *1-8*

[19] O'Hagan, K.P. (1995). Emotional and Psychological abuse: Problems of definition. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, *19*, 449-461 [20] Stoltenborgh, M., Bakermans-Kranenburg, M., Alink, L., & van IJzendoorn. (2012). The universality of childhood emotional abuse: A metaanalysis of worldwide prevalence. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma, 21:8, 870-*890

[21] Sutton, J. (2007). *Healing the hurt within: Understand self-injury and self-harm, and heal the emotional wounds.* Oxford: How To Books

[22] Vallone, R., Addona, F., D'Elia, L., & Vicari, S. (2009). Child Abuse: A multidisciplinary approach. *Paediatrics and Child Health, 19, 207-210*

[23] Wagner, P.J., & Mongan, P.F. (1998). Validating the concept of abuse. *Archives of Family Medicine*, 7, 25-29

[24] Walker, E.A., Gelfand, A., Katon, W.J., Koss, M.P., Von Korff, M., Bernstein, D., & Russo, J. (1999). Adult health status of women with histories of childhood abuse and neglect. *American Journal of Medicice*, 107, 332-339

[25] Wolfe, D.A., & McIsaac, C. (2011). Distinguishing between poor/dysfunctional parenting and child emotional maltreatment. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 35, 802-813*

[26] Yates, T., & Wekerle, C. (2009). The longterm consequences of childhood emotional maltreatment on development: (Mal) adaptation in adolescence and young adulthood. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 33, 19-21* Mohammed Al-Sadoun, PhD United Arab Emirates University, UAE malsadoun@uaeu.ac.ae

Abstract: The war in Syria has caused the displacement of millions of people, half of them are children. Children, who are often unable to understand the complexities and the continuation of this terrible war, find drawing an effective form of expression: to escape from their tragic reality, or to communicate without the verbal concepts they would not be able to otherwise express. In another words children's drawings "speak louder than words," as de Jager argues (2012). The purpose of this paper is to investigate the emotional and psychological impact war has on Syrian children as revealed in their drawings. Often these children draw scenes of war based on real events they have experienced- scenes of fighting and death; depictions of lethal weapons – guns, tanks, military aircraft, and more. In fact, their drawings are a very realistic representation of war events. This can be a challenge to the notion that children draw what they know instead of what they see (Willats, 2005. p. 2).

Introduction

The war in Syria has displaced millions of children and forced them to flee from their home country. Since the beginning of this conflict, Syrian children have been subjected to murder, torture, sexual violence, military recruitment and chronic stress. The data gathered in in this paper confirms that, "2.6 million children are no longer in school and 2 million are living as refugees in neighboring countries or on the run in search of safety." (UNICEF). How does the Syrian war affect the lives of the children? I argue that one of the best ways to answer this question is to look at the drawings made by Syrian children because they provide fresh insight into this conflict.

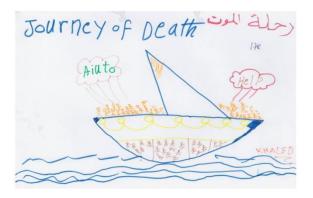
Drawing as a form of self-expression

Multiple visual metaphors make children's artwork exciting and expressive. Drawing is a self-expression and powerful communicative tool for Syrian children to share their war experience and tell their own stories. According to Hunter (2016), Shaharzad Hassan an 8 year-old girl has recorded a dangerous voyage from war into hope. In Drawing No. 1 Shaharzad drew a Greek ship rescuing passengers. According to the same source she "witnessed ISIS fighters and death, a boat of refugees drowning in the Aegean Sea and a Greek rescue boat."



Greek ship saves Syrian people No. 1

A large number of Syrian children have fled the war in fatal boat trips. Drawing No. 2, entitled "Journey of Death" by a Syrian boy Khalid expresses the state of terrified passengers who are asking for help during their journey.



No.2

The tragic death of the Kurdish 3 year-old boy Aylan Kurdi who drowned as his family tried to flee Kobani on 2 September 2015 is the subject of the drawing No. 3 by a Syrian child who has fled the war. Alan's death was one of the most shocking events in the world in 2015. Aylan is represented as an angel lifted above the waters of the Mediterranean to the sky. We sense a strong empathy amongst the children in their plights.



No. 3

Drawing No. 4 by Nine-year-old Jamal depicts an attack on bus that he witnessed. In Fact, "he was drawing the bus that took him from Syria to Lebanon. Armed gunmen raided the bus and threatened the lives of all the passengers. Two people were killed in front of him." (Nasser, 2013).



No.4

War and Peace Representation

It has been argued that gender plays an important role in the representation of war in children's drawings. Naumburg (as cited in Dalton 1991) noted that, "war drawing is a genre chosen almost exclusively by boys; she concludes that it has to do with issues of gender identity." (P.62).



No. 5

But a close look at drawings made by Syrian children's drawings showcases that Syrian girls like boys draw scenes of war as an evident in Drawing No.5, was made by 10 year-old girl Halat Al khluf. Halat depicted a warplane, helicopter and two tanks firing on a school building and other manifestations of violence.



No. 6

The scene of airplanes dropping bombs on civilian targets as expressed in the Drawing number No. 6 has become a common theme in the children's war drawings. Because children are accustomed to seeing the Syrian regime and Russian warplanes attacking civilian targets. Cultural influence appears clear in the drawing No. Drawing No. 7 depicts a child martyr. Martyr occupies position in the Arab-Islamic culture and has religious and political significance in Syria. The martyr in this drawing is a child wearing white clothes represents innocence.



No. 7

Drawings as a Traumatic Experience

Many studies reveal that war has serious psychological effects on children living in armed conflict zones. Children may develop serious long-term symptoms such as stress disorders, depression, fear, isolation, and an inability to sleep among other complications. Close observation to drawings by Syrian refugees "Reveal three sets of problems facing these children: lack of stability, lack of access to schools, and anxiety stemming from exposure to potentially traumatizing events." (Save the Children 2015).

The psychological impact of the war is evident in Syrians refuge children's drawings as shown in the. Drawing No. 8 was made by a Syrian girl in a German police station while she was waiting for her parents. This drawing depicts a scene of ho-

51

rrific crime representing a girl walking on crutches in a terrifying place surrounded by the skull and crossbones, weapons, dead people, and bleeding human body parts. The black birds are hovering around the crime scene. According to Mezzofiore (2015), "It is possible that the child experienced the events shown in the picture, or she wouldn't have drawn them otherwise," psychologist and trauma researcher Tatjana Kolassa told DPA news agency."



No. 8

Emotional impact of war in children is evident in Drawing No. 9 that portrays two girls sitting on their knees on the ground, crying. The child wrote, "I swear to God, I hate alienation and Lebanon." This drawing expresses alienation, homesickness, and disappointment.





Despite their pain and misery children also crossing the expression of peace and the hopes and dreams of return to their homeland, "Syria is not always drawn as a place of cruelty, but as a green space, with water and tranquility, as if they have remained attached to the 'before' in the hope of going back, as if nothing had disturbed that harmony," (Save the Children, 2015).



No. 10

Conclusion

War in Syria has devastating effects children and it is reflected in children's drawings. Children during the conflict illustrate various aspects of multiple war destruction and the danger they have witnessed. Drawing has turned into an effective cathartic expression of the internal problems the children experience. Children use drawings to record their war experience and thus their drawings provides insight into the war conflict from children's perspectives, which represent half of the number of Syrian immigrants. Children's drawings are a form of self-expression and represent visual evidences and testimonies about the crimes and violations against children. In addition, children's drawings have been used for therapeutic purposes to treat children who suffer from war trauma and other psychological problems a result of their exposure to war and violence. Drawings reflect the multiple themes and issues created in different styles combining reality and fantasy.

References

[1] "Crisis in Syria-USA", (n.d.).Retrieved from Refugees/Syria-crisis, Retrieved from, https:// www.unicefusa.org/mission/emergencies/childrefugees/syria-crisis

[2]Dalton, Robert, "Gender and Genre: A Study of Children's War Drawing", (1991), Volume 10Issue 1 (1991). P. 62. Retrieved from http://ir. Uiowa. edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1210&context=mz wp.

[3] De Jager, Melodie., "What children's drawings tell us About their brain development", (2012), Retrieved from https://www.mindmoves.co.za

52

/articles/article/What_childrens_drawings_tell_us_ about their _brain_developmentDrMelodie DeJager.pdf

[4] Emiroglu, Sema, What did your five year old draw at School today? This is the drawing of a Syrian child", (n.d), Retrieved from https:// twi tter.com/Emiroglu_Sema/status/421465677153579 008/photo/1

[5] Fletcher, **Martin** "Art brings solace to the children of war in Syria", Retrieved from http://www.thetimes.co.uk/tto/news/world/middlee ast/article3656511.ece

[6] *Griebeler, Monika ("*Syria's Civil War", Retrieved fromhttps://en.qantara.de/content/syrias-civil-war-the-emotional-scars-of-the-refugee-children

[7] Hallett, Vicky, "Syrian Refugee Kids Were Told To Draw Whatever They Wanted" (2016) http://www.npr.org/sections/goatsandsoda/2016/03 /17/470809097/syrian-refugee-kids-were-told-todraw-whatever-they-wanted

[8] Hunter, Isabel, "Syrian" (2016) Retrieved from http://www.dailymail.co.uk/news/article-3499711 /My-journey-hell-Eight-year-old-migrant-girl-smarker-pen-drawings-cheap-spiral-notepad-tellharrowing-escape-ISIS-treacherous-seas Europe .html

[9] Miles, Carolyn, "Here's how Syrian children draw their lives", Retrieved from http://www.pri. org/stories/2016-03-16/heres-how-syrian-childrendraw-their-lives

[10] Nasser, Tatiana "Drawings by Syrian Refugee Children Reveal What Is Going on Inside Their Heads", (2013, Retrieved from http://www. huffingtonpost.co.uk/tatiana-nasser/syrian-refugeechildren_b_4358315.html

[11] New art exhibition", (n.d.).http:// www. yorkmix.com/news/this-might-be purple mans-lastweekend-on-stonegate-catch-him-while-you-can/

[12] Rosney, Daniel, "Syrian refugee children draw their life caught up in war", Retrieved from: http://www.bbc.co.uk/newsbeat/article/35351273/f rom-syria-with-love-refugee-children-draw-theirlife-in-war

[13] "Syrian Children under Siege", (n.d.). Retrieved from www.dailymail.co.uk/.../My-journeyhell-Eight-year-old-migran [14] "Syria's Civil War: The Emotional Scars of the Refugee Children", (n.d.), Retrieved from https://en.qantara.de/content/syrias-civil-war-theemotional-scars-of-the-refugee-children

53

[15] Willats, John, "*Making Sense of Children's Drawings*", (2005) p.2, retrieved from, https://books.google.es/books?isbn=1135624984

[16] "Exciting Snapshot of a Syrian immigrant boat about to sink", Retrieved from, http://www. bbc.com/arabic/multimedia/2016/07/160712_syriar efugees

The International Legal Framework on the Rights of Children

Eugena Bisha

PhD candidate, European University of Tirana Albania, <u>eugenabisha@yahoo.com</u>

Abstract: Issues that affect children, have always been in the center of the attention all around the world. Protecting children's rights constitutes one of the most important directions of the social politics in the Republic of Albania. Children in member states of the European Council, have the right of a range of human rights guaranteed from the European Convention of Human Rights, United Nations Convention on the Rights of Children (UNCRC) and any other state institutions dealing with human rights. There are some legal instruments in the International Law that guarantee the rights of the children.

Introduction

Albania ratified UNCRC in 1992 as one of the most important instruments of the International Law. According to article 1 of the Convention of the United Nations on children's rights, "...a child is a human being under 18 years old". Likewise, the Family Code in compliance with the international legislation, defines the term child to every person who is under 18. Based on point (d) of article 3 of the law "Protecting the rights of the children", "A child is every person born alive, up to the age of 18. In case the age of the person is not determined, but there are reasons that imply the idea that the person is a child, then this person is considered a child based on this law until his/her age is determined."

There are some legal instruments in the International Law that guarantee the rights of the children. Various international instruments that have to do with children's rights, ratified from the Albanian state, emphasize the fact that children conditioned from elements like: age, absence of physical and intellectual maturity, have the need for special protection and attention from family and state institutions. [1] (Shegani A. 202:41) As a result of legal reforms, the legal framework on the rights of the children in Albania has undergone continuous changes, aiming at getting close to the European standards. In order to have an adequate legal process that establishes and finalizes an adoption, all the rights of the child protected from the national and international law must be respected. Maybe it is difficult to find "the perfect family" for a child, but through adoption, attempts are made to find the appropriate family for the child where there is no violation of his/her rights guaranteed by law. In most of the international conventions in relation to the rights and

well-being of the child, it is stated that in order to protect the rights of the children, being orphans, abandoned or without a proper family, the best solution is adoption.

1. International legal instruments

In the preface of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Children, it is underlined the importance of the family in growing up, educating and the welfare of the children. Through its various tools, the United Nations Organization has tried to protect as well as raise awareness of the welfare of the children in societies. [2] The United Nations Convention on the Rights of Children (UNCRC) [3] is an international treaty on human rights that guarantees to all the children and youngsters up to 17 years old a package of rights [4] including protection, education, health care, family environment, development of his/her talents and abilities, love and happiness. It is the convention with the biggest number of ratifications in history.

The convention guarantees these basic principles:

1. The survival and development of the child (aricle 6)- primary importance is given to health care. This principle aims at the education of the child, discovering the talents and abilities that he/ she might have and engaging him/her in cultural and artistic centers.

2. The protection of the child (article 2)- protection from family environments or other environments that are not suitable for the child; protection from psychological and physical violence.

3. The highest interest of the child (article3)

4. The engagement of the child (article 12)mainly with decisions that are related to the child *Children and Adoption according to the Convention of the United Nations on the Rights of the Children.*

According to this convention, adoption aims at offering the child a family, not only for the sake of having a family but where he can also feel as it was his/her biological family. A child who is temporarily or permanently deprived from a family environment or it is in his/her interest not to be part of such an environment, he/she has the right of protection and special assistance from the state. (UN Convention on the Rights of Children, article 20.1) Adoption is a personalized project for the life of a child and must be determined based on the study of the psychological, social, emotional, health, ethno-cultural and legal conditions and if it possible the condition of the biological family as well.

As it is noticed from its principals, this convention emphasizes the importance of the care and the special assistance that a child needs. All the other state institutions and international elements as well as their inner legislations that have signed the convention, are all in accordance to these rights. It is important for the convention the fact that the child should feel involved in decisions that adults take for him/her. By being involved and free to express their opinions in the process of decisionmaking, children tend to easily accept the decisions made from the adults in their interests. If plans are made for the future of the child, he/she may feel less frightened if he/she understands what is happening and has been listening since the start. [4] The closer to the maturity age the child is, the more attention must be paid to have him/her included in the procedures that are related with his/her future. Children can be supplied with a simple information but always true, and they must be told that taking into account their opinions or decisions depends on the issue at hand. For instance, regarding adoption, states are free to define in their legislation the age when a child should he asked to give his/her opinion or preference of the adoptive family. In case of adoption, the child must be supplied with the correct information about the prospective adoptive parents, even though this information should be given in a simple form to adjust his age and capacity to un-

derstand the information provided. The convention foresees the compilation of National Strategies for the protection of children from the Member States. The International Convention on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), among others guarantees children's rights and stops discrimination based on race, gender, color, national origin or language. [5] The rights of this convention in relation to children include: special protection for the family, mothers and children, the rights for an adequate standard of living, including food, clothes and shelter, as well as the rights to get educated. The states that ratified the convention give periodic reports on the implementation of the rights guaranteed in the convention. The periodic reports are obligatory for every state in relation to all the United Nations Conventions that have to do with human rights. A committee is set up for each treaty, which monitors the implementtation of the treaty in each member state. The committees can accept individual complains from individuals under the states' jurisdiction that have signed the respective protocol or have given the required declarations. [6] The Council of Europe protects and promotes human rights, which include the rights of children. [7] This council promotes the Social European Card as the main group of the minimal standards that protects children and family rights. [8] The European Social Card guarantees the legal, social and economic protecttion of the children. Meanwhile the 1967 Convention on children adoption is the main instrument of the Council of Europe in the adoption field, a new document "Recommendations of the Parliamentary Assembly 1443 on local adoption" to respect the rights of the children, derived from the 5th meeting of the Assembly on 26 January 2000. In this document, it is cited: "...that is why the Assembly calls the Committee of the Ministers of the European Council, to give a clear indication of its political will to ensure that the children rights are respected, by inviting immediately the member states to:

55

1. ratify The Hague Convention on adoption, in case they haven't done it yet, and revise its principles and rules, even for the states that have not ratified it;

2. to run informative campaigns in order to give the couples and professionals that have to do with cross-city adoption a full understanding of the obligations and implications that The Hague Convention imposes;

3. to develop a bilateral and multilateral collaboration essential for the successful implementation of the convention;

4. to help those countries, form which foreign families come, to develop their adoption laws and to train the staff in the public institutions, in the accredited agencies as well as professionals involved in adoption;

5. to make sure that the future parents are acceptable and appropriate to adopt;

6. to make sure that in situations like a divorce of the adoptive parents, abandonment of the adopted child or difficulties in the adopting procedures, the essential rights of children must be respected, such as the right of the name and nationality;

7. to make sure that the adopted child learns about his/her biological parents not later than his maturity age and to eliminate from their legislation any provision that contradicts it;

Through national and international legal adaptations, it is aimed at preventing children trafficcking under the "adoption signature". We can mention here the Convention of the UN on the rights of children; the Declaration of the UN on basic legal and social principles in relation to the protection and well-being of juveniles by paying attention to the family care and national and international adoption; The Hague Convention for the children protection and collaboration in the field of international adoption. The Constitution of Albania guarantees the protection of children rights in several articles from discrimination, and promotes education, identity, protection from violence etc. [9] Article 5 of the Family Code of the Republic of Albania foresees as one of the most important principles the importance of the growing up of a child in a healthy family environment, a happy atmosphere, love and understanding.

The Law for the Protection of the Rights of the Children (dt.04.11.2010) is a new law that is added to the wide range of the Albanian legislation on the protection of the children's rights and aims at raising the level of the implementation of the Convention on Children Rights. [10] The objective of this law is the determination of the rights and protection that a child gains, the guarantee that the mechanism responsible for the effective protection of the rights give, as well as the adequate care towards the children. (article 1) The ratification of this law marks a very important achievement in protecting the rights of the children through the institutional and legal framework in accordance to the Constitution of the Republic of Albania and the Convention of the Children Rights. The law determines the tools, measures and institutional mechanisms that guarantee the protection of these rights.

56

The Albanian legislation foresees two kinds of mechanisms for the protection of children rights:

a) Mechanisms of central level

-The National Council on the Protection of the Rights of Children

-The minister who directs issues in relation to the protection of children's rights

-The State Agency for the Protection of the Rights of Children

b) Mechanisms of local level

-The sector for the protection of the rights of children in the District Council

-The sector for the protection of children in the City Hall

Albania has ratified several acts and international conventions in relation to the protection of the children's rights which have brought improvements in the context of the protection of the rights of children by adopting them according to the European standards.

References

[1] A. Shegani, " Dhuna ndaj femijeve ne kontekstin familjar", 2012, pp. 41

[2] International Social Service, Italian secsion, "E drejta e fëmijës për t'u rritur në një familje, Udhëzues për ndërhyrjen në birësimin kombëtar e ndërkombëtar dhe në kujdestarinë familjare", pp. 6

[3] Social International Service, Italian section, The right of the child to grow up in a family, Guidance to intervene in international and national adoption and family care, pp.6 [4] The children Act 1989 guidance and regulations, volume 2: care planning, placement and case review, July 2015, pp. 14

[5] Implementing Human Rights in Practice, Training Manual on International Human Rights, SLYNN Foundation, London, UK, January 2016, pp.18

[6] Implementing Human Rights in Practice, Training Manual on International Human Rights, SLY NN Foundation, London, UK, January 2016, pg. 20

[7] Council of Europe Strategy for the rights of the child 2016-2021, pg.5

[8] Parliamentary Assembly Resolution 1995 (2014) "Ending child poverty in Europe"

[9] A. Hazizaj, "Mekanizmi i ankesave per mbro jtjen e adolenshenteve LGBT nga dhuna dhe diskriminimi ne sistemin arsimor parauniversitar ne Shqiperi", International Conference "Violence against children", Tirana, 21.11.2012, pp.32

[10] A. Hazizaj, "Mekanizmi i ankesave per mbro jtjen e adolenshenteve LGBT nga dhuna dhe diskriminimi ne sistemin arsimor parauniversitar ne Shqiperi", International Conference "Violence against children", Tirana, 21.11.2012, pp.33

[11] UNICEF, Action plan for children, 2012-2015, pp.4

Do Latinos and African Americans Have a Different View of Criminal Offenders than Anglo Students?

William De Soto, Hassan Tajalli

Texas State University Texas State University wd02@txstate.edu tajalli@txstate.edu

Abstract: Do Latinos and African-American college students in the U.S. believe that criminal offenders should be punished more harshly than Anglo students? Race and ethnicity have often been thought be of significant in the criminal justice system. One reason for this is that survey evidence suggests that ethnic minority members are more skeptical that members of their communities will be treated fairly. There is substantial historical and contemporary evidence to substantiate this suspicion. Given this reality, it would seem logical to expect ethnic minorities to be less punitive than other students. The author surveys students in Texas and Wisconsin and found that, contrary to this expectation, there do not appear to be significant differences. That is, ethnic minorities in our sample are not more punitive toward criminal offenders than are other students.

Introduction

The United States has the world's highest incarceration rate. Racial prejudice is often thought to play some part in the country's punitive criminal justice system. Many writers have examined the legacy of racism for understanding current criminal justice practices. The Black Lives Matter movement has drawn national attention to the frequency with which ethnic minority citizens appear to be treated unfairly by the criminal justice system. In a series of highly visible tragedies, many African American men have been killed at the hands of law enforcement. The question of bias has gotten substantial attention in the media and from scholars. This paper investigates the less frequently asked question of how ethnic minority views of criminal offenders may differ from Anglo American opinion. Specifically, we pose the question of whether ethnic minorities hold less punitive views toward criminal offenders than their Anglo counterparts.

1. Literature Review

In 1903, W.E.B. Du Bois wrote that "the problem of the 20th century is the problem of the color line." A number of observers have argued that this remains true for the 21st century U.S. criminal justice system. Acharya et al. [1] find that the larger the number of slaves in a county in 1860, the greater the probability a white Southerner today will identify as a Republican and express attitudes of racial resentment. Many observers have written about the continuing relevance of racial and ethnic identity in the criminal justice system. Carol Anderson [2] has made a recent contribution to this line of argument. She examines sentencing for drug offenses and evidence for racial bias in a variety of circumstances, including jury selection and arrests. While blacks are 13% of the national population, they comprise 45% of those incarcerated. Anderson is impressed by the tenacity of white resistance to ensuring equal justice for ethnic minorities. African Americans have overcome slavery, Jim Crow, and continued prejudice. Robert Perkinson's Texas Tough: The Rise of America's Prison Empire also devotes attention to the persistence of racism in the Texas criminal justice system from the 19th century through the 21st century. Popular media have also examined the significance of race in the U.S. Α recent Pew Research Center report finds profound differences across a range of social issues. Blacks, far more than whites, say black people are treated unfairly across different realms of life, from dealing with the police to applying for a loan or mortgage. For examples, 84% of blacks and 50% of whites believe that blacks are treated less fairly than whites in their dealing with the police. Roughly 65% of blacks but only 40% of whites support the Blacks Lives Matter movement. On issue after issue, it appears that a chasm separates black and white perceptions of the status of African-Americans in the United States.

