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FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES**



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Introduction

The Latvia University of Agriculture Faculty of Social Sciences 4th Annual International Scientific Conference „New Dimensions in the Development of Society 2008” was held on September 25 – 26, 2008. There were participants from such countries as Lithuania, Estonia, Latvia, Poland, Ukraine, England, the Czech Republic and Finland. During the two days the participants presented their reports and developed research discussions in the following workshops: Sociology, Rural and Regional Development, Pedagogics, Public Administration and Philosophy.

The conference was opened by two plenary session reports – the Vice-chairman of the Conference Committee prof. John Hobrough from the University of Surrey, Great Britain, reported on “Communication in a global society” and Dr. sc.agr. Ainārs Nābels – Šneiders from the Latvian Ministry of Agriculture gave a report on “Challenges for rural areas of the 21th century”.

Sociology. Facilitators: asoc. prof., Dr hist. Jānis Kūsis and asoc. prof., Dr. Jerzy Przybysz. Three main themes were emphasized for discussion: Administrative Territorial Reform and small towns – the methods and implementation of small town reforms and classification the criteria of small towns, social capital and its significance in the development of organizations. It should be noted that the concept of ethnic minorities is becoming more significance in sociological research in Latvia. This theme was continued by the analysis of the aspects of the NGO networks’ role in the multicultural environment in rural areas of Latvia as well as aspects of religious tolerance. A proposal was made to organize inter-disciplinary conferences where one problem is discussed from the point of view of different sciences.

Rural and Regional Development. Facilitators: doc. emeritus Maiga Krūzmētra and lecturer Mg.oec. Irēna Baraškina. Main topics for discussion – agriculture advisory service systems, their characteristics and types of financing in Latvia and the Czech Republic. The employment situation in rural areas 15 years after decollectivization, how politicians are perceived, organic farming and tourism development in rural areas – interactive tourism expositions and rural benchmarking.

Pedagogics. Facilitators: asoc. prof. Dr. paed. Sarmīte Bremze, asoc. prof., Dr. paed. Ivars Muzis, prof. Dr. paed. Anita Aizsila, doc. Mg.paed. Larisa Turuševa. Several countries were represented at the section: the United Kingdom, Ukraine, Lithuania, Estonia and Latvia by the representatives of the following universities and colleges: the University of Tallinn, the University of Tartu, the University of Vilnius, Latvia University of Agriculture, Lugansk East-Ukrainian National University, the business college „Turība”, Latvia, Latvia Police Academy, the Riga Teacher Training and Education Management Academy. The main topics were: education

management, further education and life-long education, the development of further education programmes, changing thinking patterns as a resource, the organization culture in Latvian schools, the didactics of several subjects, competence development, the development of personality in the changing social environment and project management. Participants paid much attention to the exchange of opinions and at length considered the possibilities to apply innovative knowledge in practice using interdisciplinary approaches.

Public Administration. Facilitators: asoc. prof. Dr. agr. Jānis Ābele and asoc. prof. Dr. phil. Voldemārs Bariss. Reports on the dichotomies of values in public administration, innovative administrative processes and students' opinions about the study program "Public Administration" were presented.

Philosophy. Facilitators: doc. Dr. phil. Leonards Leikums and doc. Dr. phil. Gunārs Brāzma. Philosophers as well as sociologists and linguists participated at the philosophy workshop. Various topical issues were analyzed and discussed, among them bioethical problems concerning concepts of disease and normality, the psychology and philosophy of happiness, multiculturalism, environmental culture, the role of museums, the teaching of humanities in universities, gender representation within religious confessions, the ideas of dualism in world's religions etc. The major common theme in these reports – cultural diversity was discussed from sociological, psychological and philosophical points of view.

From the discussions the conclusion can be reached that a philosophical point of view is necessary in order to consider normative dimensions in a culturally differentiated society; including ethical norms, pluralistic values and ideals. The second conclusion that was reached is that sociological, psychological and philosophical aspects are closely related and such discussions can help to find new common fields of research.

Conference Committee

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THE FATE OF EMPLOYEES IN DIFFERENT STATUS CLASSES AFTER DECOLLECTIVIZATION FROM EARLY 1990s UNTIL 2005 IN ONE ESTONIAN, LATVIAN AND LITHUANIAN KOLKHOZ. FIRST RESULTS

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Introduction

Having done research on agricultural decollectivization and its consequences since 1992, Ilkka Alanen and his colleagues has accumulated a wealth of knowledge on the coping strategies people adopted in order to survive in the Baltic countries and elsewhere (See Alanen 1998, Alanen et al 2001 and Alanen 2004a). The problems turned out to be much more difficult than the reforms planers anticipated, and that some of the initial failures still overshadow people's lives. However, at the level of individuals, this information has remained far too general or scattered, because the focus of the work has, after all, been on enterprise and community structures. How different kinds of people coped with? What for example had exactly happened e.g. to the status classes of the former socialist large-scale farm? That is the question, to which we focus this paper. We claim, that both the success of the decollectivization in soviet farms, the development of the national economy and the local demand of labour explain the coping strategies and the success of the whole staff of former soviet farm (in this case of former kolkhoz). In addition to that also the position in specific class (as followers of certain status group in soviet farm) has impacted to their coping strategies. Those results refers to the possibility, that not only the education but also the networks of certain status groups originating from pre-decollectivization phase have had some effect in formation of specific coping strategies models.

The analysis of early survey data (from 1994 and 1995) already indicated that the Estonian rural population derived most of its income from wage labour, while household plot farming predominated in Lithuania, with Latvia ranking between the other two countries but closer to Lithuania. Thus, decollectivization has directly resulted in the differentiation of the developmental models in the Baltic countryside. (Alanen 1998).

Expanding the scope of the interviews from a case study of the decollectivization of a single Soviet farm in Estonia (cf. Alanen et al "Decollectivization, Destruction and Disillusionment: A Community Study in Southern Estonia," 2001) to other farms and other countries showed that the destruction of large-scale production signified the widespread destruction of material (buildings, machinery, cattle) and immaterial resources (educational capital, skills), because only a small portion of these assets could realistically be transferred to family farms. Consequently, also work

collectives disintegrated, and due to their central role this led to widespread alienation. The new local government agencies were powerless in the face of material destruction, communal anomie and lack of trust.