Scholarly investigations have attempted to shed light on the impact of race and ethnicity on various aspects of the criminal justice system. Hurwitz and Peffley [3] find that African Americans believe that the criminal justice system is fundamentally unfair while white Americans do not. In their study, 68% of African Americans and 35% of white Americans disagreed with the following statements: "The justice system in this country treats people fairly and equally" and "The courts in your area can be trusted to give everyone a fair trial." These discrepant perceptions of fairness shape responses to questions about racial profiling and police brutality. They regret that whites fail to appreciate what is painfully obvious to African Americans: that the races are treated differently in the criminal justice system. Similarly, the sociologists Darrell Steffensmeier and Stephen Demuth [4] examine federal court data collected by the U.S. Sentencing Commission between 1993 and 1996 and find that Hispanic defendants are most at risk of receiving disproportionately harsh penalties on drug offenses. They report that allowing judicial and prosecutorial discretion creates the risk of unfair sentencing practices. As they write (705), the findings document "the continuing significance of race in American society."

Gallagher [5] analyzed records of 376 drug court participants in urban Texas and found that 65% of White participants graduated compared with 52% of Hispanics and only 45% of African Americans. Logistic regression results indicated that one of the variables most predictive of graduation was being White. White participants were more than 4 times more likely to graduate than their Hispanic and African American counterparts. Gallagher and Nordberg [6] Blacks were more critical of the treatment they received in this qualitative study. Worrall [7] that non-Whites than whites are less likely to believe that police are fair. Interestingly, Hurwitz et al. [8] found that blacks and Latinos appear to believe that they share an experience of deprivation and discrimination in the criminal justice system.

Some studies, however, have failed to detect significant differences between how whites and ethnic minorities fare in the criminal justice system. Freiburger and Hilsinki [9] find no racial difference in decisions to send offenders to jail or prison. Harrington and Spohn [10] found that white offenders were more likely to receive prison than black offenders.

On balance, however, research suggests that ethnic minorities feel that the police, prosecutorial and corrections system are biased against them. We might ask whether this sentiment affects how harshly respondents would punish criminal offenders. Some respondents would favor a harsh sentence for offenders while others would favor an approach favoring rehabilitation. Because most offenders will sooner or later return to life outside the walls of their confinement, it might be logical to develop programs like drug counseling and job training to help their return be successful. Others may be convinced that offenders have brought the heavy hand of justice down upon themselves through their own misdeeds.

2. Contribution of Current Study

This paper seeks to make a contribution to the literature by examining possible differences between ethnic minorities and white college students in terms of how they would publish criminal offenders. As the literature review has established, many scholars have found that members of different ethnic groups have different experiences with the criminal justice system. Ethnic minority members have reason to believe that the criminal justice system treats members of their communities unfairly. This raises the question of how this perception affects their willingness to punish criminal offenders harshly. This paper introduces an original data set that attempts to address this question. Its intention is to stimulate additional discussion about the effect of ethnic identity on the punitive sentiments of college students. Given the above discussion, we conjecture that Latinos and African American students will be less inclined than their Anglo classmates to favor more punitive approaches to criminal offenders.

3. Research Method

Data for this study were collected through selfadministered surveys given to students of four universities: two in Texas and two in Wisconsin. The two Texas universities are Sam Houston State University and Texas State University at San Marcos. The University of Wisconsin campuses in Madison and Whitewater are the other two universities. It should be noted that Wisconsin universities generally do not have separate criminal justice programs. More likely, a college student in Wisconsin may major in sociology while pursuing a concentration in criminal justice. Therefore, we visited classes on criminal justice topics in the sociology departments of the Wisconsin universities. By contrast, criminal justice programs have a prominent place in Texas higher education. In fact, the College of Criminal Justice at Sam Houston State University in Huntsville has the largest undergraduate program in the USA. In the spring semester of 2011, 2,403 undergraduates and74 doctoral candidates were studying at Sam Houston State. As a result, a significantly larger portion of our sample is drawn from Texas. This paper includes

students in a state that is renowned for its punitive criminal justice system with a state that is more typical of other states.

Prior to administering the surveys, the authors applied for and obtained an Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval. As indicated in the IRB proposal, the participants were not asked to identify themselves on the surveys; the researchers verbally and in writing assured the subjects of anonymity. This resulted in a convenience sample for this study. We used a systemic approach to collect our data. Data collection was done from various areas of each university. At each of the four universities, we collected data at various times during the day from students in a variety of disciplines. This was necessary to ensure that students of different majors as well as daytime and nighttime students are fairly represented in our data. Most of the data were collected during formal class periods while some were collected in the libraries or open areas in the universities. When administering the surveys, students were asked if they had already taken the survey and, if they had, not to take it again (Table 1 depicts the demographic distribution of the samples).

The methodologies of studies that measure punishment and/or rehabilitation vary. One of the main shortcomings of most studies in this area relates to the measurement of these variables. Often these variables are considered as an either/or dichotomy. Relatively few studies have considered punitiveness and rehabilitation as two ends of one spectrum. We concur with Langworthy and Whitehead [11] that attitudes toward punitiveness and rehabilitation are inversely related. In other words, we believe that an individual's attitude toward the treatment of criminal offenders is a matter of degree on a continuum of punitiveness to support for rehabilitation. The dependent variable of this study, therefore, is measured on an 11-point Likert scale. One represents total belief in rehabilitation of offenders and 11 representing total belief that the purpose of imprisonment should be punitive.

Another measurement problem relates to the inconsistency in operational definitions of Punitiveness. As a result there is a wide incon-sis-tency within the literature about public attitudes toward criminal punishment. A large number of studies, for example, have focused on attitudes toward the death penalty [12]. Other studies have measured punitive attitudes toward specific types of offenders such as sexual offenders, white collar offenders, or juveniles[13]. Yet the dependent variable for a number of researchers is an aggregate measure of punitiveness [15]. These researchers have used a single index to summarize support toward a number of crime-related statements.

We differ with the arguments made in defense of measuring punitiveness with one survey question or a single index. The authors of this research are convinced that individuals assign different degrees of punishment to different types of crimes. An individual may be less punitive for certain crimes (e.g. theft) while favoring very harsh treatment for other crimes (e.g. child molestation). Indexing of punitiveness or solely focusing on one single criminal act obfuscates attitudinal variations toward criminal acts. To account for these variations, a number of researchers have relied on various crime scenarios in order to measure their dependent variables [16]. Rather than looking at criminal offenses as a whole, this research examines attitudes of students toward specific common crimes. As Borg [17] writes, "Vignette analysis in which respondents are read specific crime scenarios and then asked to assess punishment might provide a more valid and reliable measurement of the concept of punitiveness." We have used six scenarios representing different types of common crimes as identified by McCorkle [18]. Table 2 provides a description of these scenarios. The common crimes addressed by these scenarios are robbery, rape, molestation, burglary, drug sale, and drug possession. Participating students in our study were asked to read each of the six crime scenarios and indicate, on a scale of 1-11, how "rehabilitative" or "punitive" the treatment of the criminal offender should be. Measurements of attitudes toward these crime scenarios form our six dependent variables for this study.

Table 3 presents the regression analyses that address the question. Our principal independent Variable, ethnicity, turns out to not be significant. The three main ethnic groups- Latinos, African Americans, and Anglos- do not differ from each other in terms of how they would punish a variety of criminal offenders. We contrasted ethnicity with alternative control variables like income and the population of the size of the community they grew up in. Some of these turned out to be significant. But the variable of theoretical interest here failed to explain variation in our dependent variable. This result thus fails to substantiate our expectation that the ethnic minority students in our sample would hold less punitive views toward criminal offenders.

Conclusion

This paper comes to the surprising conclusion that the ethnic minority students in our sample do not view criminal offenders differently from their Anglo classmates. Because much of the literature emphasizes the differences in how various ethnic groups are treated in the criminal justice system, this result requires some explanation. The Black Lives Matter movement has drawn extraordinary attention to the apparently routine mistreatment African Americans suffer at the hands of law enforcement. There has been heavy media attention of events like the shooting in Charleston of Walter Scott, an African American man who was unarmed and running from the police. One might infer that events like this increase ethnic minorities' mistrust of the criminal justice system. But for reasons that remain unclear this appears to not be true in our sample.

It may be that students come from more privileged backgrounds and are less likely than other Latinos and African Americans to have been treated unfairly in the criminal justice system. The data in this paper make it impossible to assess this argument. Unfortunately, more data collection and analysis will be required before we can address this question confidently.

References

[1] Archaya, Avidit, Matthew Blackwell, and Maya Sen. "The Political Legacy of American Slavery." 2016. *Journal of Politics*. 78 (3): 621-641.

[2] Anderson, Carol. 2016. *White Rage: The Unspoken Truth of Our Racial Divide*. New York: Bloomsbury.

[3] Hurwitz, Jon, Mark Peffley, and Jeffrey Mondak. 2015. "Linked Fate and Outgroup Perceptions: Blacks, Latinos, and the U.S. Criminal Justice System. *Political Research Quarterly.* 68 (3): 505-520.

[4] Steffensmeier, Darrell, and Stephen Demuth. 2000. "Ethnicity and Sentencing Outcomes in U.S. Federal Courts: Who is Punished More Harshly." *American Sociological Review*. 65: 705-729.

[5] Gallagher, J. R. (2013). Drug court graduation rates: Implications for policy advocacy and future research. *Alcoholism Treatment Quarterly*, 31, 241–253.

[6] Gallagher, John R., and Anne Nordberg. 2016. "Comparing and contrasting White and African-American participants' lived experiences in drug courts." *Journal of Ethnicity in Criminal Justice*. 14 (2): 100-119.

[7] Worrall, J. (1999). Public perceptions of police efficacy and image: The "fuzziness" of support for the police. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, *24*, 47–66.

[8] Hurwitz, Jon, Mark Peffley, and Jeffrey Mondak. 2015. "Linked Fate and Outgroup Perceptions: Blacks, Latinos, and the U.S. Criminal Justice System. *Political Research Quarterly*. 68 (3): 505-520.

[9] Freiburger, T. L., & Hilinski, C. M. (2013). An examination of the interactions of race and gender on sentencing decisions using a trichotomous dependent variable. *Crime & Delinquency*, 59, 59–86.

[10] Harrington, M. P., & Spohn, C. (2007). Defining sentence type: Further evidence against use of the total incarceration variable. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 44, 36–63.

[11] Langworthy, R. H., and J. T. Whitehead. 1986. Liberalism and fear as explanations of punitiveness. *Criminology* 24: 575-591.

[12] Bohm, R. M., and R. E. Vogel. 1991. Educational experiences and death penalty opin- ions: Stimuli that produce changes

[13] Tsoudis, O. 2000. Does majoring in criminal justice affect perceptions of criminal justice? *Journal of Criminal Justice Education* 11: 225-236.

[14] Mackey, D. A., and K. E. Courtright. 2000. Assessing punitiveness among college stud ents: A comparison of criminal justice majors with other majors. The Justice Professional 12: 423-441.

[15] McCorkle, R. C. 1993. Punish and rehabilitate? Public attitudes toward six common crimes. *Crime & Delinquency* 39: 240-252.

[16] Turner, M. G., T. F. Cullen, J. L. Sundt, and B.K. Applegate. 1997. Public tolerance for community-based sanctions. *The Prison Journal* 77: 6-26.

[17] Borg, M. J. 1997. The southern subculture of punitiveness? Regional variation in support for capital punishment. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency* 34 (1): 25-46.

[18] McCorkle, R. C. 1993. Punish and rehabilitate? Public attitudes toward six common crimes. *Crime & Delinquency* 39: 240-252.

Table 1. Ethnic Background of Respondents

Race	% of Total	Texas	Wisconsin
Black	10	14	05
Hispanic	17	23	03
White	69	58	87
Other	05	05	05

Table 2. Crime scenarios of the dependent variables

Robbery: A man approaches a couple in a parking lot of a casino and demands their cash. They refuse, so he pulls a knife, stabbing and wounding them both. He then takes their money and runs away. Later he is arrested and brought to trial

Rape: A woman in a bar accepts a ride home from a man who bought her a drink. Instead of taking her home, he pulls into a deserted area and sexually assaults her. The woman later identifies the man in a police line-up

Molestation: A male volunteer in a local boy's group is convicted of molesting several boys during a weekend camping trip

Burglary: A quiet neighborhood is struck by a rash of daytime burglaries in which thousands of dollars' worth of valuable properties are stolen. Police investigations later lead to the arrest of a man who lived in the area

Drug Sale: As a result of a sting operation, a man is convicted of selling cocaine to an undercover police officer

Drug Possession: During a routine traffic stop, a patrolman spots a small vial of cocaine in the back seat of the driver's car

Source: McCorkle (1993, p. 244).

Table 3: Regression results

	Robbery	Rape	Molestation	Burglary	Drug Sale	Drug Possession
CJ Major	.071	.136	.093	.188	362	310
Level of Conservatism	.645**	.345**	.518**	.764**	1.111**	1.171**
Gender (Male=1)	080	143	075	046	063	052
Crime shows watched	.000	.003	003	017	.003	.007
Black	240	.011	.052	020	.335	.172
Hispanic	005	032	103	299	.312	.182
Rural	.035	001	.103	135	.014	035
Urban	.154	.114	.340	125	169	070
Level of worry	.257**	.259**	.272**	.084	.207*	013
Victimization	.007	.012	.019	.022	013	015
Income	000	.000	.000	000	000	.000
Texas/Wisconsin(tx=1)	.321*	.712**	.772**	040	065	.185
R-square	.033	.022	.031	.023	.039	.038
F	4.507**	4.002**	5.283**	4.155**	6.360**	6.301**
Constant	5.502**	6.080**	5.477**	5.236**	2.446**	1.639**

The contemporary state of culture and the new media of control

Bahar Ayaz Gazi University, Turkey bharayaz@gmail.com

Himmet Hülür Abant İzzet Baysal University, Turkey himmethulur@gmail.com

Abstract: With the development of new communication technologies, people started using new media platforms as a tool to make their voices heard. In spite of the emancipatory spirit of new media platforms, still they can be considered as industries controlling contemporary culture. Therefore, this study deals with the new media with reference to certain key concepts of culture industry and mass culture. Within this context, first Frankfurt School and Cultural Studies perspectives towards culture, then the relationship between new media and culture are considered. Specifically, one- dimensionality in the new media environment can be seen in the fact that people have similar modes of thought and action as clients and consumers on new media platforms like YouTube, Instagram and Pinterest. Production and consumption of the culture are much in the same way foreseen by the critical theorists. Thus, commodification, standardization and unequal access to technology are still the basic traits of culture.

Introduction

Since the beginning of the digital era, people are using digital technologies and platforms as a tool to make their voices heard. Ordinary citizens are commenting on their blogs and social media platforms. Minorities and unsupported ideas can find a space in these platforms. Especially, people are organizing through these platforms for grassroot movements. Arab Spring, Occupy Wall Street and the Gezi protests are examples of this. Tools like Facebook and Twitter mobilizes people to act and speak. Moreover, new technologies turned ordinary citizens to journalists, as they can witness important incidents and share it with the world. Citizen journalists played important roles in abovementioned movements.

Although it seems like digitalization had created a more emancipated society, these new environments should be analyzed critically. In this study, one of the most important concept of the Frankfurt School, 'culture industry' is evaluated by considering the innovations of the digital era. Do new media create a new environment for emancipation and freedom of speech, or does it create even more dependent individuals, who are deceived by their pro-consumer status? It seems like people are unaware that they are still consumers and they are easily adapting to the dominant culture. Apart from this, there is an economic and social inequality concerning using new technologies. Moreover, people who can use those technologies are contributing to the capitalist system. In today's world, industries still hold the power. People do not spend much money, but they waist a lot of time and they derive a profit for media industry. It is obvious that new media environment hinders people to think and decide, while re-creating the status-quo. In this context, firstly, the concept of culture industry is discussed. Then there is a discussion about the Cultural Studies perspective and its differences from the Frankfurt School theorists. Their rejection to the culture industry concept is questioned. Then, the new media environment is understood in terms of its standardization, commodification and massifica-tion roles. Hidden advertisement, targeted adver-tisement and such notions of the new media platforms are taken into consideration. Advertise-ment is also an important aspect of the culture industry, which is prominent in new media. While we are sharing an image of our miss-written name on our coffee cup, we are gaining profit to a com-pany. So is this user's creativity or a hidden adver-tisement? In this study, these appreciations are uti-lized by considering the works of Frankfurt School theorists.

Culture Industry: From Frankfurt School to Cultural Studies

Since the 'Culture Industry' was mentioned by Max Horkheimer and Theodor Adorno in the 'Dialectic of Enlightenment' in 1944, its an important term defining the standardization of cultural products for mass consumption and the term is closely associated with maintaining the current status quo. The term 'Culture Industry' derived from both the Marxist theory and the Freudian theory, while the first of these argues that dominant classes control production and society, latter suggest that drives are responsible for behavior. Adorno and Horkheimer's Culture Industry criticism is mainly a neo-Marxist view because culture industries promotes capitalism through its ideology. Adorno and Horkheimer mainly criticizes culture industries control of culture and their commodification, standardization, and massification roles.

Frankfurt School theorists; Max Horkheimer, Theodor W. Adorno, Leo Löwenthal and Herbert Marcuse discussed culture industries in their works. They analyzed popular music, popular literature, magazines, radio and they were the first to analyze and criticize mass-mediated culture and communications within critical social theory [1]. According to the text, which declares the failure of the enlightenment, cultural products are effective tools for capitalist economy, which are designed just to make profit and provide the continuance of the system.

Cultural products promotes a false consciousness and when these products become available to more people, these cultural products create a way of life. In addition, this situation creates one-dimensional thought and behavior. Ideas, aspirations and objecttives are all defined by the existing system [2]. In the culture industry, individuals are illusions because of the standardization of the product and they are tolerated because of their accurate harmony with the majority [3]. In fact, they claim that "culture now impresses the same stamp on everything" [4]. Culture industries prevents thought while offering right of choice from standardized options. Therefore, it is obviously against the individuality and authenticity of people. People can only become distinct in a pre- set environment.

According to Adorno and Horkheimer, the consumer becomes the ideology of the pleasure industry. Everybody has to seen Oscar awarded movie Mrs. Miniver, subscribe to Life and Time. Moreover, everything has a value if it can be exchanged [5]. Even art is valuable if it is exchangeable. Art does not represent a position against the current statusquo; rather it becomes the vendible product to continue the current system. So art and other cultural products do not increase creativity, rather they stifle genuine creativity from flourishin Recently, there is a shift from "culture industry" to "cultural industries". We think it is beneficial to discuss these changes. So here, the changing definitions and meanings of culture industry are discussed. The shift from "culture industry" to "cultural industries" has been followed by emergence of the concept of "creative industries," which was led by a policy shift from cultural to creative industries [7]. Also terms like 'leisure industries' and 'entertainment industries' are substituted the term 'culture industry', as the borders between culture and leisure have begun to fray and the culture industries start being attracted and sucked in by the vicinity of other industries that are colonizing free time [8]. Main reason of these changes was the change in the modes of production. The culture industries today are equivalent to the machine tool factories for other factories in the Fordist era, with the difference that they are no longer heavy industry, but rather industries that are extraordinarily light and versatile. Moreover, the fabrication of the product does not end in the hands of the consumer because today the production is symbolic [9].

Frankfurt School's Culture Industry criticism had both influenced many latter theories and criticized by latter theories due to several reasons. Although, British Cultural Studies criticizes Frankfurt School as being exceedingly economic reductionist, two ecoles has many similarities concerning the relationship between culture, communication and society. However, as well, there are many differences between these two theories. Non-Frankfurt oriented cultural studies, especially its postmodern and popular-culturalist variants, rejects not only Marxist class reductionism for its arbitrary Eurocentrism but all political evaluations of culture [10]. While Frankfurt School theorists consider production important. Cultural Studies theorists attach more importance to meaning. Besides, Cultural Studies had an optimistic view, which believes in working classand emancipation of the individuals, which may emerge after resistances. Unlike Frankfurt School's high and low culture distinction, Cultural Studies evaluates culture as a whole.

In the last decades, Cultural Studies scholars felt sympathy towards postmodern theories. For this point of view; if world is shaped by discourses, then discourses can be deconstructed. Cultural Studies connection with postmodernism derived a wedge between Cultural Studies and Frankfurt School even more.

Maybe the most important difference of Cultural Studies is, their consideration of peoples agency, which is apparent in Stuart Hall's reception studies. This was a radical departure from Adorno and Horkheimer's theory, which emphasizes, people dominated by industries. Unlike Frankfurt School theorists, Cultural Studies theorists opened up a field where they can analyze reception and how people make use of popular culture.

According to Douglas Kellner, both the Frankfurt school and British cultural studies offer us resources to critically analyze and transform our current social situation [11]. For Kellner, Frankfurt School furnishes resources to analyze today's conjuncture because their model of the culture industries focuses on the articulations of capital, technology, culture, and everyday life that constitute the current sociocultural environment. The Frankfurt school also complements British cultural studies in providing a more intense focus on the articulations of capital and technology, and thus theorizing contemporary culture and society in the context of the current constellation of global capitalism [12].

Digital Capitalism: New Media Re- enforces Capitalism

It is a widespread belief that information technologies has transformed people from passive recipients to active participants. Social media is thought to contribute to freedom, contrary to the mass communication technologies that served for power and dominance. In this sense, people were to a great degree passive in relation to the old media as opposed to the new media that is thought to empower them. This is because these new technologies are considered as giving more opportunity for interacttion. Old mass media was a dominating media. Although there were some opportunities for audience feedback, this was very limited. Moreover, the media environment was ruled by the dominant powers. The ownership structure was ruling the content and its distribution at the social and at the global scale. However, after the emergence of new media technologies, unknown voices obtained an opportunity to make their voices heard through blogs and social media platforms.

Contrary to the common view, the empowering capacity attributed to new media technologies is very problematic because of the increasing capacity of cultural domination and reproduction of a global capitalism on the basis of these technologies. Moreover, in the realm of new media, a significant change has not occurred in terms of the structure of capitalist ownership. On the contrary, the advances in information technologies have consolidated the power of capitalist ownership. Today, the biggest new media platforms belongs to companies like Google which owns more than 150 companies itself, including, Android, Motorola Mobility, YouTube, DoubleClick and many more. Moreover, these media moguls are controlling distribution of the content.

Although Dan Schiller, developed the concept of 'digital capitalism' during the late 1990s, he claims that this term is appropriate to define the current situation [13]. According to Jameson, today capitalism is still determinant and it is even more powerful. In the late capitalist period, cultural pro-

ducts are sustaining capitalist order more than before. For Jameson, Andy Warhol's paintings reflects the commercialization of culture. These latecapitalist paintings are just for commercialization, they lack depth and meaning. From this point of view, Jameson's criticism towards culture is similar to the Frankfurt School philosophers views. They both consider culture as the product of sovereign power. In this sense, for Jameson the development of digital technologies underlies a new stage of capitalism that is called as "multinational capitalism: I want to suggest that our faulty representtations of some immense communicational and computer network are themselves but a distorted figuration of something even deeper, namely, the whole world system of a present-day multinational capitalism. The technology of contemporary society is therefore mesmerizing and fascinating not so much in its own right but because it seems to offer. some privileged representational shorthand for grasping a network of power and control even more difficult for our minds and imaginations to grasp the whole new decentered global network of the third stage of capital itself [14].

New media technologies also re-enforces the culture capitalism rather than giving way to a different mode of culture. In the digital age, culture continues to be a domain of control as foreseen by the Critical Theorists. A significant change from the time of Critical Theorists is the increase in the illusion of freedom, i. e. new information and communication technologies creates a more sense of freedom that seems more inevitable than the time of those thinkers. People start living in a more controlled World after the development of new media Technologies. People were monitored before, but now people are monitored voluntarily.

People are participating into voluntary panopticon in which surveillance is decentered. The consumer society also strengthens this surveillance [15]. The biggest new media platforms wants their users personal information before registration and this also a way of tracking. By tracking the websites that users surfed, advertisers use targeted- advertisements. In other words, new media technologies help businesses for more profit. Capitalism strengthens more with new media platforms.