The key role of the World Bank as the provider of recommendations for decollectization policy became later clear. Alanen made use of national statistics from this perspective (cf. his articles (2004b) in “Mapping the Rural Problem In the Baltic Countryside: Transition Processes In the Rural Areas Of Estonia, Latvia And Lithuania,” 2004a). Alanen’s conclusion was somewhat paradoxical: the closer the government adhered to the World Bank guidelines, the worse were the results. The World Bank (1992) recommended the radical and synchronized implementation of the reform and the preservation of large-scale production as a short-term buffering mechanism during the transition period and a source of resources for the establishment of family farms only. The best disciple of the World Bank was Lithuania followed very closely by Latvia. In Estonia, the reform was delayed, and the Estonian government failed miserably in synchronizing the privatization of the non-land assets of large-scale farms and the land reform, but still the Estonian reform was one of the most successful reforms in all of Europe (right after the Czech republic and Hungary). Why? Government failures gave local people (with the “middle class,” i.e. the most educated and professional employees of the Soviet farms, constituting the core) the opportunity to learn from the mistakes of other countries and enough time to form shareholder alliances for the preservation of large-scale production. The poor synchronization of the reform in turn lessened the pressures to allocate resources to unviable smallholdings. Labour productivity has risen at a rapid pace in Estonia. While in Latvia and Lithuania, the collapsed large-scale production was not replaced by viable family farms but mainly subsistence-based mini-holdings, the successors to the private plots of the Soviet-era. This is why labour productivity in Latvia and even more in Lithuania collapsed and remained below the Soviet level even as late as in the early 2000’s.

Research methods.

What really happened to former Soviet farm employees? That is something no one has not yet studied systematically. However, both in neoliberal transition plans and also in later interpretations of World Bank (like IMF, OECD and EBRD) it has supposed, that the their recommended reform creates most effective new jobs for those employees in more productive sector, which lose them in less productive sectors like in agriculture (see for example World Bank 2002, xvii-xviii).

As a research perspective is the study of the coping strategies of in three Soviet farm workers – one kolkhoz in each countries. All of them have located in similar areas, but their implemented

decollectivization models are different: Each researched soviet farm had implemented decollectivization policy, which has been typical of their own country. The unit of the analysis is an individual employee (always as a family member), whose coping strategies are monitored in four periods until today.

The combined data set consists mainly of archival data (Soviet farm archives; annual local government household survey forms in archives. Data was collected for the following periods: 1990, 1991–1993, 1996–2000, and 2001–2005, with the exception of Estonia. Soviet farm archives included the list of employees of pre-decollectivization Soviet farms also included detailed information on the age, gender and education, as well as income, occupation and occupational status of each employee. Annual local government household survey forms included detailed information on the places of work, occupations and other sources of income – as well as family situation – of their employees' household members. This combined data set was supplemented through the expert method where the expertise was based on boards consisting of two people and their local knowledge about their small village communities.

Comparison between three case studies has been made easier by selecting employees from farms located in peripheral areas and below average agricultural production from each country. Like elsewhere, the collective farms of both Estonia and Latvia were remarkably larger than those in Lithuania. In 1990 Estonia had 436 steady employees, Latvia 406 and Lithuania 269.

Results.

On the basis of his previous studies Alanen (2001 and 2004) has distributed kolkhoz staff into three main categories: 1) elite, of which core was consisted the management of kolkhoz (the leader of kolkhoz and his administrators), and this class contains also leaders of departments for example dairy cow complex) and other higher managers (for example main agronomist). 2) Soviet middle class (specialists like agronomists, veterinarians), clericals with upper and lower secondary I training (like zoologists etc and technicians etc.), and also workers with vocational training (tractor drivers, milkers), and more generally those workers who were responsible of some construction machine. This kind of combination where clericals and skilled workers belong to the same category might appear peculiar, but it is based on the information gained from the interviews with former soviet farm staff members. Amongst former staff of soviet farms, specialists, clericals and skilled workers were living and working mainly in the centre of soviet farms. Their employment was secured and stabile and the income level of skilled workers were even higher compared to clericals. Marriages between these three groups of employees were common. 3) The third category or stratum was unskilled workers who were usually living in the old peasant buildings in outlying villages.

Their way of living was much more peasant-like compared to clericals and skilled workers. The group of unskilled workers was representative of tradition coming from the time before kolkhozes and sovhozes whereas skilled workers and middle class and specialists were a result of the needs and distribution of work of soviet farms, the modern element of it.

In this study, the elite contains – besides the definition described above – all those who had university training, because they had best income level and best potential to advance in their career of work. Furthermore, skilled workers and soviet middle class are separated into two categories; because it was relevant to assume that post-socialist transformation would be affected middle class and skilled workers differently.

The stratification variable is a combination of three background variables. The most important criteria and the basis of stratification variable is the ISCO classification. The International Standard Classification of Occupations is a tool for organizing jobs into a clearly defined set of groups according to the tasks and duties undertaken in the job. Besides ISCO coding, the income and training level (vocational education background) of the responses have been taken into account when computing the stratification variable including four categories: 1) elite, 2) middle class, 3) skilled workers and 4) unskilled workers.

Table 1

Stratification by country in 1990 before decollectivization

			Country			Total
			Estonia	Latvia	Lithuania	
Strata	Elite	Count	37	18	21	76
		% within Country	8,5%	4,4%	7,8%	6,8%
	Middle class	Count	102	44	16	162
		% within Country	23,4%	10,8%	5,9%	14,6%
	Skilled workers	Count	168	165	113	446
		% within Country	38,5%	40,6%	42,0%	40,1%
	Unskilled workers	Count	129	179	119	427
		% within Country	29,6%	44,1%	44,2%	38,4%
Total		Count	436	406	269	1111
		% within Country	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

The middle class in Estonian kolkhoz was stronger compared with Latvian and Lithuanian cases. It could express the more general character between countries, because the farms in Estonia were larger and stronger than in other Baltic countries.

1. Retirement and moving to another municipality. In all countries to be retired until 2005 was more common in Lithuania (54%) than in Estonia (38%) and Latvia (33%). It is explained much by the old structure of non-skilled workers in Lithuania.