New Media and Culture Industries

It may be useful to evaluate new media technologies and culture from Cultural Studies perspective, but still we may think of Frankfurt School theorists 'Culture Industry' while analyzing new media platforms and their uses. Many theorists suggest that



Frankfurt School's theories are useful for analyzing for today's digital World. One of the most known theorist for this is, Douglas Kellner. For him, the Frankfurt school is extremely useful for analyzing the current forms of culture and society because of their focus on the intersections between technology, the culture industries, and the economic situation in contemporary capitalist societies [16]. Kellner emphasizes that we need perspectives that articulate the intersection of technology, culture, and everyday life because the present age is being dramatically shaped by new media and computer technologies [17].

In spite of the emancipatory spirit of new media platforms, still they are industries which control culture. Global postmodern simply represents an expansion of global capitalism on the terrain of new media and technologies, and that the explosion of information and entertainment in media culture represents powerful new sources of capital realization and social control [18]. Main criticisms of Frankfurt School theorists were directed to standardization, massification and commodification roles of industries. Therefore, new media environment is evaluated within this frame, and digital labor, digital capitalism and surveillance are also discussed.

Do new media create an environment for uniqueness or the standardization continues in this new environment? This question should be answered by considering users participative and creative efforts. With the emergence of new media environment, people become active participants. This was the most important aspect of new Technologies. In addition, it is argued that new media environment created emancipated citizens, who actively make themselves heard. Nevertheless, this understanding of new media is highly criticized by critical theorists. Although those new Technologies give opportunity to people to participate, still this participation is a limited participation.

According to Van Dijck, it is a great leap to presume availability of digital networked that the technologies turns everyone into active participants. By looking at these numbers, it becomes readily apparent that 'participation' does not equal 'active contribution' to User Generated sites; participation is thus a relative term when over 80 percent of all users are in fact passive recipients of content [19]. Obviously, new media Technologies did not transformed today, when it comes to participation. Participants of the culture, even the resistances act in a fixed environment. Prominent Social Media tools such as YouTube, Facebook, Twitter, Instagram and many other tools restrict users with their own rules and own culture, which limits the freedom. To set an example, YouTube created a culture that totally serves for the consumption culture. V-logs, shopping hauls and make-up suggestion videos are shaping lifestyles and desires of the youth, while abnormalizing the ones who are staying out of it. You-Tube Empire is creating and distributing culture. People add similar videos to this platform and become popular when those videos appeal to majority. Therefore, we cannot talk much about differences; rather we can talk about standardized cultural products. Other platforms are not much different from the YouTube; they are all serving for the ruling class. When we have 140 characters to type, we think we have a voice but actually, we do not have a chance to decide, we are the actors of an old game who are playing it by the book. Users feel like there is diversity, but indeed all those new media platforms are all variations of the same thing. On Instagram, people share selfies, feet on the beach and food photos, just because other people share these. In addition, in the digital era, people become puppets of in the hands of big earners.

Of course, people can make their voices heard without those well-known social media sites. Within the new media environment, people do not need high budgets to own a media institution. By online news portals and citizen journalists, they can manage to stay in the field. Still highly comercialized companies are the dominant ones. Institutional producers of media content generally have greater financial resources than individuals and therefore they produce content with larger budgets. As a result, mass media is likely to dominate a sub-stantial portion of audience attention on the Internet [20]. The internet media owners such as Facebook, Google, Microsoft and Yahoo still create and distribute much of the content. Moreover, people do not watch unique contents; rather they watch most tracked videos. According to Fuchs and Sevignani, If William Morris and Herbert Marcuse would analyze the digital era, they would have been highly critical of the circumstance that mainly popular music organized by large corporations is viewed on YouTube, whereas creative expressions of ordinary people are much less viewed [21].

Many who make the shift from the study of old to new media emphasize the continuities between old and new media capitalism. For them, new media deepen and extend tendencies within earlier forms of capitalism by opening new possibilities to turn media and audiences into saleable commodities [22]. So the commodification role of industries continues in the digital era. When people publish things on his/her Facebook profile or another user's wall, they become a product of her/his online work, a usevalue that satisfies the social needs of a community [23]. This situation is not much different in other New Media Platforms. More importantly, ordinary people may be the producers, but the profit, or at least the potential for profit still belongs to corporations [24]. Besides, social media platforms or blogs may give voice to ordinary citizens but indeed, they serve more for the entertainment, which is an extension of labor under capitalism.

When we are discussing new media in terms of advertisement, nothing is better than before. Indeed the concern for advertisement has increased a lot. Change.org set an example for this. While people are signing petitions about violence against women, animal welfare and so on, indeed sponsors are earning money. Unfortunately, even a platform calling itself "the world's platform for change" has a hidden agenda. New Technologies had created new opportunities for advertisers. Many corporate social media organizations, such as Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, Weibo, Foursquare, LinkedIn or Pinterest, use targeted advertising in which all online activities on a specific platform and on connected platforms are stored, assessed and commodified. So users not only produce the just mentioned usevalues, but also a data commodity that stores data about these use-values and is sold to advertising clients, who in return get access to the users' profiles, where they present advertisements tailored to user interests. [25]. Targeted advertisement had also made surveillance a current issue. The total surveillance in targeted online advertising promises Facebook constantly monitors interests, usage behvior, browsing behavior, demographic data, usergenerated content, social relations, etc. For advertisement, individual, social, economic, political and cultural data of users are tracked by media organizations. The more time a user spends on Facebook, the more data is generated about him/her that is offered as a commodity to advertising clients [26].

In the digital era, people become the subject of advertisers, who seeks just to consume because a specific way of increasing profits is to transform paid into unpaid labor time [27]. Moreover, people earn nothing in return. Therefore, they are free laborers. Virtual worlds, massively multiplayer online games (MMOGs) and massively multiplayer online role-playing ames (MMORPGs) also constitute a basis for un- paid work. While many people believe that they are playing and having fun, they are actually producing content for nothing in return. This is totally a reflection of culture industry thesis that the blurring lines between work and play shows [28]. However, not all of the prosumers are happy with this unpaid labor and in some cases they have rebelled, especially against being asked to contribute to corporate sites without pay [29]. Instutions are maximizing their profits, while ordinary citizens believe that they are active and participating.

Of course free laborers are not the only ones who are fooled. Paid laborers are also fooled by playground offices that aim to normalize longer working hours. Workers believe that they are not working; instead, they are playing and acting freely. Still they are workers, who are working for biggest industries. Employees are encouraged to relax, play, party and socialize at the workplace. Management ideology wants to purge all elements of alienation and exploitation in the physical surroundings of labor and the workers' minds [30]. Consequently, labor time is extended to leisure time and leisure time becomes labor time [31]. As Google itself states (Google), despite the fact that their offices have differences. all of them have video games, pool tables, pianos and cafes. AOL, Dreamhost and Facebook have similar offices.

Although majority of virtual Worlds players do not earn in return of their productions, there is certain amount of players who can make money. Moreover, in this circumstances, the participants of virtual worlds - such as World of Warcraft, Second Life act as paid workers of the capitalist system. In the 'gold farming' game, most gold farmers work under sweatshop conditions, with the same long hours, poor conditions, and low pay, like sweatshop workers who produce real goods [32]. In the 'Second Life', players can earn Linden dollars (currency of Second Life) and Exchange it with real US dollars. For this, real industries are interested with the platform that becomes an important field for advertisers. Although the platform shelters ordinary people who can earn, they should work for exceedingly for this earning. They are setting their own working hours and they are acting as if they are employers, but actually, they are workers who are maximizing the profits of conglomerates. So, virtual worlds industries and real world industries resembles in many aspects.

Another significant point of Adorno and Horkheimers' culture industry theory is massification role of industries. Herbert Marcuse argued that technology in the contemporary era constitutes an entire "mode of organizing and changing social relationships. Technology is an instrument for control and domination and produces mass culture that habituated individuals to conform to the dominant patterns of thought and behavior [33]. This massifcation role of technology continues today. The control of technology belongs to the dominant class. Therefore, they use it to shape society according to their interests. Not every people have same opportunity to use new Technologies. Therefore, they have no chance to make their voices heard. When it comes to the access, situation is worse. Third World countries have limited access to online platforms, and low-income people living in these countries have no chance of using those Technologies. So today, discrimination between classes still exists. For example, only those who have to an Internet connection, can afford monthly subscription fees, and have free time can participate in MMOGs. This leads membership in MMOGs to reflect the unequal distribution of resources in the real World [34]. In other words, virtual worlds are not that much different from the real World.

Conclusion

While analysing society in terms of production and cul-ture, we can consider Frankfurt School's theories more. Today, cultural studies have an important impact but still cultural studies scholars can consider the political economy and production. Moreover, within this framework, a rotation towards Frankfurt School theories could be significant. On the contrary, political economy should not ignore the cultural studies perspectives that deal with text analysis and audience reception.

Throughout this study, Adorno and Horkheimer's 'culture industry' concept is discussed within the new media environment. Moreover, it is understood that the concept can still be used to define the current situation. Although, new media environment seems like creating space for emancipation and freedom of speech, it creates even more dependent individuals then before. People are deceived by their pro-consumer statuses and they are unaware that they are still consumers. They are easily adapting to the dominant culture, which have the power to control technology.

Participation is also limited and standardized. People have similar sharings on YouTube, Instagram and Pinterest. Similar sharings gets the attention and become popular. So digitalization creates people alike. In addition, a new culture is born within this environment who excludes the ones who are not inside. Therefore, production is standardized as before. Products are similar and sovereign powers still holds the power as they control and implement technology. Moreover, unequal access to technology maintains the statusquo.

Apart from these, commodification is an important

issue. People's sharings has a use value that satisfies society's needs. In addition, people work for nothing that leads to the exploitation of digital labor.

References

[1] Douglas Kellner, *Cultural Studies, Identity and Politics Between the Modern and the Postmodern*, Routledge, London, 2003. p.29.

[2] Herbert Marcuse, *One-Dimensional Man*,. Routledge, New York, 2007. p. 14.

[3] Theodor W.Adorno and Max Horkheimer, *Dialectic of Enlightenment*, Verso Classics, London, (1997). p.154.

[4] Theodor W.Adorno and Max Horkheimer, *Dialectic of Enlightenment*, Verso Classics, London, (1997). p.120.

[5] Theodor W.Adorno and Max Horkheimer, *Dialectic of Enlightenment*, Verso Classics, London, (1997). p.158.

[6] Lily Kong, "From cultural Industries to Creative Industries and Back? Towards Clarifying Theory and Rethinking Policy", *Inter-Asia Cultural Studies*, 2014, p. 594.

[7] Lily Kong, "From cultural Industries to Creative Industries and Back? Towards Clarifying Theory and Rethinking Policy", *Inter-Asia Cultural Studies*, 2014, p. 595.

[8] Raúl Rodríguez-Ferrándiz, "Culture Industries in a Postindustrial Age: Entertainment, Leisure, Creativity, Design", *Critical Studies in Media Communication*, 2014, p. 332.

[9] Raúl Rodríguez-Ferrándiz, "Culture Industries in a Postindustrial Age: Entertainment, Leisure, Creativity, Design", *Critical Studies in Media Communication*, 2014, p. 331.

[10] Ben Agger, Cultural Studies as Critical Theory. Routledge, New York, (2014). p. 10.

[11] Douglas Kellner,. "The Frankfurt School and British Cultural Studies: The Missed Articulation", Ed. by Jeffrey T, Nealon and Caren Irr, *Rethinking the Frankfurt School*, State University of New York Press, Albay, 2002. p. 31.

[12] Douglas Kellner,. "The Frankfurt School and British Cultural Studies: The Missed Articulation", Ed. by Jeffrey T, Nealon and Caren Irr, *Rethinking the Frankfurt School*, State University of New York Press, Albay, 2002. p.41.

[13] Dan Schiller, "Power Under Pressure: Digital Capitalism In Crisis", *International Journal of Communication* 5, 2011, p. 925.

[14] Fredric Jameson, *Postmodernism or, the Cultural Logic of Late Capitalism*, Duke University Press, Durham and London, 1991. p. 37-38.

[15] Lee Humphreys,. Who's watching whom? A study of interactive technology and surveillance. *Journal of Communication*, 2011, 61.4: 575-595.

[16] Douglas Kellner,. "The Frankfurt School and British Cultural Studies: The Missed Articulation", Ed. by Jeffrey T, Nealon and Caren Irr, *Rethinking the Frankfurt School*, State University of New York Press, Albay, 2002. p. 31.

[17] Douglas Kellner,. "The Frankfurt School and British Cultural Studies: The Missed Articulation", Ed. by Jeffrey T, Nealon and Caren Irr, *Rethinking the Frankfurt School*, State University of New York Press, Albay, 2002. p. 31.

[18] Douglas Kellner,. "The Frankfurt School and British Cultural Studies: The Missed Articulation", Ed. by Jeffrey T, Nealon and Caren Irr, *Rethinking the Frankfurt School*, State University of New York Press, Albay, 2002. p. 39

[19] José Van Dijck, "Users like you? Theorizing Agency in User-generated Content", *Media Culture Society*, 2009, p. 44.

[20] Philip M. Napoli, "The Internet and the Forces of 'Massification'", *The Electronic Journal of Communication*, 1998.

[21] Christian Fuchs and Sebastian Sevignani, "What is Digital Labour? What is Digital Work? What's their Difference? And why do these Questions Matter for Understanding Social Media?", *TripleC*, 2013, p. 287.

[22] Vincent Mosco, "Current Trends in the Political Economy of Communication", *Global Media Journal - Canadian Edition*, 2008, p. 54.

[23] Christian Fuchs and Sebastian Sevignani, "What is Digital Labour? What is Digital Work? What's their Difference? And why do these Questions Matter for Understanding Social Media?", *TripleC*, 2013, p. 259.

[24] George Ritzer and Nathan Jurgenson "Production, Consumption, Prosumption, The Nature of Capitalism in the Age of the Digital 'Prosumer'", *Journal of Consumer Culture*, 2010, p. 26.

[25] Christian Fuchs, "Digital Prosumption Labour on Social Media in the Context of the Capitalist Regime of Time", *Time & Society*, 2014, p. 112.

[26] Christian Fuchs, "Digital Prosumption Labour on Social Media in the Context of the Capitalist Regime of Time", *Time & Society*, 2014, p. 115.

[27] Christian Fuchs, "Digital Prosumption Labour on Social Media in the Context of the Capitalist Regime of Time", *Time & Society*, 2014, p. 111.

[28] Marcus Schulzke, "The Virtual Culture Industry: Work and Play in Virtual Worlds", *The Information Society: An International Journal*, 2014, p. 21.

[29] George Ritzer and Nathan Jurgenson "Production, Consumption, Prosumption, The Nature of Capitalism in the Age of the Digital 'Prosumer'", *Journal of Consumer Culture*, 2010, p. 23.

[30] Christian Fuchs and Sebastian Sevignani, "What is Digital Labour? What is Digital Work? What's their Difference? And why do these Questions Matter for Understanding Social Media?", *TripleC*, 2013, p. 287.

[31] Christian Fuchs, "Digital Prosumption Labour on Social Media in the Context of the Capitalist Regime of Time", *Time & Society*, 2014, p. 112.

[32] Marcus Schulzke, "The Virtual Culture Industry: Work and Play in Virtual Worlds", *The Information Society: An International Journal*, 2014, p. 23.

[33] Douglas Kellner,. "The Frankfurt School and British Cultural Studies: The Missed Articulation", Ed. by Jeffrey T, Nealon and Caren Irr, *Rethinking the Frankfurt School*, State University of New York Press, Albay, 2002. p. 32.

[34] Marcus Schulzke, "The Virtual Culture Industry: Work and Play in Virtual Worlds", *The Information Society: An International Journal*, 2014, p. 22.

Changes in the Determinants of the FDI in Romania after 2000

Laura Diaconu (Maxim)

Faculty of Economics and Business Administration <u>lauradiaconu_07@yahoo.com</u> Andrei Maxim "Alexandru Ioan Cuza" University of Iasi, Romania

andrei.maxim@feaa.uaic.ro

Abstract: Romania faced a sinuous evolution of the foreign direct investments' (FDI) inflows, accompanied by significant changes in their sectorial composition and, implicitly, in their determinants. Considering all these aspects and knowing the importance of the FDI for the economic development of a country, in general, and for Romania, in particular, the main objective of the present paper is to analyze the evolution of the foreign investments' inflows in this country from the point of view of their structure and major determinants. In order to reach this goal, several research methods were used. First of all, we have we analyzed the secondary data offered by various statistical yearbooks, reports and by different empirical investigations. Secondly, in order to identify the factors which have attracted the foreign investors in Romania during the, we have conducted in-depth interviews on managers and experts from 8 multinational companies present in Romania.

Introduction

The importance of the foreign direct investments (FDI) has been largely debated in the specialized literature, most of the analysts concluding that they represent an essential factor for the developing countries to achieve higher rates of economic growth. Taking into consideration this aspect, a large number of studies have tried to identify the determinants of the FDI. However, no consensus has emerged, because there is no widely accepted set of explanatory variables, no matter the context and no matter the period of time. Athukorala considers that the issue related to the determinants of FDI is multidimensional, because in different contexts the investing reasons of the multinational companies can greatly vary [1].

In a general approach, the FDI determinants can be grouped in two major categories: the demand and the supply factors. The first ones can be related to the majors investing reasons of the multinational companies, such as the profitability of the projects, the easiness with which subsidiaries' operations can be integrated into investors' global strategies or the quality of the host country's socio-economic, cultural, legislative and politic environment [2]. The supply factors belong to the FDI receiving country and they are related to the act that many governments have actively tried to attract the foreign investors by offering them various fiscal or legislative facilities, such as income tax and import duty reductions/exemptions, subsidies, market preferences and even monopoly rights [3]. For example, in 1997, 76 countries made 151 changes in the FDI related policies, 89% of them being focused on creating a friendlier environment for the foreign investors [4]. Moreover, Murtha and Lenway offer examples of countries in which governments, apart from creating new regulations, have also lowered the taxation levels in order to increase the FDI inflows [5].

All the FDI determinants that have largely been argued in the specialized literature have to be analyzed in correlation with the changes that took place in the investments' sectorial composition, during time. Thus, it can be noticed that in 1970, the foreign investments were concentrated mainly in the primary sector, the availability of natural resources in the host country being the most important determinant. This fact has a theoretical foundation that comes from Hecksher-Ohlin model, staring from which it can be assumed that the countries' resource endowments attract resource-seeking investors.

During the 1980s, the investors reoriented towards the manufacturing sector from the developing states, in this case the size of the domestic market and the production costs being the main factors of attraction for them. A report published by ODI mentioned that some econometric studies, comparing a cross section of countries, indicate a strong correlation between the FDI and the size of the market, measured with the help of the GDP [6]. Regarding the low labor cost, measured through low wages, Charkrabarti argues that this factor was the most important determinant for the FDI in the XXth century [7]. The empirical support for this idea comes from Culem or Schneider and Frey, who demonstrated that higher wages discourage the foreign investors [8, 9]. Tsai concludes that the low cost labor represented a determinant for the foreign investors between 1983 and 1986 [10].

In the end of the XXth century and in the beginning of the XXIst century, a significant shift takes place in the FDI inflows, a large part of them being redirected towards the services' sector and to the technology-intensive industries. This change determined the investors to prefer those countries that were stable from the economic-financial and political point of view, which had an efficient and transparent institutional environment and also high levels of human capital. In this context, Bengoa and Sanchez-Robles argue that the host countries need human capital, economic stability and liberalized markets in order to benefit from FDI on long term [11].

Zhang and Markusen have tested the relationship between the human capital and the FDI with the help of a statistical model [12]. Their results show that the FDI inflows into the developing countries are directly linked to the availability of skilled labor. Yet, human capital by itself may not be sufficient to attract the foreign investments. A country also needs efficient institutions. The explanation of this idea comes from Busse and Hefeker who stated that institutions are crucial for the investments in the human capital [13].

A study conducted by Gorbunova, Infante and Smirnova on 26 countries, including Romania, between 1994 and 2002, show that the FDI inflows into these states are more influenced by the institutional factors and the macroeconomic stability than by the production costs [14]. By using econometric estimations of the FDI determinants in the Central and Eastern European countries, with a particular focus on the industry-specific factors, Altomonte demonstrates that stable macroeconomic and social environment, together with efficient, transparent and enforceable institutional framework are the major determinants of the foreign investors in this region [15]. Apart from the institutional and political framework, Botric and Škuflic have found out that, in the case of the South-East European countries, including Romania, the human capital stock heavily influences the FDI flows and the associated technology transfer [16]. However, a study conducted in 1997 by Janicki and Wunnava on the Central and Eastern European states reveals that in the end of the XXth century the major determinants of the FDI inflows in these countries were represented by the size, risk, labor costs and openness to trade of the host economy [17].

Considering all these aspects, in this paper we identify the evolution of the foreign investments' inflows in Romania from the point of view of their structure and major determinants.

The relevance of this study results from the fact that the conclusions may offer valuable information for the Romanian policy makers to create a favorable environment for the FDI inflows, on long term.

2. Objective, research hypothesis and methods

The main objective of the present paper is to analyze the evolution of the foreign investments' inflows in Romania from the point of view of their structure and major determinants.

The main hypothesis of the paper is that, unlike 15 years ago, when the multinationals were looking especially for the low production costs of Romania, nowadays, the human capital and the socioeconomic, financial and political stability play a more important role when these companies take the investment decisions.

In order to reach this goal, several research methods were used. First of all, we have we *analyzed the secondary data* offered by various statistical yearbooks, reports and by different empirical investigations. The purpose of these analyses was to identify the evolution and the sectorial structure of the multinational companies that have invested in Romania since 2000.

Secondly, in order to identify the factors that have attracted the foreign investors in Romania since 2000, we have conducted *in-depth interviews* on managers and experts from 8 multinational companies, partly/entirely financed with foreign capital. In order to have an overview for the entire period, four of the investigated companies have entered the Romanian market in the beginning of 2000s, the rest of them entering after Romania's EU adhesion. The initial sample included 12 companies, but managers/experts from 4 of them refused to take part to our interview. The companies included in the final sample are both from industry and from the services' sector.

3. Major trends and sectorial distribution of the FDI in Romania

After the communism collapse, Romania faced a long and difficult transition period. Due to the slow

privatization process, unstable economic environment and weak legislative system, many foreign investors have avoided Romania until 2000. In the beginning of the XXIst century and especially after 2002, in the context of the macroeconomic stablization, strong GDP growth and large-scale privatizations and in the view of the EU adhesion, Romania benefited from record FDI inflows. In 2008, the value of the foreign investments attracted by Romania reached the historical maximum level of 13.849 billion dollars [18]. However, in the context of the negative consequences of the global economic and financial crisis, which started to be felt in Romania since 2009, FDI inflows have considerable diminished. According to the statistics, they started to regain a positive trend after 2012, but their level still remains very low compared to pre-crisis period [18].

Looking at the annual evolution of the FDI presented by World Bank, we can distinguish four major periods. The first one is starts in 2003 up to 2006, when the FDI inflows attracted by Romania have significantly increased, from 1,844,000 thousand USD to 11,451,000 thousand USD, in the context of the large privatizations that took place in the banking and industrial sectors. Between 2007 and 2008, in the context of the EU adhesion the FDI continued their positive trend up to the maximum value of 13,849,000 thousand USD. The period between 2009 and 2011 was marked by a continuous decrease in the level of the foreign investments attracted by Romania, mainly as a result of the negative consequences of the economic and financial crisis on the Romanian business environment. Since 2012 and up to 2014, the FDI inflows had a slight increase, in the context of the small increases in the GDP and of the inflation rate's decrease.

From the point of view of the sectorial composition of FDI inflows in Romania, we can notice major changes since 2000. Analyzing the sectorial distribution of these investments during the four distinctive periods mentioned above, it results that between 2003 and 2006 the industry received the highest share from the total FDI. However, this share has slightly decreased during this period, from 51.1% in 2003 to 44% in 2006 [19]. Other sectors that received a relatively high share of FDI were the financial intermediation and insurances and the trade, their shares increasing in 2006 compared to 2003.

A study conducted by Birsan and Buiga on 250 multinational companies from the Romanian ma-

nufacturing sector, between 2000 and 2005, shows that the FDI attracted by this sector are both efficiency seeking and market seeking [20]. However, the efficiency seeking FDI were present especially in the sectors involving more complex goods, while the market seeking investors were found in the fields with more simple, homogenous goods. These results underline that, during the analyzed period, the foreign investors came to Romania to process goods or parts of goods with low cost and to sell them in the originating country or in other EU states.

During the period 2007-2008, the total share of the investments made in the financial intermediation and insurances and in the trade sector has almost equaled the share from the industry sector [21]. However, the share of the FDI in the services' sector has surpassed the share from industry. This shift suggests that the investors became more interested in the higher value-added production and capital-intensive sectors than in exploiting the lowcost advantages. This might also be a result of the fact that Romania's low-cost advantage started to gradually erode in certain sectors. Even if the hourly labor costs are still low compared to the Eastern European standards, the decreasing labor force and the skill shortages due to massive emigration, especially in 2007 and 2008, have led to a considerable increase in the private sector wages, around 20% per year [22].

In 2009, due to the global crisis, the sectors that have lost the highest share of the investments were metallurgy, construction, textile, real estate and financial intermediations [23]. Meanwhile, more investors were attracted by the manufacturing industry. The next place was occupied by the financial services and insurances, which amounted 19.1% of total FDI, followed by the retail trade, with 12.4% [24].

During the period 2009-2014, the secondary sector strengthened its position in front of the foreign investors, in 2014 obtaining almost 50% of the total FDI [25]. Inside the secondary sector, the most attractive field for the foreign investors remained the manufacturing industry. Meanwhile, the attractiveness of the trade and of the financial intermediation and insurances has declined during this period.

Considering the fact that Romania has to face an increasing competition from the Asian companies in the traditional low-wage sectors, such as clothing and leather, a government's priority for the medium and long term should also be to increase the country's attractiveness for the foreign investments in the service sector.

4. Empirical evidences regarding the main determinants of the foreign investments in Romania

The changes occurred in the determinants of the foreign investors in Romania were also identified by analyzing the information obtained in the interviews conducted on the managers and experts from 8 multinational firms, partly/entirely financed with foreign capital, present in this country. Therefore, this part of the paper includes the results of the interviews.

Being asked about the reasons of entering the Romanian market, the representatives of the companies that have entered in the early 2000s indicated that the major determinant was represented by the low production costs, especially labor, compared to other Eastern European states. This reason was accompanied by the large domestic market, with high growth potential. The other four representtatives have suggested that there were two major determinants for their companies to invest in Romania: the availability of the low-cost labor force and also its high qualifications and skills and good knowledge of foreign languages.

Other investment reasons indicated by some of the eight respondents are: the macroeconomic stability, little competition, fiscal facilities, the geographical proximity to the Central and Eastern European states, Romania's EU membership and the availability of the subcontractors and suppliers.

After indicating the reasons of investing in Romania, the companies' representatives were asked to give grades from 1 to 5 to all the mentioned aspects, where 5 represented 'very important reason' and 1 'least important reason'. Based on the obtained results, an average score for each indicated reason was calculated. Table 1 and 2 show the hierarchy of the aspects mentioned by the companies' representatives, according to their entrance date on the Romanian market. For each group of companies, there were taken into consideration only the aspects mentioned by all of them.

Table 1. The importance of the reasons of investingin Romania for the companies that entered themarket in the early 2000s

	F	actor	Average score	
Low	costs	of	production	5
(inclu	ding wa	ges)		

Large domestic market	4.75
Little competition	4.5
Fiscal facilities	4.25
Macroeconomic stability	3.5
Geographical proximity to Ce	2.5
and E Europe	
a	

Source: own research

As we can see from Table 1, in the early 2000s, Romania was considered attractive for the foreign investors especially because it had a production cost advantage. Considering the reduced presence of the multinational companies, especially until 2004, and the weak competitiveness of the national firms, the business environment was very attractive for the foreign investors. To all these determinants. it adds the fact that the government started to implement various incentives, especially fiscal ones, in order to create a more favorable climate for the investments. Mentioning the "macroeconomic stability" among the factors that attracted the foreign investors in the early 2000s is not sur-prisingly since, during that period, Romania has implemented financial and economic measures in order to facilitate its adhesion to the European Union. Compared to other destinations, such as the Asian countries, Romania had also the advantage of being very close to the Central and Eastern European states, fact that could facilitate the multinationals' exports to these countries.

Table 2. The importance of the reasons of investing
in Romania for the companies that entered the
market after the EU adhesion

Factor	Average score
Low costs of production	5
(including wages)	
Availability of the labor force	4,75
with adequate qualifications	
and skills	
Large domestic market	4.5
EU membership	4
Fiscal facilities	3.75
Macroeconomic stability	3.75
Source: own rese	arch

Source: own research

Analyzing the reasons of investing in Romania mentioned by the companies that entered the market after the EU adhesion, we can notice some differrences compared to the other respondents. On the first position still remains the low cost of production, but this time the companies were also attracted by the fact that the potential employees had adequate qualifications and skills and were able to fluently speak in at least one foreign language. The large domestic market has also been a determinant for the foreign investors that entered

73

Romania after its EU adhesion. They have chosen this entering moment because the EU membership offered Romania more economic stability and a business environment similar to the Western European states. Yet, the large FDI inflows in Romania, in 2007 and 2008, have increased the competition on this market.

Another aspect discussed with the experts/managers that participated in the interview concerned the current investment environment of Romania. In this context, they were asked to say if they were to invest nowadays in Romania, what the main determinant(s) would be. Almost all of them indicated the fact that the country has maintained the advantage of the low-cost and qualified labor force, compared to other states from the region. However, as major investments' disadvantages, they mentioned the high level of corruption, the political quite unstable environment that leads to frequent changes in the legislative measures and the poor infrastructure, compared to other Eastern EU states.

Considering all these aspects, we can argue that the research hypothesis of this paper is only partly confirmed: nowadays, as well as in the early 2000s, the multinationals are attracted especially by the low production costs of Romania. However, now, the human capital and the sable economic environment also play an important role when they take the investments' decisions.

Conclusions

The determinants of the FDI have to be analyzed in correlation with the changes that took place in the investments' sectorial composition. If in1970, the foreign investments were concentrated mainly in the primary sector, the availability of natural resources in the host country being the most important determinant, during the 1980s, the investors reoriented towards the manufacturing sector from the developing states. In this context, the size of the domestic market and the production costs were the main factors of attraction for them. In the end of the XXth century and in the beginning of the XXIst century, a large part of the FDI was redirected towards the services' sector and to the technologyintensive industries. This change determined the investors to prefer those countries that were stable from the economic, financial and political point of view, which had an efficient and transparent institutional environment and also high levels of human capital.

After the communism collapse, Romania faced a long and difficult transition period, fact that led to low levels of FDI inflows until 2000. Considering the annual evolution of the FDI, we can distinguish four major periods. During the first period (2003-2006), the FDI inflows attracted by Romania have significantly increased, in the context of the large privatizations from banking and industrial sectors. Between 2007 and 2008, in the context of the EU adhesion, the FDI continued their positive trend up to the maximum value reached in 2008. During the period in which the negative consequences of the economic and financial crisis were most strongly felt (2009-2011), the level of the foreign investments attracted by Romania has continuously decreased. Since 2012 and up to 2014, the FDI inflows had a slight increase, but their value is still low compared to the pre-crisis period.

Analyzing the sectorial distribution of these investments during the four distinctive periods, some interesting conclusions can be drawn. If between 2003 and 2006 the industry received the highest share from the total FDI, in 2007-2008, when Romania has attracted the highest levels of FDI inflows, the share of the investments in the services' sector has surpassed the share from industry. This shift suggests that the investors became more interested in the capital-intensive fields than in exploiting the low-cost advantages. However, during the recession period, the secondary sector regained its leading position, in 2014 obtaining almost half of the total FDI.

These conclusions that can be depicted from the statistical data are also confirmed by the results of our interview conducted on managers and experts from 8 multinational companies, partly/entirely financed with foreign capital. The representatives of the companies that have entered Romania in the early 2000s indicated that the major determinant of choosing this country was represented by the low production costs, especially labor, compared to other Eastern European states. This factor was accompanied by the large domestic market, little competition, fiscal facilities, macroeconomic stability and the geographical proximity to the Central and Eastern European countries. Analyzing the reasons of investing in Romania mentioned by the companies that entered the market after the EU adhesion, we can notice some differences compared to the other respondents. Even if the low cost of production is still the major determinant, the companies were also attracted by the relatively high human capital stock of the labor force. Moreover, the 'macroeconomic stability' factor has ob-

/4

tained a higher average score than in previous situation, aspect that can be related to Romania's EU membership since 2007. Considering these results, we can argue that the research hypothesis of this paper is only partly confirmed.

Acknowledgements

This work was funded by "Alexandru Ioan Cuza" University of Iasi, through the project no. 20/03. 12.2015, in the competition *Grants for young researchers of UAIC*.

References

[1] Athukorala, P.C., "Trends and Patters of Foreign Direct Investment in Asia: A Comparative Perspective", *Margin-The Journal of Applied Economic Research*, vol. 3, no. 4, 2009, pp. 365-408.

[2] Kok, R. and B. Acikgoz Ersoy, Analyses of FDI determinants in developing countries", *International Journal of Social Economics*, vol. 36, no. 1(2), 2009, pp. 105 – 123.

[3] Bouoiyour, J., "The determining factors of foreign direct investment in Morocco", *Saving and development*, no. 1, 2007, pp. 91-105.

[4] UNCTAD, World Investment Report 1998: Trends and Determinants Overview, United Nations, New York, 1998.

[5] Murtha, T. and S. Lenway, "Country Capabilities and the Strategic State: How National Political Institutions Affect Multinational Corporations' Strategies", *Strategic Management Journal*, vol. 15, 1994, pp. 113-129.

[6] ODI, Foreign direct investment flows to lowincome countries: a review of the evidence, 1997, available at: https://www.odi.org/sites/odi.org.uk /files/odi-assets/publications-opinionfiles/2626.pdf

[7] Charkrabarti, A., "The determinants of foreign direct investment: sensitivity analyses of cross-country regressions", *Kyklos*, Vol. 54, No. 1, 2001, pp. 89-114.

[8] Culem, C.G., "The locational determinants of direct investments among industrialized countries", *European Economic Review*, no. 32, 1988, pp. 885-904.

[9] Schneider, F. and B. Frey, "Economic and political determinants of foreign direct investment", *World Development*, vol. 13, no. 2, 1985, pp. 161-175.

[10] Tsai, P., "Determinants of Foreign Direct Inves-tment and its Impact on Economic Growth", *Journal of Economic Development*, vol. 19, no. 1, 1994, pp. 137-163.

[11] Bengoa, M. and B. Sanchez-Robles, "Foreign direct investment, economic freedom and growth: new evidence from Latin America", *European Journal of Political Economy*, vol. 19, no. 3, 2003, pp. 529-545. doi:10.1016/S0176-2680(03)00011-9.

[12] Zhang, K. and J. Markusen, "Vertical Multinationals and Host-country Characteristics", *Journal of Development Economics*, vol. 59, no. 2, 1999, pp. 233-252. doi: 10.3386/w6203.

[13] Busse, M. and C. Hefeker, "Political Risk, Institutions and Foreign Direct Investment", *European Journal of Political Economy*, vol. 23, no. 2, 2007, pp. 397-415. doi:10.1016/j.ejpoleco.2006. 02.003.

[14] Gorbunova, Y., D. Infante and J. Smirnova, "New Evidence on FDI Determinants: An Appraisal Over the Transition Period", *Prague Economic Papers*, no. 2, 2012, pp. 129-149.

[15] Altomonte, C., "Economic determinants and institutional frameworks: FDI in economies in transition", *Transnational Corporations*, vol. 9, no. 2, 2000, pp. 81-106.

[16] Botric, V. and L. Škuflic, "Main Determinants of Foreign Direct Investment in the Southeast European Countries", *Transition Studies Review*, vol. 13, no. 2, 2006, pp. 359–377. DOI 10.1007/s 11300-006-0110-3.

[17] Janicki, H.P. and P.V. Wunnava, "Determinants of foreign direct investment: empirical evidence from EU accession candidates", *Applied Economics*, vol. 36, 2004, pp. 505–509.

[18] World Bank, *Foreign direct investment, net inflows (BoP, current US\$) – Romania*, 2015, available at: http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/ BX. KLT.DINV.CD.WD

[19] NBR, *Foreign direct investments in Romania*, National Bank of Romania 2004 & 2007, available

at: http://www.bnr.ro/PublicationDocuments.aspx? icid=9403

[20] Birsan, M. and A. Buiga, "FDI in Romania: Evolution and Main Types of Large Firms in the Manufacturing Sector", *OECD*, *GLOBAL FORUM VII on International Investment*, 2008, available at: www.oecd.org/investment/gfi-7.

[21] NBR, Foreign direct investments in Romania, National Bank of Romania 2008, available at: http://www.bnr.ro/PublicationDocuments.aspx?icid =9403

[22] Pauwels, S. and L. Ionita, "FDI in Romania: from low-wage competition to higher value-added sectors", *ECFIN Country Focus*, vol. 5, no. 3, 2008, pp. 1-6, available at: http://ec.europa .eu/ economy_finance/publications/publication_summa ry11899_en.htm [23] NBR, Foreign direct investments in Romania, National Bank of Romania 2010, available at: http://www.bnr.ro/PublicationDocuments.aspx?icid =9403

[24] NBR & NIS, Foreign Direct Investments in Romania in 2010, 2011, available at: http://www.bnr.ro/Investitiile-straine-directe-(ISD)-inRomani a-3174.aspx.

[25] NBR, Foreign direct investments in Romania, National Bank of Romania 2015, available at: http://www.bnr.ro/PublicationDocuments.aspx?icid =9403

Regression Analysis of Stock Exchanges During the Ramadan Period: Analysis of 16 Countries

Ömer Faruk Tan Marmara University, Turkey omer.tan@marmara.edu.tr

Sirin Özlem MEF University, Turkey ozlems@mef.edu.tr

Abstract: The month of Ramadan is one the most renowned religious rituals in the world for more than 1.5 billion Muslims. This study analyzes the effect of religious experience during the Muslim holy days of Ramadan on the stock exchanges of 16 Muslim-majority countries. According to the results, among 16 countries, 13 Muslim financial markets have positive returns during Ramadan, which can be attributed to the generally positive investor mood or emotion. In contrast, only 4 stock markets—Dubai Financial Market, Amman Stock Exchange, Karachi Stock Exchange, and Tunis Stock Exchange-exhibit differrences that are both positive and statistically significant. Moreover, the study divides the Muslim holy days into 3 periods, where the first period comprises the first 10 days of Ramadan, second period covers the next 10 days of the Ramadan month, and the final period involves the last 10 days. According to results, while the first 10 days witness the lowest performance, the last 10 days experience the highest performance.

Introduction

Ramadan is the ninth month of the Muslim Hijri calendar and is the month in which the Quran was revealed to Prophet Mohammad. Muslims worldwide observe Ramadan as a month of fasting; it is mandatory for Muslims to do so and is one of Islam's five pillars. During the fast, Muslims cannot eat or drink anything from dawn until sunset [1]. Further, Muslims are urged to refrain from wrongdoing and are encouraged to devote themselves to acts of piety, prayers, and charity [2]. Muslims are focused more on praying, reciting the Quran, and giving alms from their previous year's earnings. As a fundamental practice of the Islamic faith, Ramadan brings about a greater solidarity and collaboration between Muslims. Its main contribution is the gre-ater social support that provides to the society as well as the close relationship an individual Muslim establishes with Allah [3].

Faith plays a very important function in decisionmaking and the actions of the people. Religious values and practices have an important effect on economic growth [4]. According to a study on positive psychology, religion provides a valuable form of social support, inspires optimistic beliefs, and contributes to believers' happiness [5]. Islamic countries, although the act of fasting during Ramadan means that Muslims spend the first half of the day feeling hungry, which expected to have a negative influence on investor mood, the contrary happens. According to religious beliefs, this is a holy month and investors generally feel better when they are trading during Ramadan [6].

To mark the end of Ramadan, Muslims celebrate Eid-ul-Fitr (Ramadan Feast). Eid is the Arabic word for festivity and Eid-ul-Fitr means breakfast, so it symbolizes breaking of the fasting period. Eidul Fitr comprises the final three days of Ramadan. It is a time to celebrate the completion of a month of blessing and joy with family and friends [6]. In addition, there is also a sharp increase in prices especially in food, clothes, and commodities before the Eid celebration because people purchase them for the feast. After the celebration, prices revert to their original ones [7]. Most Islamic countries use both Gregorian and Islamic lunar calendars. The Islamic calendar is predominantly used for religious activities, whereas the Gregorian calendar is used for business and government purposes. According to the lunar calendar, Ramadan steps back each year in order to start about 10 days earlier. Thus, the month of Ramadan presents an opportunity to test and determine any predictable patterns in the behavior of stock returns and the volatility relative to other months of the year [8]. Stock markets remain open during the Ramadan days that are observed by an overwhelming majority of the Muslim population [1]. First, this study tries to analyze the Ramadan effect on stock exchanges of 16 Muslim countries using a regression analysis method. Second, the Ramadan effect is analyzed in 3 segments, each consisting of 10 days of Ramadan month, in order to see whether investors display different attitudes during Ramadan. The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 presents a literature review about this topic. Section 3 outlines the data and methodology. Section 4 discusses the empirical results, and Section 5 concludes this study.

1. Literature Review

Husain [9] explored the Ramadan effect on Karachi Stock Exchange covering the period from January 1989 to December 1993. The data consist of 36 individual stocks, 8 sector indices and the general market index. It can be concluded that the Ramadan does not significantly effect on the average return in the market; however, there is a strong evidence of a substantial decline in the volatility of stock returns.

Frieder and Subrahmanyam [10] analyzed the impact of the Christian holiday of St. Patrick's Day and the Jewish holy days of Rosh Hashanah and Yom Kippur on the U.S. equity markets over the 1946–2000 period. They found that stock returns were significantly higher on Rosh Hashanah but significantly lower on Yom Kippur days. For most holy days, trading volumes decline.

Seyyed, Abraham, and Al-Haij [2] analyzed the Saudi Stock Exchange during the Ramadan periods. They analyzed different sector indices in the market. According to their finding, volatility and trading activity vanished significantly during Ramadan in Saudi Stock Exchange.

Al-Ississ [1] examined the effect of faith on the financial markets of 17 countries during the period between 1988 and 2008. He found that Ramadan has a statistically significant positive effect on the returns of financial markets. On the other hand, Ramadan dropped the trading volume of financial markets.

Al-Hajieh, Redhead, and Rodgers [6] investigated the Ramadan effect in Turkey, Jordan, Egypt, Kuwait, and Saudi Arabia during the period from January 1992 to December 2007. According to results, except for Saudi Arabia and Bahrain, average daily returns during Ramadan are both statistically significant and higher than the average returns of other months in the year. Furthermore, high volatility levels can be seen for all countries both at the beginning and end of the Ramadan.

Białkowski, Etebari & Wisniewski [3] examined the 14 predominantly Muslim countries over the 1989–2007 period. Their results revealed that Ramadan stock returns are higher than other days but are less volatile compared to the rest of the year. No obvious declines in market liquidity can be observed during this festive season. Moreover, Ramadan has a positive impact on investors' mood and sentiment. Ramezani, Pouraghajan, Mardani [11] investigated the impact of lunar months on Tehran Stock Exchange during the period of 2002-2012. They found that there is a positive and significant relationship between Ramadan and Tehran stock exchange.

Iqbal, Kouser and Azeem [8] considered the Ramadan effect on Karachi Stock Exchange during the period of 1992 to 2011. The results indicate that there is a significant reduction in volatility of return, but the Ramadan effect is significant at 10% level.

Shah and Ahmed [12] investigated the Ramadan effect in the context of the Karachi Stock Exchange between January 2010 and December 2012; they found that religion factors are not associated with financial markets, as the market remains the same during Ramadan as at any other month of the year. In accordance, they found that the Ramadan effect is not significant in the Karachi Stock Exchange.

Alatiyat [13] analyzed the 19 listed banks in Abu Dhabi Security Exchange (ADX) and Dubai Financial Market (DFM) during the periods of 2008 – 2013. The average returns for banks in ADX and DFM in Ramadan are less than the usual average in the period. The study also found that the Islamic banks stocks increase during the Ramadan period, thus it is profitable to buy those stocks before Ramadan and sell them in the Ramadan.

3. Methodology and Data

This study estimates the impact of Ramadan on financial markets by running a fixed effect panel regression analysis. Daily stock returns are analyzed using a logarithmic return. The advantage in looking at the log returns of a series is that one can see relative changes in the variable and compare these directly with other variables whose values may have very different base values. The following regression analysis is estimated to analyze the impact of faith on financial markets.

 $\mathbf{R}_{i,t,j} = \boldsymbol{\beta}_0 + \boldsymbol{\beta}_1 \mathbf{R}amadan_Effect_{t,j} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t$ where;

 β_0 = regression intercept coefficient β_1 = regression slope coefficient $R_{i,t,j}$ = the logarithmic daily return of stock exchange (i) on day (t) in country (j)

Ramadan Effect_{t, j} = a dummy variable that takes the value (1) if day (t) is part of Ramadan days in country (j) and (0) otherwise

 ε_t = Random error term

Moreover, the study divides Ramadan into three 10-day periods covering the 30-day period of Ramadan. This division is useful because although Ramadan is a continuous 29 or 30 days duration, the intensity of worship, features, and promised rewards vary.

"This a month (Ramadan), the first part of which brings Allah's Mercy, the middle of which brings Allah's forgiveness and the last part of which brings emancipation from hellfire" [14].

The first 10 days of Ramadan are the hardest ones because it is physically difficult to adjust to a new dietary schedule and nutritional deprivation during the day. Therefore, during the first 10-day period, Ramadan is expected to be dominated by the physical impact of fasting rather than mystical experiences [1]. Moreover, the last 10 days of Ramadan are the most blessed part, as they include Laylat Al-Qadar—*The Night of Decree is better than a thousand months*—when the Quran was first revealed to the prophet Mohammad. The following regression analysis is computed to find whether differences exist between these three segments:

 $R_{i,t,j}$ = the logarithmic daily return of stock exchange *i* on day *t* from the trading day before in country *j*;

RamadanDays1_10_{t, j} = a dummy variable that takes the value of 1 if day *t* fall on days 1–10 of Ramadan in country *j*;

RamadanDays11_20_{t, j} = a dummy variable that takes the value of 1 if day *t* fall on days 11–20 of Ramadan in country *j*; and

RamadanDays21_30_{t, j} = a dummy variable that takes the value of 1 if day *t* fall on days 21–30 of Ramadan in country *j*.

 ε_{t} = Random error term

This study examines the stock exchanges of 16 countries to determine if a Ramadan effect could be observed (as seen in Table 1). All stock exchange data is taken from the Thomson Reuters Data Stream. The time zone of the Indonesia Stock Exchange, Amman Stock Exchange, Dhaka Stock Exchange, Bursa Malaysia, Karachi Stock Exchange, and Borsa Istanbul have longer data ranging from January 1990 to August 2015. In contrast, data for Dubai Financial Market is avai-lable from January 2004 to August 2015. However, at least 10 years of Ramadan data is available for this stock exchange, and it is sufficient to include the sample in the study. Since data for Iran is not available with Thomson Reuters, Tehran Stock Exchange could not be included in this study. Also, instead of Abu Dhabi Stock Exchange, Dubai Finacial Market's data is used for this study. Furthermore, countries are selected if the proportion of population professing the Muslim faith exceeded 50% (as seen in Table 2).