In all three countries, the common coping model against the problems of livelihood can be seen. The elite were willing and able to move to other municipalities. Compared to other groups, middle class was more disposed to stay in the same municipality, while skilled workers were somehow between acting mode of the elite and middle class. It is a fact that the level of education amongst middle class was higher than the level of education of skilled workers, so the explanation should be found elsewhere. It seems to be so that parents with school-age children (that was very common amongst middle class) are a part of explanation. Because of the privatization of housing at the beginning of transition, to get an apartment in another municipality was particularly difficult, thus parents with small children considered staying in the same municipality. However, this was not a hindrance to work in the near cities, because the journey to and from work was short.

Even more important explanation for the different acting mode of middle class is the nature of their social networks. The elite have surely had more provincial and nation-wide contacts outside the domicile, because of their occupational position during soviet farm system and (quite often also academic) training. Among them it seems to be more “weak ties” compared with other strata. After Granovetter exactly the “weak ties” (like colleagues or former student mates) improve more than “strong ties” (like family members, other relatives, neighbors) on the persons ability to get essential information and to use the opened possibilities). Compared to other employee-groups, the members of elite had born also more often elsewhere than kolkhoz-locality and also outside the county where kolkhoz was located. The networks from these two sources opened greater possibilities to the elite to utilize opportunities of job and entrepreneurship outside kolkhoz-locality.

As far as the place of birth is concerned, the middle class does not differ essentially from skilled and unskilled workers. However, the middle class had better educational level and was capable to utilize local opportunities of job and entrepreneurship in home villages and near towns. This capability became evident as better employment rate compared to skilled and unskilled workers. Because of this, workers were forced to try to get job at kolkhoz-locality and from farther off near towns.

Another special characteristic is related to the number of people moved to another municipality. This number was lower in Estonia compared to Latvia; although the development of economy in Estonia has been stronger than in Latvia. This can be partially explained by the facts that after privatization of kolkhoz more jobs were created in follower-enterprises.

2. Mortality. The mortality rate in Lithuanian kolkhoz villages is much higher than in Latvia during decollectivization period 1990-1995. The differences between countries can be partially explained by different age structures, but it is barely part of explanation. The age structure is older in Lithuania only in the stratum of unskilled workers, but at the same time it is the younger in the stratum of middle class than in Latvia. If the age is crucial, the mortality should be strongly allocated on the stratum of unskilled workers in Lithuania; and mortality should evade in middle class during the first period. The truth is partly different. Mortality amongst the unskilled workers is really high, but amongst the other three strata of employees it is also quite high (even in the young middle class). The mortality rates in Lithuania are clearly higher in all strata than in Latvia. Those results give evidence, that the social things and most probable exactly the transition stress has been really hard among all strata In Lithuania and in general harder than Latvia. Like we have said before, the decollectivization of kolkhoz was even more destructive in Lithuania than in Latvia. We can also see that during the period the long time term unemployment in Lithuania is really high (52,8 %) even if only a little bit higher than in Latvia (49,8%).

Mortality rates stay higher in Lithuania than in Latvia also during next period 1996-2000, when the economies in both countries start to stabilize, but recovery is still weak. However, when the economy really starts to grow fast during last period 2001-2005 in both countries, then also mortality rates sink clearly. At the same time we can see an interesting turn, the mortality rates sink on lower level in Lithuania than in Latvia. The explanation is obvious: despite strong economy recovery the long time-term unemployment stay in Latvian kolkhoz villagers (39,4%) at the much higher level than in Lithuania (9,7%). Already before that turn in mortality, we see in the background the more prolonged unemployment in Latvia also during former period 1996-2000.

The data available does not allow analyzing the mortality rate by different periods in Estonia, but the mortality rate was at the end of 2005 after Estonian expert board estimation between the rates of Latvia and Lithuania.

3. Long-term unemployment. Long-term unemployment (which definition is at least 12 months unemployment during the period) is undoubtedly a good indicator of the stress experienced by different strata during the post-decollectivisation era. In this paper, all persons who were unemployed during the transition period under study will be considered long-term unemployed. Latvian and Lithuanian data are based on information obtained from local administrations (and they are probably fairly reliable). However, in Estonia this type of information was only available from a group of experts and from it only for the final period. The following analysis will initially focus on

Latvia and Lithuania only, but towards the end we will also discuss the assessments of the Estonian situation provided by the experts.

In Latvia and Lithuania, long-term unemployment affected more or less the same group of people during all three periods, but this effect was clearly more pronounced in Latvia than in Lithuania. In Latvia, a total number of 90 per cent of those who were unemployed in 2001–2005 were also unemployed in 1996–2000, and 60 per cent in 1991–1995. In Lithuania, half (50 %) of those who were unemployed in 2001–2005 were also unemployed in 1996–2000, and 33.3 per cent in 1991–1995. The Latvian municipality under study could even be considered to be suffering from particularly severe structural unemployment. It may also explain the relative worsening mortality rates in latest period in Latvian case compared with Lithuanian case.

On the whole, it can be said that destructive decollectivization resulted in massive long-term unemployment, which has proved very difficult to push down. Today this problem is most severe in an area that is apparently still plagued by massive structural unemployment. However, the development that has taken place in Estonia and particularly in Lithuania, which can be studied more effectively using statistical, demonstrate that massive unemployment can be overcome.

Conclusions and general discussion

1. The decollectivization process in Latvia and Lithuania was very destructive by nature. This can be seen in the data, so that the unemployment was massed and also quite equally distributed in employee groups and strata. A great part of employees got into a rut in their domicile, and the unemployment was chronic. The unemployment rate especially at the beginning of transition is higher in Lithuania than in Latvia. Lower unemployment rate with lower mortality rate in Latvia express that the process of decollectivization was more successful in Latvia compared to the situation in Lithuanian kolkhoz.
2. However, immediately after the shock period (1991-95), the development amongst employee-groups diversified. Factors like training level and the age are not the only predictors of the unemployment rate. In all three Baltic countries, the elite were mostly willing and able to move to other municipality, whereas the middle class wanted to stay in locality. During the Soviet time, the elite were the only stratum of soviet farms, whose networks extended to outside the domicile and near cities. Families with children were most common amongst the middle class – a fact that surely hindered employees of middle class from moving to other municipality during the period of privatization of housing. One explanation to the question Why did middle class employees continue their staying in former kolkhoz villages maybe is in their weak ties, and that it also coped with better there and in near city better there due to its

higher education than both working class strata.

3. The period of decollectivization (1991-95) overlapped also with other process of transition. Because of this, the number of jobs decreased in all three countries. When the economy started to recover little by little (1996-2000) and more jobs were created, migration increased and accelerated due to economic boom at the beginning of 2000s. However, great variation can be seen between three in three countries studied. These differences can be explained by the local labour markets. In particular, local labour markets included near city that offered job opportunities without change of residence. In Lithuania, and particularly in Estonia, the unemployment rate decreased by the impact of the local labour markets since 1996, but in Latvia the unemployment rate remained at high level. Especially in Latvia the long time term employment stayed serious and it focused not only many but also same persons with its probably consequences in highest mortality rates during last period 2001-2005.
4. The study shows that the results of transition strategy of neo-liberalism did not work as expected at least during the first period (1991-95). A great part of farm workers did not find a new job, but instead they were stuck in domiciles with long-term and chronic unemployment. The study also shows that if the economy is progressing well and if the supply of jobs is at good level in the near rural cities, it is possible to overcome to chronic unemployment also in rural areas. This was not the case in Latvia where the supply of jobs was probably weak in near rural cities. Thus, the key elements to come out ahead of long-term unemployment are such measures of regional policy that could increase the demand of work force in rural small towns.

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PROBABILITY OF IMPLEMENTATION OF ADMINISTRATIVE – TERRITORIAL REFORM BEFORE LOCAL GOVERNMENT ELECTION IN 2009: SITUATION IN JELGAVA DISTRICT

ADMINISTRATĪVI – TERITORIĀLĀS REFORMAS ĪSTENOŠANAS IESPĒJAS 2009. GADA PAŠVALDĪBU VĒLĒŠANU PRIEKŠVAKARĀ: SITUĀCIJA JELGAVAS RAJONĀ

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Abstract: In the administrative territories with small number of population, deficiency of infrastructure and resources for municipalities' function can be observed. According to this, already in the 90ties, reform of local governments was initiated in Latvia. The cabinet, basing on principles of local governments in European Charter (1985), accepted conception of the reform. The Law „On Administrative-Territorial Division Project of local governments' was carried in 2006 but rules on administrative division of local governments were issued in 2008. According to the law on Administrative-territorial reform, it is envisaged to implement administrative territorial reform of the municipalities till election of local municipalities in June 2009 (deadline - 31 January, 2009). Its' aim is to form administrative territories with local governments able to develop independently which would secure qualitative service to population. Unfinished reform makes difficulties to local government election's process.

Key-words: administrative-territorial reform, local government, local government elections

Latvijā pēc neatkarības atgūšanas jau 90-os gados sākās vietējo pašvaldību reforma, ko izraisīja situācija, ka administratīvajās teritorijās ar nelielu iedzīvotāju skaitu bieži nav nepieciešamo resursu pašvaldības funkciju veikšanai.

1993. gada 8. septembrī Ministru kabinets akceptēja *Pašvaldību reformu koncepciju*, bet 1998. gada 21.oktobrī Saeima pieņēma *Administratīvi teritoriālās reformas likumu*.

Atbilstoši likumam (Administratīvi teritoriālās reformas likums, 1998) vietējo pašvaldību administratīvi teritoriālo reformu Latvijā bija paredzēts īstenot 2 posmos:

- pēc vietējo pašvaldību iniciatīvas – līdz 2003.gada 31.decembrim;
- pēc atbildīgās ministrijas izstrādātiem projektiem – no 2004.gada 1.janvāra līdz 2004.gada 30.novembrim.

Reformas pirmajā posmā līdz 2003.gadam pašvaldībām tika dota iespēja pašām pēc savas iniciatīvas apvienojoties veidot novadus. Šo iespēju izmantoja neliels skaits pašvaldību (t.sk. Ozolnieku novads Jelgavas rajonā).

2002.gada nogalē valstī tika pieņemts *Reģionālās attīstības likums* (spēkā no 2003.01.01.), kas paredz veicināt un nodrošināt līdzsvarotu un ilgtspējīgu valsts attīstību, ievērojot visas valsts teritorijas un atsevišķu tās daļu īpatnības un iespējas, samazināt nelabvēlīgās atšķirības starp tām, kā arī saglabāt un attīstīt katras teritorijas dabai un kultūrvidei raksturīgās iezīmes un attīstības potenciālu. (<http://www.likumi.lv/>)

Eiropas vietējo pašvaldību harta (1985), kurai ir pievienojusies arī Latvija, 3.pantā definē vietējās pašvaldības jēdzienu: **vietējā pašvaldība** nozīmē vietējās varas tiesības un spēju likumā noteiktajās robežās regulēt un vadīt nozīmīgu valsts lietu daļu uz savu atbildību un vietējo iedzīvotāju interesēs. Šīs tiesības realizē padomes vai pārstāvju sapulces, kuru locekļus brīvi ievēlē aizklāti balsojot uz vienlīdzīgu, tiešu un vispārēju vēlēšanu tiesību pamata; tām var būt pakļautas izpildinstitūcijas.

Hartas 5.pantā par vietējās varas teritoriju robežu aizsardzību savukārt teikts, ka vietējās varas teritoriju robežu izmaiņas nav atļauts izdarīt bez iepriekšējas konsultēšanās ar attiecīgo vietējo varu, pēc iespējas ar referenduma palīdzību, kur tas ir likumīgi atļauts. (Eiropas vietējo pašvaldību harta, <http://www.raplm.gov.lv/files/text/harta.doc>)

Latvijā ir divu veidu pašvaldības – vietējās pašvaldības (pilsētas, novadi un pagasti), un rajonu pašvaldības. Gadījumos, ja novada pašvaldība izveidojas apvienojoties vairākām vietējām pašvaldībām (pagastiem, pilsētām), katra no tām kļūst par novada teritoriālo vienību, bet lēmējvara novadā ir tikai viena – tieši vēlēta Novada dome. Izveidojot novadu starpvēlēšanu periodā, līdz nākamajām pašvaldību vēlēšanām novada domes deputāti ir visu apvienoto bijušo pašvaldību deputāti.