Among these countries, Indonesia has the highest population of over 250 million people, whereas Bahrain has the lowest population of approximately 1.4 million people. In total, there are approximately 885 million Muslims living in these countries. According to the percentage of the Muslim population within the selected countries, while Saudi Arabia has the highest ratio with 100%, Jordan has the lowest ratio with 54%. Islam has two denominations: Sunni and Shia. Of the included countries, Bahrain has a mostly Shia population, and in Lebanon, the Shia and Sunni ratio is equal. Other countries mostly have a Sunni population. Islamic holy days follow the Hijri calendar, not Gregorian year, and the Muslim Hijri year is 11 days shorter than the Gregorian calendar year. Each Muslim country follows an independent and often different method to calculate the start of each lunar month. Countries can use astronomical calculations but differentiate between the required parameters. Hence, the first day of Ramadan varies from country to country in the same year. Due to these differences, data is collected from different websites in order to determine the correct Ramadan start and end days for each country [15], [16], [17], [18], [19], [20], [21].

Table 1. List of Stock Exchanges	
----------------------------------	--

Country	List of Stock Exchanges	Starting Date	Ending Date	Obs. Days
Bahrain	Bahrain Stock Exchange	02.01.2003	31.08.2015	3302
Bangladesh	Dhaka Stock Exchange	01.01.1990	31.08.2015	6695

79

Abu Dhabi (Dubai)	Dubai Financial Market	02.01.2004	31.08.2015	3042
Egypt	Egyptian Exchange	02.01.1995	31.08.2015	5390
Indonesia	Jakarta Stock Exchange	02.01.1990	31.08.2015	6695
Jordan	Amman Stock Exchange	02.01.1990	31.08.2015	6695
Kuwait	Kuwait Stock Exchange	03.01.2000	31.08.2015	4086
Lebanon	Beirut Stock Exchange	01.02.1996	31.08.2015	5108
Malaysia	Bursa Malaysia	02.01.1990	31.08.2015	6695
Morocco	Casablanca Stock Exchange	02.01.2002	31.08.2015	3563
Oman	Muscat Securities Market	01.11.1996	31.08.2015	4912
Pakistan	Karachi Stock Exchange	02.01.1990	31.08.2015	6695
Qatar	Qatar Stock Exchange	01.09.1998	31.08.2015	4436
Saudi Arabia	Saudi Stock Exchange	02.11.1998	31.08.2015	4392
Tunisia	Tunis Stock Exchange	02.01.1998	31.08.2015	4607
Turkey	Borsa Istanbul	02.01.1990	31.08.2015	6695

Table 2. Population of Muslim Majority Countries

Country	Population (2014) (million)	Percent Muslim (%)	Denomination	Share of World Pop.
Indonesia	252.812,245	87,20%	Sunni	3,49%
Pakistan	185.132,926	96,40%	Sunni	2,56%
Bangladesh	158.512,570	89,10%	Sunni	2,19%
Egypt	83.386,739	90%	Sunni	1,15%
Turkey	75.837,020	99,80%	Sunni	1,05%
Morocco	33.492,909	99%	Sunni	0,46%
Malaysia	30.187,896	61,30%	Sunni	0,42%
Saudi Arabia	29.369,428	100%	Sunni	0,41%
Tunisia	11.116,899	99,10%	Sunni	0,15%
Jordan	7.504,812	97,20%	Sunni	0,10%
Lebanon	4.965,914	54%	Sunni-Shia	0,70%
Oman	3.926,492	85,90%	Sunni	0,50%
Kuwait	3.479,371	76,70%	Sunni	0,50%
United Arab Emirates (Dubai)	2.327,000	76%	Sunni	0,32%
Qatar	2.267,916	77,50%	Sunni	0,30%
Bahrain	1.344,111	70,30%	Shia	0,20%

3. Empirical Results

Figures 1, 2, and 3 depict the time series evolution of the 16 different indexes considered in this study. Figure 1 shows the price index of the countries according their time period of Ramadan observance.

Figure 2 reports the daily returns of the respective stock exchanges excluding Ramadan days, and finally, Figure 3 presents stock returns on Ramadan days. Additionally, it provides a clear picture of the presence of volatility clusters.

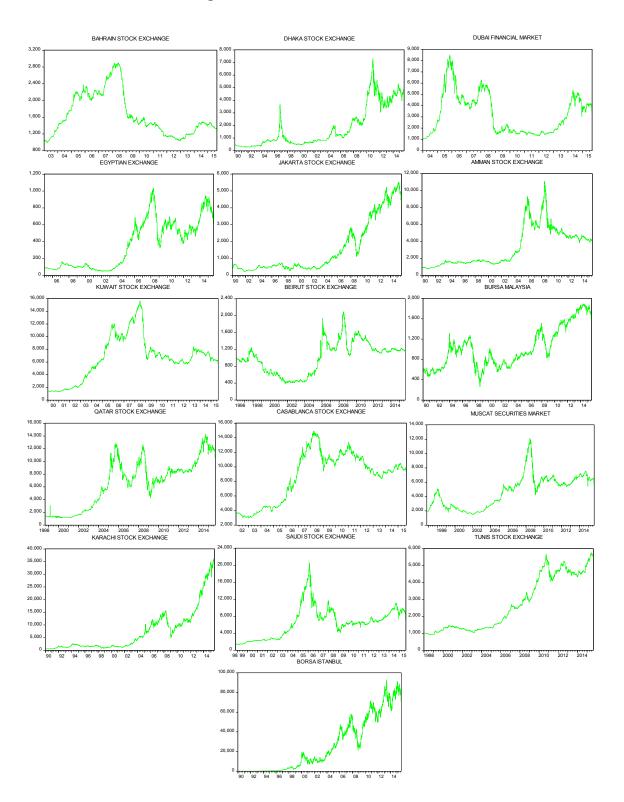
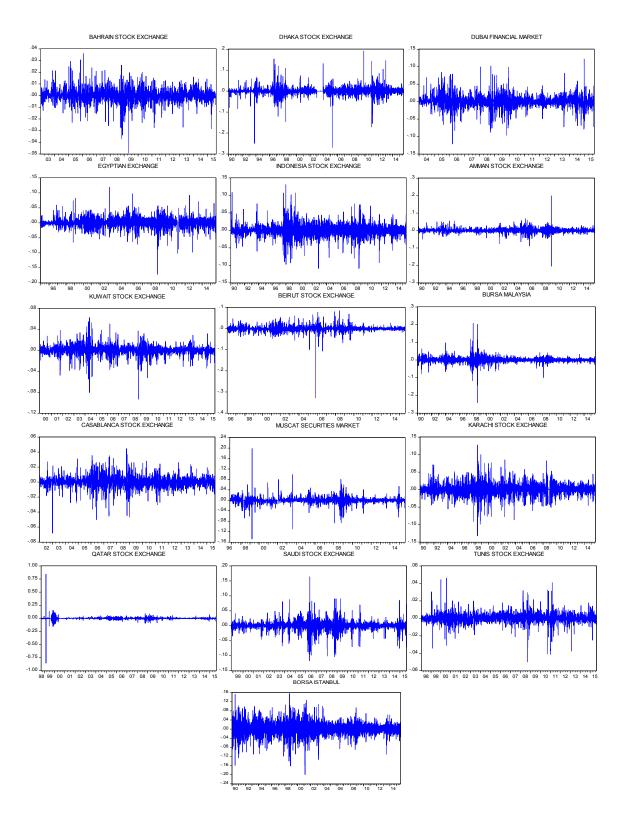
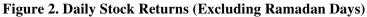


Figure 1. Price Index of 16 Countries





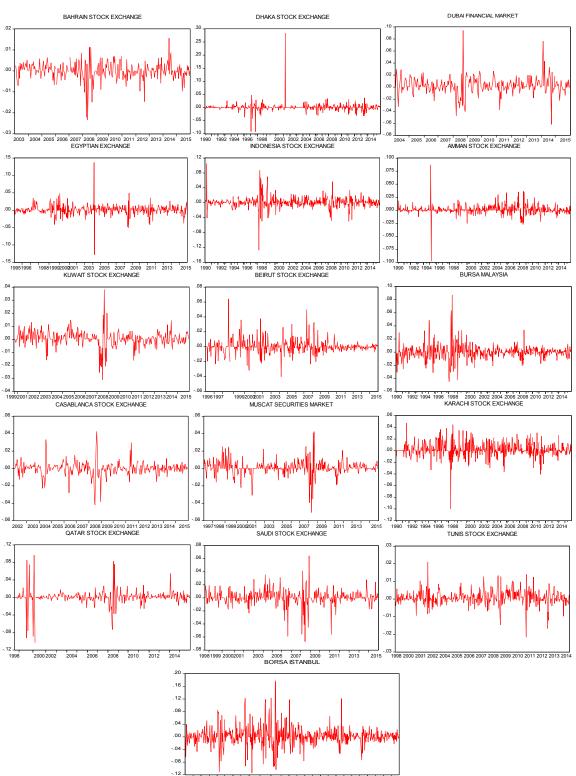


Figure 3: Stock Returns (only Ramadan Days)

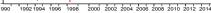


Table 3 provides descriptive statistics of stock returns excluding Ramadan days. The average columns indicate stock market returns. Borsa Istanbul has the highest returns, whereas the Beirut Stock Exchange has the lowest returns. Except for Lebanon, all markets have positive returns in the duration of the study period. The standard deviation column indicates the stock market volatility. Qatar Stock Exchange has the highest range of maximum and minimum returns; it also has the highest standard deviation. The skew column displays the skew of stock markets. Except for Bursa Malaysia and Muscat Securities Markets, all examined stock markets have a negative skew. All stock markets have positive kurtosis, which implies typical heavy-tailed financial distributions.

	Mean	Std.dev	Min	Max	Skew	Kurtosis
Bahrain Stock Exchange	0,0001	0,0057	-0,0492	0,0361	-0,4467	9,7848
Dhaka Stock Exchange	0,0003	0,0157	-0,2691	0,1918	-1,0368	47,7065
Dubai Financial Market	0,0002	0,0186	-0,1216	0,122	-0,1336	8,7125
Egyptian Exchange	0,0003	0,0147	-0,172	0,1192	-0,4689	12,1307
Jakarta Stock Exchange	0,0003	0,0145	-0,1095	0,1313	-0,0669	12,1369
Amman Stock Exchange	0,0002	0,0099	-0,2054	0,1987	-0,1979	66,098
Kuwait Stock Exchange	0,0003	0,0088	-0,0933	0,063	-0,8822	15,725
Beirut Stock Exchange	-0,0001	0,0117	-0,3283	- 0,3283	-4,5816	143,2373
Bursa Malaysia	0,0002	0,013	-0,2415	0,2082	0,3462	56,4978
Casablanca Stock Exchange	0,0003	0,0076	-0,0682	0,0446	-0,5269	10,0345
Muscat Securities Market	0,0002	0,011	-0,1484	0,1986	0,3027	47,3722
Karachi Stock Exchange	0,0005	0,0146	-0,1321	0,1276	-0,2501	9,8208
Qatar Stock Exchange	0,0004	0,0256	-0,8581	0,8447	-0,5314	613,068
Saudi Stock Exchange	0,0004	0,015	-0,1168	0,164	-0,6025	16,7451
Tunis Stock Exchange	0,0003	0,0054	-0,05	0,0462	-0,1033	16,0194
Borsa Istanbul	0,0011	0,0253	-0,1998	0,1564	-0,204	7,3466

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics of Excluding Ramadan Days

Table 4 provides descriptive statistics of market returns only for Ramadan. Qatar Stock Exchange has the highest average during Ramadan, while Bursa Malaysia has the lowest returns. Dhaka Stock Exchange has the highest standard deviation, which is related to the range of maxi-mum and minimum returns. While 6 markets have a positive skew, the other 10 have a negative skew. All markets have positive kurtosis, which indicate heavytailed financial distributions. During Ramadan days, stock market returns in Bahrain, Malaysia, Morocco, and Lebanon have negative average returns. However, market returns in Bangladesh, Dubai, Egypt, Pakistan, Jordan, Kuwait, Indonesia, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Tunisia, and Turkey are higher during Ramadan compared with non-Ramadan months. The results

indicate that Ramadan has a positive impact on stock prices. To the extent that it contributes to investors' positive mood and they might have a tendency to invest. If a person is in a good mood, he/she will have a tendency to be optimistic while evaluating an investment. Good moods may motivate investors to invest in risky financial instruments like stocks rather than bonds [6]. Nofsinger [23] suggests an optimism bias. Optimistic thinking reduces critical analysis during the investment process and investors might ignore pessimistic information. Furthermore, the standard deviations of market returns are higher during Ramadan days; therefore there are more abnormal returns during Ramadan because of which investors can earn higher returns.

Table 4.	Descriptive	Statistics of	Ramadan Days
----------	-------------	---------------	--------------

	Mean	Std.dev.	Min	Max	Skew	Kurtosis
Bahrain Stock Exchange	-0,0001	0,0042	-0,0233	0,0156	-1,1668	9,3359

Dhaka Stock Exchange	0,0043	0,0828	-0,8652	0,9341	3,3068	76,9408
Dubai Financial Market	0,0017	0,018	-0,1479	0,0941	-1,7645	23,7255
Egyptian Exchange	0,0011	0,0301	-0,1792	0,5232	9,729	190,5292
Jakarta Stock Exchange	0,0002	0,0266	-0,5471	0,1047	-14,3577	298,5525
Amman Stock Exchange	0,0008	0,0103	-0,0973	0,087	-0,6989	40,663
Kuwait Stock Exchange	0,0009	0,01196	-0,05649	0,19082	10,6948	177,89949
Beirut Stock Exchange	-0,0002	0,0137	-0,2179	0,0642	-8,0944	137,6212
Bursa Malaysia	-0,0006	0,0329	-0,7453	0,1294	-18,9568	434,7307
Casablanca Stock Exchange	-0,0002	0,008	-0,0417	0,0425	-0,203	11,464
Muscat Securities Market	0,0001	0,0144	-0,2288	0,0423	-9,7518	152,6064
Karachi Stock Exchange	0,0036	0,0323	-0,0999	0,7123	17,7363	383,9675
Qatar Stock Exchange	0,0059	0,0636	-0,478	0,7746	4,9236	75,853
Saudi Stock Exchange	0,0004	0,0118	-0,0672	0,0644	-0,9461	12,2353
Tunis Stock Exchange	0,0008	0,0041	-0,0216	0,021	-0,1311	7,8807
Borsa Istanbul	0,003	0,0363	-0,1143	0,4825	4,306	55,7791

Table 5 provides the correlation of market returns excluding Ramadan. Malaysia and Indonesia are most correlated markets, which likely reflects their physical proximity, being neighbors, as well as on their financial integration. However, correlations between other countries are very low, so it can be concluded that there is scant financial integration among most Muslim-majority countries. Morocco and Bahrain have the lowest correlation. Table 6 shows the correlation of market returns for Ramadan. Malaysia and Indonesia are most correlated at 83.8%. Also, the financial market of (1) Qatar and Bangladesh, (2) Indonesia and Morocco, and (3) Qatar and Dubai highly correlate with each other. The comparison of Ramadan and non-Ramadan months reveals that correlations for Ramadan days are higher than other days. In Table 5, correlation results are mostly negative; however, correlations for Ramadan days are mostly positive, therefore it can be concluded that the financial markets of Muslim countries might move to the same trend during Ramadan as investors might have the same mood, i.e., happiness and optimism caused by Ramadan itself.

	BAH	BAN	DUB	EGYPT	IND	JOR	KUW	LEB	MAL	MOR	OMAN	PAK	QATAR	S.A.	TUN	TUR
Bahrain	1															
Bangladesh	0,003	1														
Dubai	-0,007	-0,013	1													
Egypt	-0,002	-0,018	0,005	1												
Indonesia	-0,031	0,036	-0,005	-0,003	1											
Jordan	-0,011	-0,024	-0,000	-0,006	-0,003	1										
Kuwait	0,027	0,004	0,000	-0,004	-0,015	0,027	1									
Lebanon	-0,023	-0,024	-0,026	-0,023	0,019	-0,012	-0,011	1								
Malaysia	0,005	0,011	-0,004	-0,029	0,292	-0,000	-0,011	0,008	1							
Morocco	-0,036	0,028	-0,019	0,029	-0,000	-0,006	-0,007	-0,033	-0,032	1						
Oman	-0,015	-0,002	-0,0100	-0,006	-0,014	-0,021	-0,010	0,003	0,000	-0,034	1					
Pakistan	0,017	0,018	0,004	-0,002	0,074	0,024	0,005	-0,009	0,069	-0,012	-0,019	1				
Qatar	0,009	-0,001	-0,016	0,000	-0,005	0,008	0,021	0,000	0,006	0,005	0,005	-0,003	1			
S. Arabia	-0,024	-0,033	0,001	-0,017	0,029	-0,011	-0,011	0,017	-0,016	0,004	-0,013	0,008	-0,004	1		
Tunisia	0,005	-0,021	-0,015	0,003	-0,016	0,002	-0,007	-0,020	-0,019	-0,010	0,000	-0,010	0,005	0,000	1	
Turkey	-0,009	-0,004	-0,009	-0,018	0,012	0,002	0,025	0,006	0,012	-0,013	0,012	0,024	0,038	0,007	-0,026	1

 Table 5. Correlation Coefficients Matrix (Excluding Ramadan Days)

Table 6. Correlation Coefficients Matrix (Ramadan Days)

	BAH	BAN	DUB	EGYPT	IND	JOR	KUW	LEB	MAL	MOR	OMAN	PAK	QATAR	S.A.	TUN	TUR
Bahrain	1															
Bangladesh	0,014	1														
Dubai	-0,108	0,011	1													
Egypt	0,068	0,023	0,052	1												
Indonesia	-0,053	0,016	0,021	0,023	1											
Jordan	0,023	-0,031	0,022	-0,035	-0,041	1										
Kuwait	0,006	0,015	0,042	-0,003	-0,072	0,059	1									
Lebanon	-0,039	-0,006	-0,002	0,009	-0,008	-0,009	0,000	1								
Malaysia	-0,006	0,000	0,067	-0,032	0,837	0,003	-0,018	0,004	1							
Morocco	-0,054	0,085	0,093	-0,015	-0,000	0,016	-0,023	0,032	-0,034	1						
Oman	0,1246	-0,019	0,034	-0,230	0,002	-0,017	0,039	0,043	0,032	-0,043	1					

THE 4th INTERNATIONAL ACADEMIC CONFERENCE ON SOCIAL SCIENCES 87

Pakistan	0,0085	-0,081	-0,002	-0,002	-0,010	-0,014	0,051	0,038	0,001	-0,010	-0,014	1				
Qatar	-0,0749	0,223	0,15 1	0,007	0,018	0,009	0,003	- 0,034	0,009	0,169	0,020	0,022	1			
S. Arabia	-0,0315	-0,014	0,036	0,025	-0,030	0,063	0,017	0,032	0,010	0,080	0,060	0,033	0,069	1		
Tunisia	0,0098	0,064	-0,022	-0,063	0,054	-0,010	0,015	- 0,006	0,066	-0,012	0,016	0,004	0,015	-0,038	1	
Turkey	-0,0144	0,077	-0,036	0,009	-0,015	0,010	0,066	0,034	0,015	0,065	-0,005	0,051	0,009	-0,025	0, 082	1

Table 7 displays the regression analysis of the Ramadan effect on stock markets. According to the results, Ramadan's effect on the Bahrain Stock Exchange, Bursa Malaysia, and Casablanca Stock Exchange are negative but statistically insignificant. This shows that Malaysian society is a devoted Islamic society and members of Malaysian society are less actively involved in corporeal pursuits and spend increasingly more time in prayers during this holy month. Malaysian society might be called closer to Islamic practices [22]. The same might apply to the Moroccan society as well. Negative results found for Bahrain might, however, reflect the country's religious and cultural differences. Whereas the other countries included in this study are mostly Sunni, Bahrain's population is mostly Shia. Ramadan

is important in Bahrain, but Shias also focus on the rituals of grieving and martyrdom associated with the death of Ali ibn Abi Talib and the loss of his sons Hussein and Hassan. Due to these events, a less positive social mood might be exhibited [6]. Among the 16 countries studied, 13 Muslim financial markets exhibit positive returns during Ramadan; this might be attributed to the generally positive investor mood or sentiment. The Dubai Financial Market, Amman Stock Exchange, and Tunis Stock Exchange show statistically significant differrences between Ramadan and non-Ramadan periods at 10%. The Karachi Stock Exchange is statistically significant at 1%. It can, therefore, be concluded that Ramadan exerts an overall, direct positive effect on stock exchanges.

Table 7. Results of Regression Analysis

	Coefficient	t-stat	Prob.	R^2
Bahrain_RamadanEffect	-0,00022	-0,62749	0,5304	0,000119
Bangladesh_RamadanEffect	0,00028	0,4184	0,6757	0,000026
Dubai_RamadanEffect*	0,00213	1,7677	0,0773	0,001026
Egypt_RamadanEffect	0,00053	0,7532	0,4513	0,000037
Indonesia_RamadanEffect	0,00085	1,35828	0,1744	0,000276
Jordan_RamadanEffect*	0,00074	1,72616	0,0844	0,000445
Kuwait_RamadanEffect	0,000207	0,426534	0,6697	0,000045
Lebanon_RamadanEffect	0,00028	0,461437	0,445	0,000042
Malaysia_RamadanEffect	-0,00012	-0,21885	0,8268	0,000007
Morocco_RamadanEffect	-0,00047	-1,01749	0,309	0,000291
Oman_RamadanEffect	0,00059	1,0761	0,2819	0,000236
Pakistan_RamadanEffect***	0,00163	2,60881	0,0091	0,001016
Qatar_RamadanEffect	0,000426	0,3215	0,7478	0,000023
Saudi Arabia_RamadanEffect	0,00002	0,02802	0,9776	0,0000
Tunisia_RamadanEffect*	0,00049	1,78424	0,0745	0,000691
Turkey_RamadanEffect	0,00115	1,0217	0,3069	0,000156

Significance Level: * indicates 10%, ** indicates 5%, *** indicates 1%

Table 8 shows the Ramadan effect divided into the three periods as discussed earlier. According to these results, for the first 10 days, the Ramadan effect is negative for Bahrain, Bangladesh, Egypt, Indonesia, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Malaysia, Morocco, Oman, Qatar, and Saudi Arabia. These results are consistent with our argument for the first days of Ramadan being the hardest for adherents because the need to adjust to fasting during the earlier days might overshadow the positive emotions aroused by the holy period. In contrast, during this first period, only the Turkish stock market shows positive returns, which is statistically significant at 10%. Results for the last 10 days of Ramadan are positive for all countries apart from Malaysia. The findings for the stock markets of Bangladesh and Tunisia are statistically significant at 10%; findings for Dubai, Egypt, Jordan, and Oman are statistically significant at 5% and results for Pakistan's stock market are statistically significant at 1%, so these results are also consistent with our assertion. The last 10 days of Ramadan are the most blessed part, as they include *Laylat Al-Qadar* and the period when the Quran being first revealed to Prophet Mohammad. In addition, the third period is also leads to Eid-ul-Fitr. During this time, people purchase gifts, clothes, and food commodities for the feast. It is the time to celebrate the completion of a month of blessing with family and friends. For the second period of Ramadan, the findings for the stock markets of Malaysia and Jordan are both positive and statistically significant at 10%. Interestingly, returns on the Bursa Malaysia are negative for both the first and last 10 days of Ramadan; however, its returns are both positive and statistically significant for the 10 days in the middle of Ramadan.