Šobrīd Latvijā ir **26 rajonu pašvaldības, 524 vietējās pašvaldības**, t.sk. 52 rajona pilsētas un 7 republikas pilsētas, 37 novadi ar tajos ietilpstošajām teritoriālajām vienībām un 428 pagastu pašvaldības. (Pašvaldības Latvijā. <http://www.raplm.gov.lv/lat/pasvaldibas/>)

Saskaņā ar Administratīvi teritoriālās reformas likumā noteikto, 2008.gadā (pirms 2009.gada vietējo pašvaldību vēlēšanām) reformai vajadzēja noslēgties, tomēr tas nav noticis.

Reformas gaitā asi iezīmējas pretrunas starp valsts interesēm un iedzīvotājiem, kurus pārstāv vietējās pašvaldības. Vairākkārt veiktie sabiedriskā viedokļa pētījumi liecina, ka vietējo pašvaldību intereses bieži atšķiras no valsts reformas koncepcijas, tāpēc reformai joprojām nav gaidītā rezultāta. Referenduma, kas var būt viens no mehānismiem administratīvi – teritoriālās reformas jautājumā, ko paredz arī *Harta* (1985), Latvijā vispār nav bijis.

Vairākas pašvaldības ir uzsākušas tiesvedību ar valsti, jo negrib pakļauties norādēm no augšas, uzskatot, ka jaunais variants nevis sekmēs, bet kavēs pilnvērtīgu pašvaldības teritorijas attīstību un iedzīvotāju labklājību. Situācija īpaši ir aktualizējusies pašreiz, 2009.gada pašvaldību vēlēšanu priekšvakarā, kad būtu jāprecizē vēlēšanu iecirkņi jaunajās administratīvajās teritorijās. Taču vienprātības nav ne tikai dažādu Latvijas rajonu starpā, bet pretrunas ir pat viena rajona ietvaros. Šajā ziņā Jelgavas rajons nav izņēmums. Jelgavas rajonā pēc reformas projekta paredzēti šādi novadi:

- 1) Jelgavas novads: (Elejas pagasts, Glūdas pagasts, Jaunsvirlaukas pagasts, Kalnciema pilsēta ar lauku teritoriju, Lielplatones pagasts, Līvērzes pagasts, Platones pagasts, Sesavas pagasts, Sidrabenes pagasts, Svētes pagasts, Valgundes novads, Vilces pagasts, Vircavas pagasts, Zaļenieku pagasts) ar nedaudz vairāk kā 29 000 iedzīvotāju
- 2) Ozolnieku novads: (Ozolnieku novads) ar nepilniem 8000 iedzīvotāju.

Situāciju Jelgavas rajonā raksturo Ilze Lukstiņa rakstā *Pašvaldības sola karu*, kas no laikraksta Nedēļa Jelgavā (2008.g.06.03.) pārpublicēts tvnet.lv. Autore norāda, ka apvienoties atbilstoši pieņemtajai administratīvi teritoriālā iedalījuma kartei piekritušas 11 pašvaldības. Ozolnieku novadā apvienosies jau iepriekš izveidotais Ozolnieku novads un Sidrabenes pagasts, bet Jelgavas novadu veidot lēmuši Elejas, Platones, Lielplatones, Svētes, Zaļenieku, Sesavas, Vilces, Vircavas un Jaunsvirlaukas pagasti. Tikmēr Glūdas un Līvērzes pagasti, kā arī novada statusu iepriekš jau ieguvušais Valgundes novads un Kalnciema pilsēta izteikuši gatavību pat vērsties tiesā, ja Ministru kabinets lems par pagastu piespiedu apvienošanu. Pēc I. Lukstiņas domām, visvairāk apdalīts ... ir Valgundes novads, jo, atšķirībā no citiem, kuriem tika liegta novada izveide, Valgundes novadam ticis anulēts jau iegūts novada statuss. “Mums pašlaik ir tā, ka novads it kā ir anulēts, bet esam saņēmuši rīkojumu tomēr pagaidām pildīt novada funkcijas. Nezinu, par ko viņi tur domā, bet beigās putra vien ir,” savu viedokli pauž Valgundes novada domes priekšsēdētājs Edgars Turks. (Lukstiņa I. Pašvaldības sola karu. <http://www.tvnet.lv/>)

Ko par izveidojušos situāciju saka Jelgavas rajona pašvaldību pārstāvji?

Kā to vērtē Jelgavas pilsētas un rajona vēlēšanu komisijās?

Kāds varētu būt situācijas risinājums?

Par šiem jautājumiem raksta autore intervēja Jelgavas pilsētas un rajona esošos un bijušos pašvaldību vadītāju pārstāvjus (A.R., L.K., N.E.), kā arī pilsētas un rajona Vēlēšanu komisiju sekretāres (J.M., V.Ģ.). Tāpat situācijas ilustrācijai izmantoti autoru veikta kvalitatīvā pētījuma (2007.gada decembris) dati par Sidrabenes pagasta pievienošanu Ozolnieku novadam.

Vispārēju viedokli par situāciju administratīvi teritoriālās reformas (ATR) sakarā pauž Andris Rāviņš (A.R.), Jelgavas pilsētas mērs, Pašvaldības savienības loceklis, ZZS biedrs, pārstāv Lielo pilsētu asociāciju. Viņš uzskata, ka *ATR ir politiski ekonomiski mērķi, savukārt novadu lielumu izšķir, pirmkārt, pakalpojumu pieejamība, otrkārt, patstāvīgs budžets, treškārt, spēja attīstīties (piesaistīt naudu; cilvēki plus nauda) Cilvēku skaits nav noteicošais. Var būt arī maza pašvaldība.*

A. R. pievērš uzmanību arī **pašvaldību līmeņiem**, akcentējot, ka no 90.g. sākuma Latvijā bija divi līmeņi: **pagasti un rajoni**. *ATR rezultātā vajadzēja būt apriņķiem. Pašlaik ir plānošanas reģioni, rajoni, pagasti. Šobrīd grūti pateikt, kā uz situāciju skatīsies Satversmes tiesa.*

Saistībā ar **valsts un iedzīvotāju attiecībām A. R.** uzsver, ka *tur, kur novadi jau ir, iedzīvotāju aptaujas ir bijušas, un viņi savu viedokli ir pauduši, jo likums neprasa obligātu referendumu šajos jautājumos, bet valsts ar likumu var apstiprināt izmaiņas. Reformā demokrātija ievērota nosacīti, tas ir drīzāk piespiedu akts.*

Savu vērtējumu reformas gaitai dod arī **Nellija Empele**, kura 12 gadus bija Līvberzes pagasta vecākā, tāpēc cieši saistīta ar pašvaldību reformas pirmsākumiem. Viņa uzskata, ka *reāli šis process Latvijā ir „sāpīgi” ilglaicīgs un stipri atkarīgs no tā, kāda ir valdības koalīcija. Biežās valdības maiņas ir stipri ietekmējušas reformas procesu un līdz ar to visas valsts attīstību. Ja reforma būtu notikusi kā bija paredzēts, līdz 1996. gadam, tad, pirmkārt, nebūtu palikuši mazie pagasti līdz 1000 iedzīvotājiem, un nebūtu šī neracionālā sadrumstalotība. Līdz ar to būtu izmantoti līdzekļi racionālāk. Otrkārt, nesakārtotā likumdošana (vēlēšanu likums, pašvaldību likums, finanšu izlīdzināšanas likums), biežās koalīciju maiņas. Katrai valdībai ir sava likumdošana pašvaldību lietās. Pašvaldību vadītāji ir noguruši un paliek daļēji apātiski. Piemērs, Štokenberga aikā tika pildīts TP pasūtījums, vadoties pēc politikas interesēm.*

Viedokli pašvaldību reformas sakarā izsaka arī **Lauma Klovāne**, Glūdas pagasta vecākā, kas strādā kopš 1995. gada. Glūdas pagasts ir viens no tiem, kas ir uzsācis tiesvedību ar valsti, iesniedzot prasību Satversmes tiesā, protestējot pret pagasta viedokļa neņemšanu vērā novada veidošanas sakarā. Attiecībā par pašreizējo divu līmeņu pašvaldību reorganizāciju **L. Klovāne** skaidro, ka *plānots atstāt tikai viena līmeņa pašvaldības: novadi; pilsētas. Otrā līmeņa praktiski nav. Šai sakarā L. Klovāne arī min piemēru par Austrijas pašvaldību reformas pieredzi 60-70-os gados: lielu pašvaldību veidojumi nesekmē attīstību: veidojas lieli centri ar mazām nomalēm. Viņasprāt, teritoriju lielumam un iedzīvotāju skaitam ir jābūt samērojamam, lai varētu pārvaldīt.*

Kā negatīvo piemēru **Lauma Klovāne** uzskata Kandavas novadu, kurš bija viens no pirmajiem novadiem. Viņasprāt, *tur pietrūka lēmējvaras tālredzīguma. Vadītājs nespēja nodrošināt teritorijas vienmērīgu un līdzsvarotu attīstību., vairāk balstījās uz konjunktūru un politiskiem saukļiem. Rezultātā izveidojās liels centrs ar izteiktām nomalēm, kurām netika pievērsta uzmanība, kas bremzēja visa novada attīstību. Administratīvā reforma tomēr ir atkarīga no pašvaldību vadītāja.*

Pēc **Klovānes** domām, *otrais pašvaldību līmenis ir vajadzīgs, kas regulē ES naudas piesaisti, izglītības metodisko darbu, tūrisma sfēru, medicīnas pakalpojumus, pirmsskolu: tam jābūt. vienā vietā, kas novirza uz visām pusēm. Reģions ir par lielu tam.*

Jelgavas rajonā kā pagastus ar lielām (optimālām) teritorijām un attīstītu saimniecisko darbību **L. Klovāne** nosauc *Bērzi, Līvberzi, Jaunbērzi, Glūdu.*

Runājot par to, **kāpēc reformas process ir ieildzis, Lauma Klovāne** skaidro, ka *nav vienprātības, intereses nesakrīt valstij un pašvaldībām. Jāizvērtē, vai pagasts tiek galā ar saviem līdzekļiem,*

vai ir saņēmējs no izlīdzināšanas fonda, vai ir peļņa vai izmanto kredītus. Ieguldījums ilgtermiņā Glūdā uz vienu iedzīvotāju – 280 Ls, novadā būs 190 Ls.

Ir sauklis „Jums būs labāk”, bet kā tas būs, neviens neatbild.

Intervijā ar **Intu Savicku**, Jelgavas rajona padomes priekšsēdētāju, tiek akcentētas divas domas:

- *Ir apstiprināti Ministru kabineta noteikumi par vietējo pašvaldību administratīvi teritoriālo iedalījumu, saskaņā ar kuriem, pēc reformas Jelgavas rajonā ir 2 novadi: Ozolnieku un Jelgavas. Trīs pašvaldības (Glūda, Līvberze un Valgunde) nepiekrīt un iesniegušas prasību Satversmes tiesā. Līdz ar to uzskatu, ka skaidrības par novadu skaitu nav.*

- *Uzskatu, ka nepieciešams sagaidīt Satversmes tiesas spriedumu, lai varētu sākt darbu pie rajona pašvaldības reorganizācijas plāna un jauno novadu struktūras izveides.*

Tātad, kā redzams, visi pašvaldību pārstāvji uzsver, ka reformas īstenošanas gaita nav vērtējama viennozīmīgi, un, lai gan demokrātijas principi ir daļēji ievēroti, tomēr politiskās intereses un biežās valdību maiņas ir bremzējušas sekmīgu reformas norisi.