	Coefficient	t-stat	p-value
BAHRAIN			
RAMADAN 1_10	-0,00069	-1,17823	0,2388
RAMADAN 11_20	-0,000088	-0,14847	0,882
RAMADAN 21_30	0,0001	0,18569	0,8527
BANGLADESH			
RAMADAN 1_10	-0,00028	-0,24996	0,8026
RAMADAN 11_20	-0,00084	-0,73677	0,4613
RAMADAN 21_30*	0,001999	1,73479	0,0828
DUBAI			
RAMADAN 1_10	0,00101	0,50441	0,614
RAMADAN 11_20	0,00129	0,64031	0,522
RAMADAN 21_30**	0,00419	2,02931	0,0425
EGYPT			
RAMADAN 1_10	-0,001442	-1,213845	0,2249
RAMADAN 11_20	0,00046	0,38804	0,698
RAMADAN 21_30**	0,00259	2,17554	0,0296
INDONESIA			
RAMADAN 1_10	-0,00061	-0,58196	0,5606
RAMADAN 11_20**	0,00256	2,40188	0,0163
RAMADAN 21_30	0,00066	0,61976	0,5355
JORDAN			
RAMADAN 1_10	-0,00056	-0,78815	0,4306
RAMADAN 11_20*	0,0012	1,66659	0,0956
RAMADAN 21_30**	0,00168	2,25308	0,0243
KUWAIT			
RAMADAN 1_10	-0,000102	-0,124611	0,9008
RAMADAN 11_20	-0,000050	-0,059673	0,9524
RAMADAN 21_30	0,000733	0,920182	0,3575
LEBANON			
RAMADAN 1_10	-0,00087	-0,8904	0,3733
RAMADAN 11_20	0,00105	1,06652	0,2862
RAMADAN 21_30	0,0007	0,70932	0,4782
MALAYSIA			

Table 8. Regression Results of Ramadan 1-10, Ramadan 11-20, Ramadan 21-30

RAMADAN 1_10	-0,00102	-1,1036	0,2698
RAMADAN 11_20*	0,00157	1,66816	0,0953
RAMADAN 21_30	-0,00088	-0,94261	0,3459
MOROCCO			
RAMADAN 1_10	-0,00108	-1,40582	0,1599
RAMADAN 11_20	-0,00051	-0,65176	0,5146
RAMADAN 21_30	0,00019	0,24607	0,8056
OMAN			
RAMADAN 1_10	-0,00095	-1,03414	0,3011
RAMADAN 11_20	0,00066	0,71925	0,472
RAMADAN 21_30**	0,00206	2,23691	0,0253
PAKISTAN			
RAMADAN 1_10	0,0005	0,47867	0,6322
RAMADAN 11_20	0,00125	1,17853	0,2386
RAMADAN 21_30***	0,003175	3,00809	0,0026
QATAR			
RAMADAN 1_10	-0,00102	-0,48938	0,6246
RAMADAN 11_20	0,00155	0,71372	0,4754
RAMADAN 21_30	0,00002	0,01092	0,9913
SAUDI ARABIA			
RAMADAN 1_10	-0,00168	-1,28506	0,1988
RAMADAN 11_20	-0,00031	-0,23494	0,8143
RAMADAN 21_30	0,00036	1,49777	0,1343
TUNUSIA			
RAMADAN 1_10	0,000464	1,01824	0,3086
RAMADAN 11_20	0,000173	0,37293	0,7092
RAMADAN 21_30*	0,000839	1,79813	0,0722
TURKEY			
RAMADAN 1_10*	0,00343	1,80792	0,0707
RAMADAN 11_20	-0,00006	-0,02895	0,9769
RAMADAN 21_30	0,00001	0,00625	0,995

Significance Level: * indicates 10%, ** indicates 5%*** indicates 1%

Conclusion

The month of Ramadan is one the most renowned religious rituals in the world for more than 1.5 billion Muslims. Muslims alter many aspects of their behavior during the month of Ramadan. Their working patterns change and they are focused more on praying, reciting the Qu-ran, and giving alms from their previous year's earnings. These prac-tices bring about greater solidarity and collabo-ration between Muslims. This study analyzes the effect of Ramadan on the stock exchanges of 16 Muslim countries. Out of the countries that were studied, Indonesia and Bahrain have the highest and lowest population, respectively. Sunnis are a majority in 14 countries; Shias are a majority in Bahrain; while Lebanon has an equal number of Sunnis and Shias. Altogether, 885 million Muslims live in these countries. The population of Saudi Ara-bia is entirely Islamic, whereas Lebanon has the lowest Muslim population with a ratio of 54%. Excluding the days of Ramadan, Borsa Istanbul had the highest returns, whereas the Beirut Stock Exchange had the lowest returns. Except for Lebanon, all markets have positive returns during the period analyzed for this study. During Rama-dan days, Qatar Stock Exchange has the highest average market returns, whereas Bursa Malaysia has the lowest returns. The stock market returns of Bahrain, Malaysia, Morocco, and Lebanon have negative average returns. However, the markets returns of Bangladesh, Dubai, Egypt, Pakistan, Jor-dan, Kuwait, Indonesia, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Tu-nisia, and Turkey are higher during Ramadan com-pared with other days. According to the results of the regression analysis, the Ramadan effect is ne-gative but statistically insignificant for the Bahrain Stock Exchange, Bursa Malaysia, and Casablanca Stock Exchange. Among the 16 countries studied, 13 Muslim financial markets have positive returns during Ramadan, which can be attributed to the generally positive investor mood or emotions. The differences in returns on the Dubai Financial Market, Amman Stock Exchange, and Tunis Stock Exchange are statistically significant at 10%, while it is statistically significant for the Karachi Stock Exchange at 1%. It can, therefore, be concluded that Ramadan exerts a direct positive effect on stock exchanges in the countries studied.

In addition, the study divides Ramadan into three 10day periods. According to the results, during the first 10 days of Ramadan, its effect is negative for Bahrain, Bangladesh, Egypt, Indonesia, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Malaysia, Morocco, Oman, Qatar, and Saudi Arabia. These results are consistent with our argument about the first days of Ramadan being the hardest upon participants. On the other hand, only the Turkish stock market shows results that are both positive and statistically significant at 10% during the first 10 days of Ramadan. Results for the last 10 days of Ramadan are positive for all countries apart from Malaysia. The findings for the stock markets of Bangladesh and Tunisia are statistically significant at 10%; results for Dubai, Egypt, Jordan, and Oman are statistically significant at 5%, and those for Pakistan are statistically significant at 1%. These results are also consistent with our assertion. The last 10 days of Ramadan are the most blessed duration of the month, and the results indicate that positive mood of the investors during the period positively impacts stock prices. To the extent that Ramadan contributes to investors' positive mood, it might increase their tendency to invest.

References

[1] Al-Ississ, M. 2015. The Hoy Day Effect. *Journal of Behavioral and Experimental Finance*, 5, 60-80.

[2] Seyyed, F. J., Abraham, A, Al-Hajji, M. 2005. Seasonality in stock returns and volatility: The Ramadan effect. *Research in International Business and Finance* 19, 374-383.

[3] Białkowski, J., Etebari, A, Wisniewski, T. P. 2012. Fast profits: Investor sentiment and stock returns during Ramadan. *Journal of Banking & Finance* 36, 835-845.

[4] *The Protestant Ethic and Spirit of Capita-lism* (Kalberg, S, Trans.). London: Fitzroy Dearborn, 2001.

[5] Beit-Hallalmi, B, Argyle, M. 1997. *The Psychology of Religious Behavior*. Belief and Experience. Routledge, London.

[6] Al-Hajieh, H., Redhead, K, Rodgers, T. 2011. Investor sentiment and calendar anomaly effects: A case study of the impact of Ramadan on Islamic Middle Eastern markets. *Research in International Business and Finance* 25, 345–356.

[7] Alrashidi, F., Ahmed, M, Beneid, F. 2014. The calendar impact and trading behavior: An empirical evidence from around the globe. *International Business & Economics Research Journal* 13:5, 1025-1032.

[8] Iqbal, M. S., Kouser, R, Azeem, M. (2013). Conventional and Islamic anomalies in Karachi stock exchange. Retrieved December 02, 2015 from http://www.sci-int.com/pdf/ 132487349256-999--1007--Rehana%20kausar-Manuscript%20BZ%20 Uni.pdf.

[9] Husain, F. 1998. A seasonality in the Pakistani equity market: The Ramadhan effect. *The Pakistan Development Review* 37:1, 77-81.

[10] Frieder, L, Subrahmanyam, A. 2004. Nonsecular regularities in returns and volume. *Financial Analysts Journal* 60:4, 29-34.

[11] Ramezani, A., Pourahajan, A, Mardani, H. (2013). Studying impact of Ramadan on stock exchange index: Case of Iran. *World of Sciences Journal* 1:12, 46-54.

[12] Shah, A. R, Ahmed, S. N. 2014. The Ramadan effect on stock market. *European Academic* Research 1:11, 4712-4720.

[13] Alatiyat, M., A. 2014. Ramadan effect on UAE stock market. Retrieved December 15, 2015 from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/263090131 _Ramadan_Effect_On_UAE_Stock_Market_Banks _Sector.

[14] *Surah Al-Qadr (97:3)*. Retrieved December 25, 2015 from http://quran.com/97.

[19] *Create Calendar*. Retrieved November 20, 2015 from http://www.timeanddate.com/calendar/ custom. html?year=2004&country=74&cols=1&typ=0&displ ay=1&df=1.

[20] *Countries in the world (Ranked by 2014 population).* Retrieved December 10, 2015 from http:// www.worldometers.info/world-population/ popu lation-by-country/.

[21] *Dini Günler*. Retrieved November 10, 2015 from http://takvim.ihya.org/1990-yili-dini-gunler-takvimi.html.

[22] Akhter, A., Sandhu, A, Butt S. 2015. Islamic calendar effect on market risk and return Evidence from Islamic countries. *Journal of Business and Finance Affairs*, 4:140. doi: 10.4172/2167-0234.100 0140.

[23] Nofsinger, J. R. (2002). Do optimists make the best investors? *Corporate Finance Review* 6:4, 11-17.

[15] *Population of Muslim Countries*. Retrieved December 28, 2015 from https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/fields /2122.html.

[16] *Ramadan's Calendar*. Retrieved November 15, 2015 from http://www.dnzh.com/webservices/ra madancalendar.aspx.

[17] Ramadan in Dubai. Retrieved November 10, 2015 from http://www.dubaifaqs.com/ramadan-in-dubai.php.

[18] Saudi Ummul-Qura Calendar. Retrieved November 17, 2015 from http://www.moonsighting .com/actual-saudi-dates.pdf.

[15] *Population of Muslim Countries*. Retrieved December 28, 2015 from https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/fields/2122.html.

[16] *Ramadan's Calendar*. Retrieved November 15, 2015 from http://www.dnzh.com/webservices/rama dancalendar.aspx.

[17] Ramadan in Dubai. Retrieved November 10, 2015 from http://www.dubaifaqs.com/ramadan-in-dubai.php.

[18] Saudi Ummul-Qura Calendar. Retrieved November 17, 2015 from http://www.moonsighting. com/actual-saudi-dates.pdf.

The analysis of approaches to the definition of "efficiency" of the corporate risk management

Vasilisa Makarova

National Research University Higher School of Economics, Russia <u>vmakarova@hse.ru</u>

Abstract: Identification and assessment of the effectiveness of corporate risk management has a special mission to promote the development of science . Different authors demonstrate the variety of approaches to the identification and interpretation of efficiency (indirect vs. direct, qualitative vs. quantitative, economic vs. managerial, etc.), but the role of risk management efficiency as the part of the corporate' system of management and governance seems to be a commonplace. We have identified a relatively small number of scientific papers devoted to the problem risk management effectiveness. There is no consensus on the definition of the effectiveness of risk management. In the studied approaches to the definition there is no unity, as a corporate risk management rather multifaceted. At the same time, it is impossible to consider, for example, the effectiveness of the risk management process in isolation from economic efficiency. This paper is an attempt to fill this gap. The article presents the discussion of approaches to determine the effectiveness of risk management, the results of the systematization of the key factors in the effectiveness of risk management. As a conclusion the complex definition of risk management efficiency is given, which is based on key parameters of the presented approaches, as well as the basic directions of development of the study area are presented.

Introduction

Risk management as a science was founded over 90 years ago in a book of F.H. Knight "Risk, Uncertainty and Profit", where the risk is defined as the measured uncertainty, and ever since it has been developed into an independent scientific direction. Since there are several key steps in risk theory can be distinguished: in the works of American mathematicians O. Morgenstern and John. Neumann relationship concepts of "uncertainty" and "risk" has been revealed. In the early 20th century A. Fayolle [1] included function of ensuring the safety of Organization in the management functions. Other key moments in the development of the risk theory were: the Markowitz portfolio theory [2], Modigliani papers on investment theory [3,4], N. Black-M. Scholes Option Pricing Model [5], and other works, which have changed the opportunities of financial market.

Finally the science of risk was formed only in the last quarter of the 20th century, mainly due to the practical needs and the importance of stable social reproduction in the economy. The question of the importance of risk management implementation into the company's activity was staged in 2001 by Stephen Ward [6]. In his works, he proved that risk management is an essential function of corporate governance and raised the necessity of formalizing risk management in order to increase its effectiveness.

It should be noted that by that time a set of risk management standards, programs and methods of corporate risk management (SNW, SWOT, PEST) exist, the application of which was dictated purely by practical necessity of stock exchanges, financial and insurance companies and the development of which has not had sufficient theoretical justification. As a result the most of managers perceived risk management as an additional burden to the basic functions, provoking unnecessary bureaucratization of management procedures of a company.

1. Prior research and the literature review

We have revealed rather small amount of research papers devoted to the problem of the risk management effectiveness assessment. There is no consensus on their effectiveness.

The existed Enterprise Risk Management (ERM) programs (ISO 31000:2009; BS 3100:2008; COSO:2004; FERMA:2002; OCEG Red Book 2.0:2009; COSO:2004; SOLVENCY II) were designed to integrate management of risks from a wide variety of sources [7].

ERM improves risk management by promoting awareness of all sources of risk, and by aligning stra-tegic and operational decision-making across the entity with the company's risk appetite [8,9].

As such, ERM is a corporate governance mechanism that constraints and coordinates managers' behavior. While potential benefits to firm performance and value (e.g., through improving efficiency and reducing volatility) have been exposed [10; 11] there is little available archival evidence on these benefits [7]. Prior research addersses determinants and market implications of corporate governance choices such as internal control effectiveness [e.g., 12, 13] and expertise of personnel in governance [e.g., 14]. These issues have not been examined with respect to ERM efficiency [7].

Evaluation of the efficiency of the corporate risk management is the most unexplored area of risk management at the moment. Scientific literature in abundance present various methods of risk management, are much different from each other, but none of them answers the question: "how do I measure the value ERM is delivering to my company" [15].

Prior research in the field of ERM investigates how corporate control mechanisms affect allocation and utilization of economic resources [16]. For instance, the quality of ERM may affect allocation of resources through market participants' perceptions of the reliability and persistence of accounting earnings. However, Zimmerman [17] notes that a key constraint on empirical research on manage-ment control systems (MCS) is the lack of information on what corporations do internally. Concerns over the quality of publicly available proxies for corporate governance quality are also expressed by Larcker, Richardson, and Tuna [18]. Further, Davila and Foster [19,20,21] and Ittner and Larcker [22] both note the difficulties of using manager perceptions as indicators of MCS quality.

Analysis of the existing economic literature on the theory of risk, risk management, corporate governance and management of the organization revealed that several approaches exist to the methods of evaluating the effectiveness of risk management and the efficiency of the concept of risk management of the company in general.

For example, Hilson D. and R. Murray-Webster [23] define efficiency as the ability to achieve goals with minimal cost, but in respect of risk management, they emphasize that the effectiveness of it is the process of implementation of goals and achievements of the result. They state that "that awareness and application of risk management has penetrated widely into the world of business, and it is now seen as a key contributor to business and project success. Risk management tools, techniques and processes are being implemented with increasing efficiency as organizations seek to reap the promised rewards of

proactively addressing the effects of uncertainty on achievement of objectives." [23]

A number of authors [24; 25; 26; 27] do not give any definition of the efficiency of risk management, but note that in the framework of corporate governance should be an effective risk management strategy, as a result of which the company is ready for any possible developments in a timely manner and immediately respond to them and is able to use them to improve the efficiency of the company in general. They state that RM is inseparable from corporate government and offer to share efficient risk management from general efficiency through KPI's.

Slightly different approach is contained in the works of authors on value basic and strategic management [28; 29; 30]. In their understanding, risk management is an "...integral strategic process, and the formal approach to managing risk consider to be a major driver of a organizational performance... the effectiveness of risk management is the added value of the company created due to application elements of risk management in corporate governance...". In this case, the authors provide an integrated assessment of the effectiveness of risk management through performance deviation of values, but their technique does not allow for the factor analysis, as well as highlight a share efficiency of risk management in the overall effectiveness of the company's managers.

Andersen [31] poses a risk management as a firm's ability to cope with environmental risks and uncertainties that could affect variability in net sales and thereby influence the stability of the corporate earning development. This comprises activities that enable the organization to reduce variation in corporate earnings including financial hedging, process control, enterprise wide risk management, strategic responsiveness, etc. The author proposes to use the standard deviation of annual net sales divided by the standard deviation of return on asset over the period as a measure of risk management effectiveness. In his later article he states that effective risk management capabilities enable the firm to counter adverse effect caused by various environmental risks by furnishing a stream of business opportunities that increase strategic responsiveness and hence reduce variability in corporate earnings. The associated performance predicttably should reduce expected bankruptcy costs and provide comfort to key stakeholders group that the firm is a reliable long-business term partner [32]. He prove, that firms, demonstrating higher level of risk management effectiveness compared to their

industry peers, are associated with higher performance outcomes (among them are: lower average cost of capital, lower transactional premiums charged by commercial counterparts; lower eff-ective corporate tax rate; lower earnings volatility).

Some authors give a qualitative characteristic of efficiency of risk management [33, 34] They state, that effective risk management responses frequently include avoidance, control, cooperation and limitation. They states, that risk management will only be efficient if people throughout the organization receive clear, consistent messages from leadership and understand what they need to do [35] Much broader question of the efficiency of risk management is presented in papers devoted to project risk management. For example, Chris Chapman and Stephan Ward [44] give "basic definition" of risk efficiency "the minimum risk decision choice for a given level of expected performance', 'expected performance' being a best estimate of what should happen on average, 'risk 'being' the possibility of adverse departures from expectations". They state, that at the project level the efficiency of risk management will yield if the if the rule is observed: "Always minimize the expected cost of a project unless the risk implications at a corporate level are unacceptable, in which case the minimum expected cost increase to yield an acceptable level of corporate risk should be sought. «Unity of interpretation of the concept of risk management efficiency is due to the existence of a single detailed methodology of project risk management dictated by standard of project management [36].

Sufficiently interested is the position of a number of authors who argue that the effectiveness of risk management "....cannot be judged on whether such outcomes materialize. The role of risk management is to limit the probability of such outcomes to an agreed-upon value-maximizing level... Different organizations can manage the same risk with differrent levels of effectiveness. And one goal of enterprise risk management should be to encourage corporate focus by getting rid of all the functions that can be performed more effectively outside the organization....." [45]. In this case, the term "successful" is used [25,15].

Follow-up studies in the field of ERM efficiency investigate how enterprise risk management increases the value of the company. The question of whether or not increases, and if so, how it is relevant for companies that are in the process of decision-making on the construction of the risk management system and for evaluating the effectiveness of an already running system [37,11]. Companies implementing elements of risk management (insurance and hedging) really show the best, compared to other companies, indicators [37], but EPM is a complex methodology, and the definition of the com-plex effect of ERM can be done by studying the reaction of the stock market for the presence of the company's risk management system.

In a study of Beasley M., Pagach D., and Warr R. [10] an indicator of ERM efficiency is the information about appointment of CRO. The appearance of a top manager, consolidating activities in the field of risk management is seen as a signal that the board of directors and senior management are aware of the importance of ERM, and the system is at a certain stage of development. Practical study of research rather weak confirms this hypothesis: for 120 companies (62 are the financial sector, 24 energy, 34 - other industries), where in the period of 1992-2003 CRO were appointed, no statistically significant association between this event and the change in the stock price. However, for a subset of large non-financial companies with relatively low liquidity of the market responds positively to the appearance in the company of Chief Risk Officer.

Hoyt R. and Liebenberg A. [11] argue that the indicator of ERM is existence of reports on the activities in the field of risk management, presented in the statements of the company and the media. The study focused on the insurance segment in the US in 1995-2004. For 16% of the 166 insurers found information that allows concluding that the presence of the company's risk management system. The company's value expressed in terms of Tobin's q (the ratio of market value to the replacement cost of tangible assets), for which a model depending on the indicator ERM and other value drivers. The impact of ERM on firm value is statistically significant: ERM-premium averaged 3.6% of the value of the company.

In relation to public companies a comparative analysis of the share price of companies that have implemented and implemented ERM, in moments of the stock market crash can be applied. According to various studies, the presence of the risk mangement system falling of stock prices is reduced by 10-30%, and it is much faster in returning to precrisis levels[46].

Despite this, the practice of risk management in abundance provides various methods, tools and recommendations on risk management. Hilson D. and R. Murray-Webster [23] provide the most comprehensive list of organizations and societies exist specially to promote and support the discipline of risk management on international level. Among the most prominent are the Institute of Risk Management (IRM) and the Association of Insurance and Risk Managers (AIRMIC) in the UK, the Global Association of Risk Professionals (GARP), the Public Risk Management Association (PRIMA), the Risk Management Association (RMA), the Federation of European Risk Management Associations (FERMA), the European Institute of Risk Management (EIRM) and the Society for Risk Analysis (SRA). Other professional bodies in different sectors also have specific interest groups (SIGs) covering risk management, for example the Project Management Institute (PMI), the UK Association for Project Management (APM), the International Association of Contract and Commercial Managers (IACCM), the International Council on Systems Engineering (INCOSE), the Insurance Information Institute (III), the Insurance Institute of America (IIA), the Risk Management Institution of Australasia (RMIA) and the Professional Risk Managers' International Association (PRMIA).

This list can be extended with International Organization for Standardization, Committee of Sponsoring Organization of the Treadway Commission and a few local national societies. All of these societies give their own vision and recommendations of to the risk management of the company, of neither of them can fully mitigate risks. Choice of a particular model of risk management depends on the target audience and the availability of consultants in the market. The most common standards are ISO , OCEG, BS, COSO, FERMA, SOLVENCY II.

Worth noting that the use of standards is more positive aspect to the firm, rather than an extra extension to the existing system management and monitoring. Each standard, anyway, has three main objectives:

1) accompany the objectives of the company, or even assist in the identification of new, higher targets;

2) help to maintain a certain level of activity in the company, and to assist in controlling the operation of all units;

3) To provide the proper level of compliance with existing government regulations, standards, etc.

A predominant ERM framework sees risk management as the means to assure that corporate goals are achieved [8; 38]. That is, the handling of changing conditions is not depicted in these frameworks as a part of dynamic strategy-making process. Nevertheless, the strategic responsiveness of the firm seen essential for effective risk management outcomes given that strategic risks constitute some of the most significant corporate exposures [39]. That means that risk management not only serves to limit downside losses, but also seeks to identify, develop, and exploit opportunities [39,40 30].

The presented approaches to the management risk efficiency are the result of its versatility. Risk Management is so versatile that evaluation of the effectiveness of management activities for its implementation in a single operation is not possible, so rank is offered as a measure to assess its efficiency.

From the theoretical point of view, the efficient risk management is a strategy that improves corporate governance in general and represents the ability to cope with environmental risks and uncertainties that could affect variability in net sales and thereby influence the stability of the corporate earning development.

From a practical point of view, efficient risk management is a process precisely organized in accordance with the recommendations of standards and programs and is focused on the optimization of the company's profits under risks.

None of the listed above approaches to determine efficiency of the ERM cannot be transferred to the Russian market. Firstly, the necessary conditions for their use are the publicity of a companies and the availability of daily stock price history for several years before and after the implementation of the risk management system. Secondly, the impact of hedging on the value organizations cannot be evaluated because of the virtual absence of the derivatives market. Third, collection a sample of companies of required size is not possible: very few Russian non-financial firms have implemented ERM, and even fewer companies that have approached to the issue not formally. Moreover, it is impossible to form the sample of companies by industry sector.

Solution seems in finding the positive effects of risk management that can be converted into a company's value.

Summing up different approaches to determining of efficiency, we can conclude that:

1. Qualitative and quantitative

2. ERM efficiency on the level of a company or of a project

3. ERM efficiency from the perspective of target audience: cost effectiveness, operational efficiency (managerial efficiency), process efficiency, valuebased efficiency and market efficiency (how the market responds to the ERM), etc.