Neatrisinātā novadu veidošanas situācija kļūst vēl aktuālāka tuvojošos pašvaldību vēlēšanu sakarā (2009.gada 6.jūnijs). Pirmie, kas tiešā veidā izjūt nepabeigtās reformas sekas, ir **Centrālā vēlēšanu komisija**, kam jāorganizē 2009.gada pašvaldību vēlēšanas. Saskaņā ar likumu „Par pilsētu, rajonu, novadu un pagastu vēlēšanu komisijām un vēlēšanu iecirkņu komisijām”, Saeimas vēlēšanu, Eiropas Parlamenta vēlēšanu, tautas nobalsošanas, kā arī pilsētas domes, novada domes un pagasta padomes ...vēlēšanu sagatavošanai katrā pilsētā, rajonā, novadā un pagastā no vēlētajiem tiek izveidota attiecīgi pilsētas vēlēšanu komisija, rajona vēlēšanu komisija, novada vēlēšanu komisija un pagasta vēlēšanu komisija (turpmāk — vēlēšanu komisija) 7 – 15 locekļu sastāvā. Vēlēšanu komisijas locekļu skaitu nosaka attiecīgā dome (padome). Vēlēšanu un tautas nobalsošanas sarīkošanai pilsētās, novados un pagastos Centrālās vēlēšanu komisijas noteiktajos termiņos tiek izveidotas vēlēšanu iecirkņu komisijas..., katra septiņu locekļu sastāvā. (Par pilsētu, rajonu, novadu un pagastu vēlēšanu komisijām un vēlēšanu iecirkņu komisijām. <http://web.cvk.lv>)

Atbilstoši Pilsētas domes, novada domes un pagasta padomes vēlēšanu likumam domē (padomē) ievēlējamo deputātu skaitu nosaka atbilstoši iedzīvotāju skaitam, kāds attiecīgās pašvaldības administratīvajā teritorijā vēlēšanu izsludināšanas dienā ir reģistrēts Iedzīvotāju reģistrā. Katras pilsētas, novada un pagasta pašvaldības administratīvajā teritorijā veido atsevišķu vēlēšanu apgabalu. Tāpat likums nosaka, ka pilsētas domi, novada domi un pagasta padomi, ... ievēlē vienlīdzīgās, tiešās, aizklātās un proporcionālās vēlēšanās uz četriem gadiem. Domes (padomes) kārtējās vēlēšanas notiek jūnija otrajā sestdienā. (Pilsētas domes, novada domes un pagasta padomes

vēlēšanu likums. <http://web.cvk.lv>) 2009.gada pašvaldību vēlēšanas paredzēts rīkot kopā ar Eiropas Parlamenta vēlēšanām, kas vēl nopietnāk liek pārdomāt ar vēlēšanu iecirkņiem saistītos jautājumus.

Taču – *kā noteiks vēlēšanu iecirkņus? No kādām teritorijām izvirzīs deputātu kandidātus?*

Situācija ar nenoteiktajiem novadiem satrauc centrālo vēlēšanu komisiju, kas ierosinājusi izdarīt izmaiņas likumdošanā un papildināt likumprojektu *Grozījumi likumā “Par pilsētu, rajonu, novadu un pagastu vēlēšanu komisijām un vēlēšanu iecirkņu komisijām”* ar 16. pantu šādā redakcijā: „Lai nodrošinātu 2009. gada pašvaldību vēlēšanas un Eiropas Parlamenta vēlēšanas, tajos novados, kuros nav pabeigta novada pašvaldības izveidošana saskaņā ar administratīvi teritoriālo iedalījumu, pēc 2008. gada 1. novembra vietējo pašvaldību domes (padomes) divu mēnešu laikā sasauc visu attiecīgo vietējo pašvaldību deputātu kopsapulci, kas ievēlē novada vēlēšanu komisiju. Šādu novada vēlēšanu komisiju:

- 1) uz pirmo sēdi sasauc Centrālās vēlēšanu komisijas priekšsēdētājs vai viņa pilnvarota persona;
- 2) no saviem budžetiem finansē visas attiecīgo vietējo pašvaldību domes (padomes) proporcionāli balsstiesīgo iedzīvotāju skaitam tajās...” (Cimdars A. Priekšlikumi likumprojektam..., Rīgā, 2008.gada 9.septembrī)

Lai arī uzskatāms, ka ar brīdi, kad tiks izsludinātas kārtējās pašvaldību vēlēšanas, administratīvi teritoriālā reforma būs noslēgusies, tomēr situācijā, kad virkne pašvaldību tiesāsies ar valsti, nevar apgalvot, ka tā tiešām būs, jo tiesas procesi nebeigsies tuvākā pusgada laikā.

Par jautājumiem, kas skar administratīvi teritoriālo reformu pašvaldību vēlēšanu sakarā, kā ekspertes tika uzaicinātas **Janīna Mināte**, Jelgavas pilsētas vēlēšanu komisijas sekretāre un **Vineta Ģenderte** – Jelgavas rajona vēlēšanu komisijas sekretāre.

Sākotnēji bija iecerēts, ka apmēram gadu pirms 2009.gada pašvaldību vēlēšanām administratīvi teritoriālā reforma būs beigusies, lai CVK varētu sekmīgi veikt savu darbu jau atbilstoši jaunajam teritoriālajam sadalījumam. Taču pašreiz (2008.g.septembris) ir palikuši vairs tikai daži mēneši līdz vēlēšanām, bet īstas skaidrības, kādi būs vēlēšanu iecirkņi, nav.

Vērtējot radušos situāciju, **Janīna Mināte** saka, ka *pašreiz ir vēlēšanu likuma izmaiņu projekts, likums vēl nav pieņemts. Iespējams, vēlēšanas būs pēc iedzīvotāju reģistra, tad būs ielūgumi. Pilsētu nesakārtotais jautājums ar teritoriālo iedalījumu neskar, bet rajonā strādājošie cilvēki baidās gan par savu darbu, gan arī par to, kā tad īsti organizēs pašvaldību vēlēšanas.*

Ja vēlēšanas novados saglabāsies katrā apdzīvotā vietā, lielām izmaiņām nevajadzētu būt, bet, ja būs jābrauc vēlē uz novada centru, vēlētāju skaits samazināsies. Pilsētā šai ziņā nekas nemainīsies.

Vēl paliek atvērts jautājums- kā veidos kandidātu sarakstus. Tiem vajadzētu būt pa novadiem. Bet, ja ievēlēs pēc vecā sadalījuma un drīz pēc tam mainīs novadus, būs sajukums Absurda situācija! Kandidātu sarakstiem

ir jābūt ne vēlāk kā 40 dienas pirms vēlēšanām. Tas nozīmē, ka ne vēlāk kā 3 mēnešus pirms vēlēšanām ir jābūt pilnīgai skaidrībai par teritoriālo sadalījumu Latvijā.