3. Results

Analysis of the definitions of "ERM efficiency " revealed the following key points: Effective ERM:

 reveals most of the factors that create an unfavorable environment for the company's activity
 reveals opportunities to improve the efficiency

of the company 3. enables the company to be ready for any eventuality;

4. is strategically and value oriented system;

5. operatively and promptly responds to changes;

6. positively affects on a persistence of accounting earnings, on a firm performance and value;

7. is clearable system with minimum decision choice.

And at the same time, ERM as an integral part of business management should therefore meet the basic criteria of business efficiency [PRMIA, COSO, 2004;Andersen T. 2008], such as:

1. At the same time, the risk management is an integral part of business management should therefore meet the basic criteria of business efficiency [36, 8, 31], such as:

1. To be good at turning out maximum outputs given minimum inputs [41];

2. To be on the verge of production capacity;

3. Reduce the cost of debt [37];

4. Create added value for shareholders and stakeholders [42];

5. Create favorable conditions for self-fulfillment and professional growth of managers and senior management personnel [43].

Summing up presented characteristics it can be concluded that the efficiency of ERM is the sum of formation of a risk-oriented company culture and the implementation of all regulatory procedures on risk management, having a non-direct positive impact on business performance.

Conclusion

Thus, the represented definition of "efficiency" covers and direct qualitative characteristics of risk management and the positive impact on the effectiveness of company performance.. In this case it is necessary to take into account the indirect impact, since the risk management should be balanced between the desire to regulate as much as possible procedures and at the same time not harm the company's key performance indicators.

Application of the proposed approach to the definition of efficiency is seen in the practical assessment of the effectiveness of risk management processes.

Practical approaches to evaluating the effectiveness of risk management is still under development: so, S & P intends to develop integrated methods of assessment only in 2016 and then implement them in the rating business valuation. Evaluation the efficiency of ERM is not expediently carried out through separate scoring, but as part of the overall business risk rating companies in the following areas: compliance, stock market, strategy, processes.

Thus, the evaluation of the efficiency of risk management need the following set of measures:

• Assessment of the economic effects of risk management;

• Evaluation of compliance and organizational effectiveness of risk management: in this case we are going to use rating score;

• Evaluation the efficiency of subject area of risk management

The result is a multi-component system performance evaluation, focused on compliance with the best principles of risk management as well as with creation of business value.

References

[1] Fayolle A, General and Industrial Management (Moskow, 1992)

[2] Markowitz H.M. Portfolio Selection. The Journal of Finance 7 (1),1952, pp77–91.

[3] Modigliani, F.; Miller, M. The Cost of Capital, Corporation Finance and the Theory of Investment. American Economic Review 48 (3), 1958, pp 261– 297.

[4] F.Modigliani, M.Miller, Corporate income taxes and the cost of capital: a correction. American Economic Review 53 (3): 1963, pp 433–443. JSTOR 1809167.

[5] F. Black, M. Scholes. The Pricing of Options and Corporate Liabilities. Journal of Political Economy 81 (3): 637–654. [6] Stephen W. Exploring the role of the Corporate Risk Manager, Risk Management. Vol. 3, No. 1, 2001, 7-25.

[7] R.Baxter, J. C.Bedard, R.Hoitash, A.Yezegel Enterprise Risk Management Program Quality: Determinants, Value Relevance, and the Financial Crisis, Contemporary Accounting Research; Winter 2013, Vol. 30 Issue 4, 2003 ,p. 1264

[8] COSO ERM, Integrated Framework 2004 URL http://www.coso.org/-ERM.htm

[9] B.Nocco, R.Stulz, Enterprise risk management: Theory and practice, Journal of Applied Corporate Finance, 18, 2006, 8-20.

[10] M.Beasley, D.Pagach, R.Warr, Information conveyed in hiring announcements of senior executives overseeing enterprise-wide risk management processes. Journal of Accounting Auditing and Finance, 23, 2008, 311.

[11] R. Hoyt, A. Liebenberg, The value of enterprise risk management: Evidence from the U.S. insurance industry, University of Georgia. Working paper, 2006.

[12] Hammersley, J. S., L. A. Myers, and C. Shakespeare.. Market reactions to the disclosure of internal control weaknesses and to the characteristics of those weaknesses under section 302 of the Sarbanes Oxley Act of 2002. Review of Accounting Studies 13 (1) 2008

[13] H.Ashbaugh-Skaife, D.Collins,W.Kinney, R.La Fond. The effect of internal control deficiencies and their remediation on accrual quality. The Accounting Review 83(1), 2008, 217–50.

[14] M. L. Defond, R. N. Hann, X. HU, Does the Market Value Financial Expertise on Audit Committees of Boards of Directors?. Journal of Accounting Research, 43, 2005, 153–193.

[15] S.Minsky, How to Measure your Enterprise Risk Management Effectiveness, 2012 URL: http://www.logicmanager.com/erm-software /2012/ 01/03/how-to-measure-your-enterprise-riskmana gement-effectiveness/> viewed:05.03.2014

[16] Bushman R. M., Smith A. J. Financial accountting information and corporate governance. Journal of Accounting and Economics 32 (1–3): 2001,. 237–333. [17] W.Drobetz, A. Schillhofer, H. Zimmermann Corporate Governance and Expected Stock Returns: Evidence from Germany University of Basel, 2003

[18] Larcker, D. F., S. A. Richardson, and I. Tuna. Corporate Governance and Accounting Outcomes, The Accounting Review, Vol. 83, No. 4. 2007

[19] A. Davila, G. Foster, Management accounting systems adoption decisions: Evidence and performance implications from early-stage/startup companies. Accounting Review, 80(4), 2005, 1039-1068.

[20] A. Davila, G. Foster, Management control systems in early-stage startup companies. Accounting Review, 82(4), 2007, 907-937.

[21] Davila, A., Foster, G. & Li, M. Reasons for management control systems adoption: Insights from product development systems choice by earlystage entrepreneurial companies. Accounting, Organizations and Society, 34(3-4), 2009, 322-347.

[22] C. D. Ittner, D. F. Larcker, Assessing empirical research in managerial accounting: A value-based management perspective. Journal of Accounting and Economics (December): 12, 2001, 349-410.

[23] D. Hilson, R.Murray-Webster, Understanding and Managing Risk Attitude. (IMLTypographers, Birkenhead, Merseyside and Printed in Great Britain by MPG Books Ltd. Bodmin, Cornwall, 2005)

[24] A. Mamedova, Risk-menedzhment v Internetkompanii. (RUS) 2002, URL: www.uran.do netsk.ua/~masters/2005/fvti/mamedova/library/doc_ 1.htm.> viewed: 12.08.2014

[25] M.Basova, A.Michelsky, Risk Management KPIs: Efficiency Tool or Formality? 2011, URL <http://www.ermsymposium.org/2011/index.php>. viewed: 10.07.2014

[26] S.Jaspal, Metrics to Measure Risk Management Strategy Effectiveness, 2011, URL: http://soniajaspal.wordpress.com/ viewed: 10.07.2014

[27] T. Merna, F. Al-Thani. Corporate Risk Management. (Wiley. 2008)

[28] A. Badalova, Methodological approach to developing balanced risk classification of the enterprise. 2010. www.creativeconomy.ru Date Views 3.11.2012

[29] C.Ingley, van der Walt Do Board Processes Influence Director and Board Performance, Corporate Governance: An International Review. Vol. 13. No. 5. 2005.pp. 632-653.

[30] A. Damodaran, Return on Capital (ROC), Return on Invested Capital (ROIC) and Return on Equity (ROE): Measurement and Implications. 2007. pp. 5-7.

[31] T.J. Andersen, Effective risk management outcomes: Exploring effects of innovation and capital structure. Journal of Strategy and Management, 2(4), 2009, 352-379.

[32] E.Altman, O.Roggi, Measuring and Managing Risk, edited by E. Altman and O. Roggi, (World Scientific Press, 2013)

[33] D. Miller, P. Friesen, A longitudinal study of the corporate life cycle. Management science, 30 (10), 1984, .1161-1183.

[34] D. Miller, A. Kent, framework for integrated risk management in international business//Journal of international Business Studies 23:2, 1992, 311-331

[36] PMI, A Guide to the Project Management Body of Knowledge, 2013 URL:http://www.pmi. org/PMBOK-Guide-and-Standards.aspx viewed: 05.03.2014

[37] C.Smithson, B. Simkins, Does Risk Management Add Value? A Survey of the Evidence //Journal of Applied Corporate Finance, 17, 2005, 8-17. [38] Moeller, R. Robert, COSO Enterprise Risk Management. Understanding the new Integrated ERM Framework. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons. 2007

[39] Slywotzky, J.Adrian, J. Drzik, Countering the Biggest Risk of All. Harvard Business Review. 2005.

[40] D. Shimko and others, Approaches to Enterprise Risk Management (QFINANCE Key Concepts). 2013. 260 p.

[41] C.MacDonald, M. Whellams, "Greenwashing," Encyclopedia of Business Ethics and Society. Sage. 2007.

[42] Segal S, Corporate Value of Enterprise Risk Management: The Next Step in Business Management. (Wiley. 2011)

[43] K J.atzenbach, D. Smith ,The Wisdom of Teams: Creating the High-Performance Organization. (HarperBusiness , 2006.)

[44] C. Chapman, S. Ward. Why risk efficiency is a key aspect of best practice projects// International Journal of Project Management, 22, 2004, 619–632

[45] D.Chew,Corporate risk management (Edited by Columbia University Press. Kindle Edition. 2012)

[46] Standard & Poors. Enterprise Risk Management For Ratings Of Nonfinancial Corporations.6, 2008

Fair trade certified coffee small farmers empowerment in the southern state of Minas Gerais, Brazil

Prof. Sérgio Pedini Instituto Federal de Educação, Brasil <u>sergio.pedini@ifsuldeminas.edu.br</u> Prof. Fabio Maria Santucci Università degli Studi di Perugia, Italy <u>fabiomaria.santucci@unipg.it</u>

Abstract: In Brazil the fair trade coffee certification has been growing in recent years and many organizations have been commercializing through the fair trade way. In order to evaluate the potential of empowerment of the farmers involved, a study was realized at a cooperative in the South of Minas Gerais. In this study, empowerment includes the collective action developed by individuals when they participate in market decisions, and the awareness of social rights. The results show that the cognitive aspects presented significant differences, highlighting the sense of reality in which the small farmers live individually as well as their inclusion in discussions of organizational and institutional environment where their organization operates. This result reinforces how importantly small farmers relate to the associative principle and empowerment process.

Introduction

The environmental certification of production processes has grown in recent years due to the society pressure's for greater sustainability in all human activities. Factors such as global warming, depletion of natural resources and the socio-economic unbalance between people and nations are motivating social movements with arguments that reinforce this pressure. In agriculture the process is similar and the movement is in the sense that the productions must be environmentally balanced and socially fair. Environmental certification systems in agriculture are signs that social movements, especially those originating from consumers have reached that goal.

Historically legal norms, has been the only way to require farmers to advance through compliance with the environment and labor legislation. The environmental certification appeared more recently, more as a way to adapt to the market rules (consumer preference in this case) rather than to fulfill the law. But as the market itself asks for a certification requirement as a "passport" to ensure the farmers' market access. Recently the certification process has been determining certain behaviors from the value chain components. There are numerous certification processes that facilitate the agricultural products being sold in the

international market. For coffee the best known certification process by consumers are Utz, Rainforest Organic and Naturland, for example. Each one has its specific differences but with social, environmental and food safety aspects in common. Fair Trade Movement - FTM is a process that differs from the others due to specific characteristics. It is a movement that was born from humanitarian relief efforts from countries of the Northern Hemisphere to the Southern Hemisphere people differing from traditional food donations campaigns for a fairer trade relationship between consumers in rich countries and small farmers in poorer countries.

Among the unique features that differentiate the FTM from other certification systems is that it emphasizes the specific clause of a certified farmer for because only small farmers organized into associations or cooperatives can join in FTM. The definition of a minimum price to be adopted in business processes is another specific certification requirement. Therefore there is a direct intervention in the chain conduction. This action is coordinated by the certifier through the rules and regulations that guide the certification system. Thus, these standards are based on principles created by the movement that gave rise to the FTM linked to solidarity and empowerment of small farmers in the poorest countries. This movement that laid the foundations of what is now called FTM was born strongly linked to the international coffee marketing system, especially in Central America, because it is a widely consumed product in richer countries, where the movement was originated.

This movement which was born from traditional humanitarian aid, was intended to change the business relationship between "north-south" (rich countries - poor countries). It has been structured and organized in better formally criteria and has been materialized by the certification process. The FTM specifically with coffee has grown on every continent (both consumers and farmers), causing new coffee farmers organizations to join their certification processes and also including new customers interest in this product. This growth has attracted large roaster companies and food products distributors.

The fundamental question to be answered by this research was related to FTM's potential that of changing the small farmers' conditions whit in the global coffee business. This concern is justified due to the market standards promoting aligned business strategies with sustainability. There is also a possibility of increasing the small farmer's participation and strengthening their organizations in an environment in which predominates the coordination of large corporations.

To promote the discussion about coffee FTM evolution and how much it improves the small farmers participation in this market, this study sought to answer the following questions: Have small farmers and their organizations been empowered after entering the FTM? What kind of empowerment has occurred? And is FTM able to create an environment that generates small farmer's empowerment process?

The main objective of this study is to determine if FTM has the ability to change the conditions of small farmer's participation in the global market from a local experience study perspective, with special attention to the small farmers and their organizations empowerment. Empowerment is understood as the possibility of strengthening small farmers and their organizations, both individual (economic) and collective (relational). It is proposed to conduct a literature research about FTM and a field research about the empowerment potential that FTM has on small farmers and their certified organization in the southern state of Minas Gerais, Brasil.

1. FTM principles

In neo-classical economy particularly the utilitarian the price is the only determining factor in consumer choice. Since the 1960s initiatives linked to solidarity economy have been emerging as consumers make their decisions based on social and environmental criteria that is not always directly related to the lowest product price. According to Raynolds and Wilkinson (2008), FTM has emerged as one of the real possibilities of change promoted by international organizations that strive to change the paradigms of the international global market, especially in the food sector. According to the authors, the "Fair Trade market has grown and built an increasingly complex commodities array (producer relations/consumer and local and global policies)" (Raynolds, WILKINSON, 2008, p. 1). This has made the movement gain visibility and importance in the global food chain.

FTM has its origin in two ways, one European and one American, both appeared after World War II period. In Europe the movement was born throw initiatives linked to the christian churches that were concerned about the necessity of fairer trade relations between the "north" and "south", i.e., buyers from rich countries and poor countries suppliers. In fact, the information came from producing countries that had strong links with forced and even slave labor.

From these initiatives were born Alternative Trade Organizations (ATO), better known as World Shops. In the USA the movement was born from groups of volunteers involved in humanitarian aid to poor artisan groups countries that sold their products in small shops. According to Wilkinson (2007), another fact that marked the FTM history was the second UNCTAD Conference in 1968 which defended the thesis "trade not aid" and claimed that it should have been the new base of third world development.

In general, what all movements advocated and continue advocating is an innovative way to establish new trade relations, especially between rich countries (consumers) and poor countries (suppliers), as a counterpoint to the dominant process. Another FTM feature is the absence or the shy and modest role of the state as a mediator of trade relations.

In recent years different definitions, structures, brands, companies, enterprises and FTM processes there have grown and have institutionalized the movement, especially with the inclusion of certification processes and products sold at the FTM. Although with different connotations, the most referenced concept of FTM is the one deve-loped by FINE³ which deals that fair trade is a tra-ding partnership, based on dialogue, transparency and respect, that seeks greater equity in international

³ FINE is an informal organization established in 1998. It brings together the Fairtrade Labelling Organizations International (FLO), the former IFAT and now World Fair Trade Organization (WFTO), the Network of European Worldshops (NEWS!) And European Fair Trade Association (EFTA).

trade. It contributes to sustainable development by offering better trading conditions and by securing the rights of marginalized farmers and workers – especially in the South. Fair trade organizations backed by consumers are engaged actively in supporting farmers' awareness.

Despite any conceptual or standards differences, the movements have in common a steady growth in sales and an institutionalization which was considered "marginal" in its commercial procedure, this means, a market migration from "alternative" stores without defined rules to large supermarket chains and transnational corporations with business processes mediated by third party certifiers. This ensures, in principle, an increase in sales volume and, consequently, the increasing engagement of farmers and their organizations in the market.

Fairtrade Labelling Organizations International (FLO) is an "umbrella" organization that was created in Germany in 1997 and now represents twenty national initiatives in Europe, in the USA and in the Pacific region. FLO was the first organization to support the FTM to implement a certification structure of the organizations involved with standards and procedures based on existing traditional systems, mainly those related to organic agriculture. In 2004 FLO-Cert was created having a link to FLO to be responsible for the certification process.

Coffee was the first product to be certified by FLO. The idea was developed in 1981 in wich Frans van der Hoff, a dutch missionary who lived in Mexico, expressed his solidarity with the Oaxaca coffee far-mers who sold their product to intermediaries at "un-fair" prices. He found support from the Dutch NGO Solidaridad and developed a plan to organize the farmers so that they could sell their coffee directly to the consumers. In 1988 the Max Havelaar Foundation was established, a fair trade organization quality certification was created and the first fair trade label market was set. One of his biggest accomplishments was to get in European supermarkets, including Swi-tzerland.

Another organization that is also responsible for FTM products quality control is the World Fair Trade Organization (WFTO), established in 1989. In 2009 WFTO had 280 members in 62 countries across Europe, USA, Asia, Africa and Latin America (WFTO, 2010). In 2003 WFTO created a brand (WFTO - World Fair Trade Organization Mark) to pass credibility to members, but in a participative way, this means, without a third party certification process, such as FLO. According to Raynolds and Long (2008), this "brand" of the WFTO is a bureaucratic rationalization of a credibility assurance system, but it is less formal less strict than the FLO-Cert system. This is a process similar to what is happening with the certification of organic farms where third party systems prevail but there are also participative recognition quality processes in which all actors chains are invited to participate in the certification procedures.

3. FTM statistics

The total volume of products sold at the FTM, including those certified and sold by alternative trade stores (usually without certification), reached 1.6 billion dollars (Raynolds, Long, 2008). In Table 1 we can observe the evolution of this market in different continents. It is evident that the value of the distribution of certified products is considerably higher than those not certified.

Many certified products as being FTM ones are marketed throughout the world but the values are not always accurate because there are many from the artisanal products production. International statistics do not include the sales portion of products that are not commodities. Furthermore as different forms of marketing with different certification bodies. the numbers generated from the FTM itself still need corrections. However, the fact that FLO is the largest FTM certifier in the world makes their numbers a reference.

Table 1: FTM Sales in 2004 and 2005 (US \$ 1,000)

	FLO-Cert sold certifie products	Alternativo shops	FTM total sold
Europe			
United Kingdon	942,00	90,00	1,020,30
Switzerland	345,00	7,40	351,50
France	178,00	1,40	179,20
Germany	136,00	6,70	141,80
Holand	88,00	14,30	100,40
Italy	45,00	21,70	63,90
	34,00	n	34,0
North America			
EUA	472,00	87,40	547,80
Canada	428,00	79,80	507,80
	43,00	6,60	49,60
Pacific			
Japan	7,00	15,60	22,60
Australia/New	4,00	n	4,00

Zeland							
	3,00	n	3,00				
Total	1,421,00	193,00	1,614,00				
G D 11 L (2000 20)							

Source: Raynolds e Long (2008, p. 20)

According to Pedini, Amancio and Amancio (2009), in 2006 there were 550 farmer organizations certified by FLO-Cert in 52 developing countries, involving 1.2 million farmers and workers, including their families amounted to more than 5 million people. There were 510 trade organizations and certified companies in 72 countries operating with different products and different distribution channels such as specialty stores and supermarkets. According to FLO-Cert in 2005 sold products generated revenues of 1.5 billion dollars in retail sales worldwide. An increase of 37% compared to 2004. Another fact is that FTM invested around 80 million dollars in additional funds for small farmers through the premium (above the minimum price). Table 2 shows the volumes sold with FLO certification worldwide.

Table 2: Sold volume in the FTM for products andimporting countries in 2003 (metric tons)

	Coff	Tea	Cocoa	Banana	Total	Grow h 2002 2003 (%)
Europe						
United	2.889	1.096	903	18.177	24.21	61
Kingdon						
Switzerland	1.550	36	275	19.002	23.33	26
France	3.096	60	147	2.610	5.99	11
Germany	2.865	156	343	116	4.21	-2
Holand	2.368	52	227	829	4.05	81
Italy	230	10	346	2.038	3.33	405
North						
America						
EUA	3.574	52	92	n.i.	3.71	163
Canada	648	6	54	n.i.	73	52
Pacific						
Japan	22	8	n.i.	n.i.	3	72
Australia/N	19.89	1.990	3.473	51.336	83.29	42
w Zeland						
Source: Ray	unalda	o I on	~ (2000	n 22)		

Source: Raynolds e Long (2008, p. 22)

We can see in Table 2 that banana is the product with the highest sales in weight. Coffee is as the sold product with greater value. The USA is the largest coffee buyer and the data points out that they are the country with the second highest growth rate in the total volume sold in the FTM (163% in 2002-2003), behind Italy with 405%.

Table 3 shows the countries participation in the sales volume of FTM certified products in the retail. All

countries showed growth during the studied period (between 2004-2006), ranging from 1% (Switzerland) to 188% (Australia and New Zealand). The USA continues obtaining the highest sails.

Table 3: Estimated value of sold products by FTM in retail and participation of the countries (2004-2006)

	Estin	nated Sal	les value	Percei	ntage o	Percei
Natio		million			marke	age
al		(retaile				growt
iniati	2004		2006	2005	2006	from
e		2001	-000	2000	2000	2005 t
-						2006
Germ	81	99	154	6%	7%	55
ny	-		-			
Austr						
lia/Ne			10	.10/	.1.07	100
w		4	10	<1%	<1%	188
Zelan						
Áustr	22	36	58	2%	3%	63
a						
Belgi	19	21	39	1%	2%	87
m						
Cana	25	49	75	3%	3%	54
a						
Denn	18	20	30	1%	1%	54
ark						
EUA ¹	369	499	730	31%	32%	46
Finla	11	18	32	1%	1%	73
d						
Franc	98	153	224	10%	10%	47
Holaı	49	51	57	3%	3%	12
d						
Irelaı	7	9	16	1%	1%	76
d						
Italy	35	39	48	2%	2%	23
Japai	4	5	6	<1%	<1%	21
Luxe	3	3	4	<1%	<1%	22
bur						
Norw	7	9	12	1%	1%	28
i						
Unite	288	388	573	24%	25%	48
Kinge						
on						
Swed	8	13	22	1%	1%	72
n						
Switz	190	187	189	12%	8%	1
rland						
Total	1,05	1,603	2,281	100%	100%	42
	6					

¹ For all countries except the USA, the retail value is the value of all goods sold in FTM. 730 million dollars is the estimated sales value in just coffee retail in the USA and does not include other FTM products.

 2 To 2004-2005 Retail estimates (excluding the USA) published based on the exchange of early

2006. The figures were recalculated using the exchange rate of $\notin 1 =$ US \$ 1.40. Souce: Transfair (2007, p. 6)

USA has the biggest world's coffee market. In 2005, they contributed with 20% of the world total coffee imports, of which 22% of these imports came from Brazil (Transfair, 2008). According to Transfair (2008), the specialty coffee segment is the fastest growing segment in the USA coffee market. Daily consumption of specialty coffee increased from 9% in the adult population in 2000 to 16% in 2006, and total sales of specialty coffee retail grew from 7.8 billion in 2000 to over 12 billion dollars in 2006.

Specifically in the coffee case, between 1999 and 2006 the volume of USA FTM certified product purchases has increased from just over 2 million pounds to nearly 65 million pounds. The FTM certified coffee sales increased in all markets, including the special coffee market. Between 2000 and 2006 the share of FTM on special market grew from 0.6% to 7% as well as market share, from 0.2% to 3.3%. The US in 2006 bought most of their FTM certified coffee from Latin America (83%), 10% from Asia and 7% from Africa (Transfair, 2008).

Besides the statistical data that shows a consistent world FTM growth, this movement has been studied by several authors and has also promoted the theoreticians debate, in attempting to explain their emergence and establishment.

3. Empowerment

The empowerment theme has been the agenda of development agencies, both governmental and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), especially from the 1970s. Historically it has links with the social movements that advocated issues related to gender and race, for example, and more recently it became object of action from government and multilateral organizations such as the World Bank.

Although we cannot identify people or organizations that are "empowered" or "not empowerd" by the fact that empowerment does not mean an attribute that we can have or not have. It is a concept that helps to understand the social processes related to economic ascendancy, cognitive, psychological or political possibilities (Horochovski and Meirelles, 2007). The empowerment approach is used in this article as a way to categorize the insertion impact of small coffee farmers organized in cooperatives within FTM. This is not to consider empowerment as a linear process, but rather as one of the market alternative that can transform the lives of small farmers and/or their organizations.

In the research it was intended to make an argument from a power analysis and its variations through the epistemological and historical origins of empowerment concluded by their different concepts and approaches.

3.1 Empowerment concepts

Empowerment means individual and collective actions developed by individuals when they participate in important decisions and the awareness of social rights. This awareness goes beyond the individual initiative of making knowledge and overcoming a particular situation (reality) that is not simultaneous. The understanding of complex webs of social relationships points out to economical contexts and wider policy.

Empowerment can enable both the acquisition of individual emancipation as collective consciousness needed to overcome "social dependency and political domination". Nyerere (1979) argues that an empowerment process must include at least four levels:

a) cognitive - awareness of the reality and the processes;

b) psychological – linked to the feelings development of self-esteem and self-confidence, requirements for the decision-making;

c) economic - that relates the implementation importance of activities that can generate income to ensure a degree of economic independence;

d) political - which involves the ability to analyze and mobilize the social environment to produce changes in it.

From this perspective, it is possible for people and institutions to build a positive self-image, develop skills to think critically and act rightly, build spaces and collaborative groups, support decision making horizontal and democratic manner and implement actions together, even with critical awareness of the clashes, conflicts, negotiations and shares permanently occur in organizations.

The idea of empowerment is an important role in social mobilization around specific contexts, such as local sustainable development oriented, not only for emergency projects and strengthening actions of social groups traditionally neglected the political process, but also to significant space institutional articulation and emergence of new agents/political actors involved in the democratic transformation of the state-society relationship.

According to Villacorta and Rodriguez (2002, p. 48), empowerment is a process by which groups that have been excluded and marginalized by economic, social causes, political, gender, etc., seek to change this situation in their locations. Therefore, empowerment strategies are paths to local societies more democratic or national route by which groups, actors and most excluded sectors enter the processes which decide their course.

Sen (1997), at a study that analyzes the intervener influence in empowerment actions as a catalyst in this process, created a typological reference potential and limitations of this influence. To occur the real empowerment, it is necessary to observe the following assumptions:

a) to empower means earning power both on external resources and on their self-confidence and capacity;

b) even if there is an external catalyzing process, the most important thing is people empowering themselves;

c) empowerment is not a neutral process, but a political process;

d) empowerment is not a zero-sum game, i.e., in certain cases there will be winners and losers;

e) the determining is the group empowerment, but the individuals transformation is also essential;

f) empowerment is more than just participation or decentralization.

Retaking Iorio (2002, p. 28) when she discusses this concept, she points out that the empowerment process "must be at the center people and empowered groups, their visions, aspirations and priorities" and it is from this concept we can infer analysis variables of the proposed study. According to the author, can be divided empowerment into four categories of analysis:

a) "power over" resources (physical, human, financial) or on ideology (beliefs, values and attitudes);

b) "power with" (involves the notion that the whole is more important than the parts, the community is more important than individuality);

c) "power to" (a pro-active power that creates possibilities and actions);

d) "power within" (respect and acceptance that we are all equal).

Thus, retaking the concepts presented about power, power in organizations and specifically empowerment, we can categorize the analytical framework of the research to be carried out in the organization studied. The cooperative is as effecttiveness of empowerment from their entry into the cerified coffee FTM, using the following categories of analysis.

3.2 Empowerment analysis categories

Considering the theoretical aspects presented and subjectivity linked to its formulation, it is responsible for evaluating and measuring their impact. According to Sen (1997, p. 17), this is one of the great challenges of the study and the empowerment analysis. "Empowerment can be easily measured to the point that programs be evaluated?". The author argues that, first, one must study the goals that the development program aims to work and then both qualitative and quantitative methods can be used.

In this article, the empowerment is divided into two categories:

a) individual empowerment (economic, "on" non-relational):

• measurable gains (income, vehicles, televisions, access to services not previously accessed, such as telephony, health, etc.);

• control costs and processes (accounting and management);

• identify and solve technical and management problems;

b) collective empowerment (political, "with", relational):

• participation in deliberative bodies (meetings, committees, etc.);

• relational level between cooperative members (solidarity, dependence);

• links created with the agents (certifiers, state agencies, other groups - associations/unions, political groups, social groups).

The subdivision of categories and its application in research occur in the methodological procedures.

4. Study object and methodological procedures

Concerning the objective, the field research was conducted with the Coopfam members. Coopfam – Cooperativa dos Agricultores Familiares de Poço Fundo e Região (Cooperative of Family Farmers of Poço Fundo and Region) is located in the municipality of Poço Fundo, south of Minas Gerais. The choice of this cooperative is justified because of its history of cooperation, certification time, national and international trade relations and FTM representation.

It was chosen to use a set of techniques to carry out a descriptive and explanatory diagnosis of possible evidence of empowerment among coffee small farmers in FTM such as the use of standard data collection techniques with survey questionnnaires.

In order to verify the potential of individual economic small farmers empowerment the survey design attributed the definition of a control group. For this to happen, respondents were not small farm members, but resided in the same neighborhoods according to the sample stratification with similar characteristics to Coopfam members. The main actors of the brazilian coffee FTM are small farmers, associations or cooperatives, exporters and importers. The survey was conducted involving a representative sample of cooperative small farmers in order to assess the impact of FTM's Coopfam member process empowerment.

Regarding the sampling, the universe of cooperative small farmers consists of 154 members. The sample was consisted of 30 cooperative small farmers divided by grouped districts (regional representation), production system (organic/non organic) and affiliation time (older and newer). 30 non small farm members were also interviewed grouped in the same neighborhoods which served as a control group, in order to verify if the participation in the FTM positively affects the cooperative small farmers and their social-economic status.

Another important aspect was the choice of variables. The operating variables that guided the questionnaire preparation were taken from the theoretical framework of empowerment and are presented below. Analyzing the concepts of Iório (2002) and the categories discussed by Sen (1997). The concept of empowerment can be divided into four major dimensions:

a) "power over" resources (physical, human, financial) and ideology (beliefs, values and attitudes);

b) "power with" (involves the notion that the whole is more important than the parts, the community is more important than individuality);

c) "power to" (a pro-active power that creates possibilities and actions);

d) "power within" (respect and acceptance that we are all equal).

Furthermore, when we consider the empowerment levels discussed by Nyerere (1979) - cognitive, psychological, economical and political - a new categorization that helps the research was possible, mainly regarding to the analysis categories. Thus, the empowerment was categorized by designing the two streams in accordance with Table 1.

The questionnaire was developed from these concepts expressed in Table 1 considering the research problem identified. Part I of the questionnaire deals with the basic information about the respondent, the motivation of membership in Coopfam (when appropriate), the organic production's point of view and the living in rural areas. In the Part II, the perceptions of respondents about their empowerment could be addressed by grouping the issues in the economical, psychological and cognitive levels. Part III treated issues about family structure focusing on the family members' education. The land ownership structure, the area and the conditions of access were dealt with in Part IV part and the description of the property (aspects of land use, technical and economic resources) were asked in Part V. The control of production and the amounts received per bag in the 2009 harvests were addressed in Part VI. In Part VII and in the final part the questionnaire discussed the ways of resources implementation for small-scale agriculture as a unit of production and consumption.

Table 1: Analysis categories of small farmers
empowerment level in the specific organization

Level	Individual (non-	Grouped (relationa
	relational)	
Economic	FTM capacity to rais	Relative control of
	the individual incom	supply chain in
	of cooperative	which the
	members (income	organization
	calculated by the	operates
	amount received per	
	coffee bag compared	
	to the control group)	
Cognitive	Reality notion where	Insertion in the
	the farmer lives	institutional
		environment
		debates where the
		organization
		operates
Psycologic	Self-esteem and abilit	Cooperative board
	to make decisions in	capacity to make
	the property	decisions in the
	management actions	management
		organizational
		actions
Politic	Not applied at the	Ability to mobilize

individual level	the social
	environment and
	produce changes in
	it

Source: Prepared by the author based on the concepts of Iório (2002), Nyerere (1979) and Sen (1997)

The districts were grouped according to proximity and following a division that already exists at Coopfam. Each group elects a representative who often gathers the group and participates in monthly meetings at the Cooperative headquarters. All members are summoned only in the ordinary and in the extraordinary meetings. Three pre-tests were applied prior to the drafting of the final version.

All data was processed and analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences software (SPSS).

5. Results

The survey was used to verify and analyze if FTM small farmers got or did not get an empowerment term difference compared to other small coffee farmers. Comparisons were also made between the Coopfam small farmers with different production systems (organic and non organic), according Table 2.

Table 2:	Grouping	quarters	of res	pondents
1 4010 2.	orouping	quarters	01 100	ponaento

Group	Quarter		
1	São Miguel, Cachoeirinha e Barreiros		
2	Bocaina, Quebra Machado, Paredão e		
	Anhumas		
3	Dourado dos Lopes e São Pedro		
4	Custodinho e Barreira dos Francos		
5	Cardoso e Ponte		
6	Jacutinga		
7	Morais e Lavrinha		

Sixty small farmers were interviewed divided into two categories: members and nonmembers. From the data released in Table 3 78.3% are non organic and 21.3% are organic coffee small farmers who are all Coopfam members. In fact, the organic production in the city is restricted to small farmers certified by the FTM. In order to evaluate if the spatial distribution interfered the small farmers empowerment, all respondents (members and nonmembers) were selected following the districts distribution. To evaluate if the time membership interfered the empowerment, the group was divided between those oldest members (63%) when considering the cooperative formation within the newest group members (37%). The membership Coopfam motivation, according to the majority of cooperative respondents, is related to issues principles such as organization, cooperation and solidarity. There was no significant difference between the cooperative members who joined at the time of the cooperative creation ("old") and those who have joined more recently ("new"). Responses reinforcing participative aspects were the most frequent among all respondents, followed by the response "because I was participating in an organized group". These answers have close ties to the original FTM principles.

Table 3: Distribution of interviewed accordingto affiliation, district, production system andtime membership

Far mer	Produ ction syste m/	Initials	Grouping neighborhoods			To tal	Fi na IT ot al				
	Time		1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Mem	Old	ASS	3	1	1	1	0	1	1	8	
ber	non	CONV									
	organi	ANT									
	с										
	New	ASS	2	2	1	0	1	0	1	7	
	non	CONV									
	organi	REC									30
	с						-				50
	Old	ASS	1	1	1	0	1	2	2	8	
	organi	ORG									
	с	ANT					-				
	New	ASS	2	1	1	1	2	0	0	7	
	organi	ORG									
	с	REC									
Non	Non	NAO	8	5	4	2	4	3	4	30	60
mem	organi	ASS									
ber	с										

Regarding the organic coffee production, it was decided to include it as a variable in the questionnaire, due to the impact generated by this production system, both in the production environment and in marketing because the premium paid to organic coffee small farmers is higher than for non organic coffee. Moreover, the organic farmer needs a specific certification to reduce transaction costs and increase the degree of reliability of its share in this market segment (Machado, 2000). This obligation raises the costs of those who produce organic coffee. While the certification cost to participate in the FTM is divided among the members, the taxes to obtain organic certification is an individual responsibility. Each organic small farmer must prove that his production process complies with the requirements of organic production. There for, each farmer must pay for the audits carried out on his property.

Most respondents (95%) said that organic coffee demands more work. As for profits, half believe that organic coffee is profitable, although around 70% claim that organic coffee productivity is lower than non organic. All of the small farmers know that organic production is "good" for the environment and 40% of respondents believe that organic coffee is the best system for small-scale farming. Only 26.6% small farmers claimed to have made the choice for the organic system due to the fact that the market price is higher. Global demand for organic coffee has grown substantially, even making it the preferred coffee traded line on the FTM, according to Browne et al. (2000). The author notes that there is great potential for organic production by adding social criteria to the standards of organic certification making the two converge systems to a single certification which would reduce costs for certificated small farmers and their organizations.

Some small farmers have difficulties to convert their crops to organic farming in accordance with the requirements established by production standards. Non organic production in the FTM, certified by FLO-Cert also has prohibited or restricted products. Small farmers that choose to continue non organic do not consider advantageous additional award as a way to mitigate the additional costs of organic production and certification. All nonmembers' small farmers' respondents consider that organic production is very hard. The survey results point out to a greater adherence to the organic system along to "older" Coopfam members. Again, we can see the link to the original principles influencing by the members decision-making.

All the surveyed small farmers who lived in the countryside agreed that living there offered better conditions for the support of the family and that it had a better lifestyle than those who lived in the city (6.7% partially and 81.7 % completely). 80% of respondents was that it had good life quality in rural areas; Furthermore, 53.3% do not believe that this "way of life" is ending and wish to maintain this lifestyle for their families. The districts grouping with the highest percentage preferably live in the countryside was the San Miguel/Barreiro grouping, the nearest locations of the urban area. This data showed that, despite the strong linkage of families with farming (as the unique source of income), there was a process of renewal in the relationship with the field. The neighborhoods proximity to urban areas dominated the preference for housing in the field. This shows that is actually rural and urban phenomenon occurring, defended by Silva (1999).

This aspect was reinforced when small farmers were asked about the expectation with the continuity of their children in agriculture. Only 41.7% of respondents believed that at least one of their descendants should remain on the property. This factor can put in check the coffee activity continuity. Not only Poço Fundo but also other production mountain regions depend on the family activity for their reproduction and continuity.

From 40 respondents who have children in working age, only 6.6% have children who work out of their properties. This suggests that children do not need to work out to supplement the family's needs. Of the total respondents, 93.3% have always been small farmers and like that way and 71.6% identify themselves as coffee farmer. All respondents said they will continue to be small farmers, independent from the coffee market fluctuation. 76.6% expect their children to continue their profession. Therefore there was a clear optimism about the prospects of the activity, although the fieldwork was carried out in a time of high product prices in the coffee commodity market. As for education, there were no significant differences between the various factors used to distinguish the respondents and their families (members and nonmembers, grouping neighborhoods, production system and time of membership). Most likely, this happened because the basic education is universalized in the region.

At a research stage it was proposed an analysis of asset development and production of the respondents. This aspect was not specifically considered an empowerment because there was not necessarily an evolutionary consideration to the specific characteristics following treated empowerment. But it point out the changes in the reality of the families that were interviewed. These changes are evident when the majority of respondents (80%) claims to have made improvements on their properties in the period between 2002 and 2011; 60% have acquired more land, while only 13.3% sold their and 2/3 of small farmers increased their crop area. In terms of asset evolution, there was no significant difference between the cooperative linked to the FTM and non-members. In any case, the positive results on the financial evolution shows the stage that the coffee has been going through in recent years.

When comparing between the current period and the previous one, only one respondent disagreed in part about his life improvement compared to the previous period. 81.7% agreed completely on its improvement. Another observation is that 65% of respondents believed that it is easier to work and earn a living out of coffee, where as 30% believed that in the beginning it was easier (15% partial and 15% total). 93.3% believed that the current support for coffee production was greater than that given in previous period. These results may also point out a coincidence towards a favorable period of non organic coffee because there were no significant differences between the cooperative members and non respondents members.

When asked if nowadays they live only with what they earn and produce on the 86.7% of respondents said they would withdraw support from their properties. It is noteworthy that 70% of respondents believed it was easier to live the coffee farm, where as only 10% disagreed partially or totally. This table confirmed the census data related to the socio-economic profile in the Poço Fundo municipality. In addition, other factors denoted the changes that occurred in the last 10 years regarding the reality of the families that were interviewed. It was observed that 46.7% of respondents lived only with the rural incomes, unlike the previous period. 88.3% worked with family labor and only 5% had fixed workers when family labor was insufficient and 55% had temporary workers during the harvest. The certifying standards allow this possibility depending on the specific need of outside labor, especially at harvest time, when the family's own labor force is not enough.

An Information that called much attention were the property conditions with productive activities. 53.3% considered their properties less diversified than 10 years ago. When asked about this process of specialization, most respondents took this as a worrying issue, however justifiable due to the higher remuneration of coffee at the selling period. The economical logic prevails, but it brings up a discussion on household food safety to see if coffee prices fall back when not even the minimum price is able to meet the demand for basic food. According to the Coopfam direction, this theme had been rediscussed in the assemblies, but no definitive solution was identified.

Non			
memb	39,5000a	24,2333b	11,6000a

These results reinforce the importance that most small farmers gave to the associative principle when they became a Coopfam member and the empowerment process began exactly at this point. Applying the Tukey test on the mean of the received price, according to the production system, the results showed that the average price received by organic small farmers (members) in 2009 was significantly higher than the other, but in 2010 there was no significant difference between the prices of organic and non organic members. But after two years the prices received by member small farmers were higher than those received by farmer's nonmembers. This information, however, should be compared to their production costs, but the lack of information recorded by small farmers did not allow such analysis. Although only 17% of the respondents had said that they made notes about the property activities. 100% believed that their property was more organized. In the case of certified small farmers, this situation has changed in the last year, due to the certification pressure that at the time required a series of records due to the need of tracking the cooperative production.

The central focus of research was the empowerment potential generated when entering in the FTM. As described in the methodology the empowerment was divided according to the economical, cognitive and psychological levels. The survey questions were formulated obeying this division and the results were aggregated. When grouped, no significant differences were detected between the economic (p = 0.5467)and psychological (p = 0.9745) levels when applied the F test, considering the member or nonmember, non organic or organic factors and time membership. According to the data in Table 4, the result (p = 0.00)003) shows that the significant cognitive aspects differences highlighting the sense of reality in which the farmer lives. It shows their inclusion in the organizational debates and their institutional environment participation.

Table 4: Grouped result average attributed toissues relating to economical, cognitive andpsychological aspects.

Classe	Economi	Cognitiv	Psicologi
Organi			
membe	40,9230a	28,0000a	11,4615a
Non			
organi			
membe	40,9411a	28,58824a	11,5294 a

Although selling coffee for high prices and expanding its capital structure, what really empowers the small farmers, from their perspective, is the associative group work. A fact that reinforces this thesis is that 100% of respondents (members or nonmembers) continue to be farmers, independent from the coffee market fluctuations.

Conclusion

Neoclassical economy authors have difficulty to explain FTM due to its peculiarities. The concept of an atomized actor focusing on price as the main con-dition for product choice cannot account for the com-plexity of this social movement that incorporates other conditions for consumer choice.

When analyzing the research objectives, the results lead to inquire if FTM is able to empower small farmers and their organizations and what kind of empo-werment has occurred. In this article the survey re-sults were considered to explain this process and the theoretical analysis helped to conclude the expla-natory framework.

The field research focused on the survey with the small farmers while highlighting significant differrences in terms of prices achieved with the sold coffee in the FTM compared to commodity market. It revealed that what effectively empowers the small farmers is the cognitive aspect, this means, the notion of reality in which they live and the importance of their associative group work.

The certification plays a central role in the empowerrment organizations that are operating in the FTM. Specifically, it is FLO who determines who entry and who does not enter FTM through the certification system. The certification rules are the guarantee that the FTM principles will take place by all actors at the commercial chain and the criteria such as transparency and solidarity will be followed. But the minimum price makes the certifier stronger as an active key chain player.

The minimum price establishment by FLO guarantees fairer conditions to certified organizations to remain in the market. This aspect differentiates FTM from other quality assurance systems in the coffee market creating a new contractual relationship between small farmers and consumers and strengthening solidarity between them. Therefore the certifier is the major empowerment agent for small farmers and their organizations, if the minimum price is adjusted to the basic family needs.

This article points out to new research challenges that can be explored. A more detailed economical analysis can bring more accurate results about the economic potential of empowerment in various dimensions of small farmers and their organizations. Another important aspect is an analysis about with purchasing FTM organizations in countries where this movement is more advanced. And finally a research with supermarket consumers, differing from those more attached to the original FTM principles. This would enable a more comprehensive view of the potential growth and FTM consolidation.

8. References

[1] HOROCHOVSKI, R. R.; MEIRELES, G. Problematizando o conceito de empoderamento. In: SEMINÁRIO NACIONAL MOVIMENTOS SOCIAIS PARTICIPAÇÃO E DEMOCRACIA, 2., 2007, Florianópolis. **Anais...** Florianópolis: Núcleo de Pesquisa em Movimentos Sociais, 2007. 1 CD-ROM.

[2] IORIO, C. Algumas considerações sobre estratégias de empoderamento e de direitos. In: ROMANO, J.; ANTUNES, M. (Org.). **Empoderamento e direitos no combate à pobreza**. Rio de Janeiro: ActionAid Brasil, 2002. p. 21-44.

[3] MACHADO, R. T. M. **Rastreabilidade**, tecnologia da informação e coordenação de sistemas agroindustriais. 2000. 256 p. Tese (Doutorado em Administração) - Universidade de São Paulo, São Paulo, 2000.

[4] NYERERE, J. K. Unity for a New Order. In: HAQ, K. (Org.). **Dialogue for a New Order**. New York: Pergamon, 1979. p. 3-10.

[5] PEDINI, S.; AMÂNCIO, R.; AMÂNCIO, C.
O. da G. O mercado solidário certificado: ruptura ou continuidade do mercado convencional? In: CONGRESSO BRASILEIRO DE SOCIOLOGIA, 14., 2009, Rio de Janeiro. Resumos... Rio de Janeiro: Sociedade Brasileira de Sociologia, 2009. p. 396.

[6] RAYNOLDS, L. T.; LONG, M. A. Fair/alternative trade: historical and empirical dimensions. In: RAYNOLDS, L. T.; MURRAY, D.; WILKI NSON, J. (Ed.). Fair trade: the challenges of transforming globalization. London: Routledge, 2008. p. 15-32.

[7] RAYNOLDS, L. T.; WILKINSON, J. Fair trade in the agriculture and food sector. In: RAYNOLDS, L. T.; MURRAY, D.; WILKIN-SON, J. (Ed.). **Fair trade:** the challenges of transforming globalization. London: Routledge, 2008. p. 33-47.

[8] SEN, G. Empowerment as an approach to poverty. New York: PNUD, 1997. 22 p.

[9] SILVA, J. G. G. da. **O novo rural brasileiro**. Campinas: UNICAMP, 1999. 154 p.

[10] TRANSFAIR.. **Guia sobre o mercado de café nos EUA**. Nicaragua: SOPPEXCCA, 2008. 53 p. Documento preliminar.

[11] VILLACORTA, A.; RODRIGUEZ, M. Metodologias e ferramentas para implementar estraégias de empoderamento. In: ROMANO, J.; AN-TUNES, M. (Org.). **Empoderamento e direitos no combate à pobreza**. Rio de Janeiro: ActionAid Brasil, 2002. p. 45-66. [12] WILKINSON, J. Fair trade: dynamic and dilemmas of a market oriented global social movement. **Journal of Consumer Policy**, Leiden, v. 30, n. 3, p. 219-239, Mar. 2007.

[13] WORLD FAIR TRADE ORGANIZATION. **10 standards of fair trade**. Disponível em: <http://www.wfto.com/index.phpoption=com_co ntent&task=view&id=2&Itemid=14>. Acesso em: 22 fev. 2010.

THE4th INTERNATIONAL ACADEMIC CONFERENCE ON SOCIAL SCIENCES

CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

THE INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT 59 Rustaveli str. 6000 Batumi, Georgia E-mail: <u>info@academicinst.com</u> Website: <u>http://www.academicinst.com</u>