Vineta Ģenderte – Jelgavas rajona vēlēšanu komisijas sekretāre atzīmē, ka rajona vēlēšanu komisijas darbinieki nav detaļās informēti par reformu saistībā ar pašvaldību rajonu līmeņa iespējamo likvidāciju. Domājams, ka uz šīm vēlēšanām būs pa vecam- iecirkņi uz vietas pagastos, apkopos rezultātus rajonā. Šobrīd arī CVK nevar pateikt, kā būs – attiecībā uz Jelgavas rajonu (Valgunde, Glūda, Līvberze). Varētu būt novadu vēlēšanas.

Neskatoties uz daudzajām problēmām administratīvi teritoriālās reformas sakarā, ir arī **pozitīvi piemēri** novadu veidošanā. Jelgavas rajonā par tādu var uzskatīt Ozolnieku novada izveidi, kas notika reformas pirmajā posmā, kad pašvaldības varēja izrādīt savu iniciatīvu. Ozolnieku novads darbojas jau sesto gadu, un 2007.gada nogalē tam pievienojās vēl viens pagasts – Sidrabene. Tagad novads iekļauj sevī Ozolniekus kā pašvaldības centru, Brankas, Āni, Pēterniekus, Dalbi, Teteli un Sidrabeni.

Šai sakarā savu viedokli puda arī Lauma Klovāne. Runājot par Ozolnieku sekmīgo attīstību, viņa atzīmē, ka daudz kas ir atkarīgs galvenokārt no pašvaldības vadītāja lietpratības. Ozolniekos ir ļoti augstā līmenī organizatoriskā struktūra. Līdzekļi tiek racionāli pielietoti visā novada teritorijā. Pakalpojumu pieejamība uzlabojusies jūtami pēdējo gadu laikā. Ozolniekiem bija nepieciešamība paplašināties, jo teritorijas ziņā Ozolnieki bija ļoti mazs pagasts. **Maza teritorijas ziņā ar labu organizatorisko struktūru pievieno lielākas teritorijas.**

Pirms Sidrabenes pagasta pievienošanas 2007. rudenī raksta autore veica pētījumu novadā – Iedzīvotāju aptauja Ozolnieku novadā par iespējamo Sidrabenes pagasta pievienošanu Ozolnieku novadam un līdzšinējo novada darbību, lai noskaidrotu iedzīvotāju viedokli par jauna pagasta pievienošanu. Tai pat laikā novada vadība lūdza, lai aptaujas anketā iekļauj arī jautājumus par novada līdzšinējo darbību. Respondentiem tika lūgts izvērtēt, vai laikā pēc Ozolnieku novada izveidošanas novada iedzīvotāju dzīvē ir saskatāmas pārmaiņas un kāds ir to raksturs (skat. 1.tab.).

1.tabula

**Pārmaiņu raksturs laikā pēc Ozolnieku novada izveidošanas
respondentu vērtējumā**

N.p.k.	Pārmaiņu raksturs	Skaitis
1.	Tikai pozitīvas	46
2.	Vairāk pozitīvas kā negatīvas	107
3.	Vairāk negatīvas kā pozitīvas	7
4.	Tikai negatīvas	2
5.	Nekas nav mainījies	17
6.	Grūti pateikt	28
7.	Kopā	207

Avots: Raksta autoru veikta npublicēta pētījuma dati

Kā redzams tabulā, tad lielākā daļa respondentu uzskata, ka novadā pārmaiņas ir notikušas. Tā uzskata 162 no aptaujātajiem. Pārmaiņas kā pozitīvas un vairāk pozitīvas kā negatīvas vērtē 153 cilvēki. Kā negatīvas pārmaiņas vērtē tikai divi respondenti. 28 no aptaujātajiem nav varējuši pārmaiņas novērtēt.

Kad respondenti bija novērtējuši novada darbību kopumā, viņiem tika lūgts **izvērtēt novada pašvaldības galvenās funkcijas**: vai to izpilde ir uzlabojusies, palikusi nemainīga vai pasliktinājusies (skat. 2. tab.).

2.tabula

**Pašvaldības funkciju izpildes vērtējums
(Pozīcija: uzlabojusies)**

Pašvaldības funkcija	Skaits	%
5.1. Komunālo pakalpojumu organizēšana	57	28,1%
5.2. Izglītošanās iespēju nodrošināšana	104	53,1%
5.3. Teritorijas labiekārtošana	177	85,1%
5.4. Būvvaldes darbība	49	24,7%
5.5. Kultūras joma	135	66,2%
5.6. Sociālās palīdzības nodrošināšana	55	27,8%
5.7. Primārās veselības aprūpes nodrošināšana	45	22,1%
5.8. Rūpes par bezdarba samazināšanu	36	18,1%
5.9. Uzņēmējdarbības veicināšana	54	27,1%
5.10. Iedzīvotāju drošība un sabiedriskā kārtība	73	35,4%
5.11. Administratīvo funkciju izpilde	65	32,2%
5.12. Sporta joma	93	45,8%

Avots: Raksta autoru veikta nepublicēta pētījuma dati

Vislielāko uzlabojumu iedzīvotāji redz teritorijas labiekārtošanā, kultūras jomā un izglītošanās iespēju nodrošināšanā. Salīdzinoši augsti rādītāji ir arī sporta jomā, iedzīvotāju drošības un sabiedriskās kārtības uzturēšanā. Retāk pozitīvāko vērtējumu saņēmušas tādas sfēras kā būvvalde un primārās veselības aprūpes nodrošināšana.

Tātad, kā redzams, situācija nav viennozīmīga. Kritiski esošo situāciju vērtē ne tikai daudzu vietējo pašvaldību vadība un iedzīvotāji, bet arī cilvēki, kas uz šiem procesiem var paskatīties no malas un tos analizēt. Šajā sakarā var minēt banku augstskolas docenta Jāņa Graša viedokli, ko viņš izteicis rakstā „Vietējā pašvaldība – demokrātiskas valsts pamats”:

Viens ir skaidrs: pašvaldību reforma ir krietni novēlota, un ideālākajā gadījumā tā bija jāveic jau pirmajos Godmanlaikos, kas diemžēl netika izdarīts. Tāpēc esošie strīdi par to, vai būs 103 novadi (Tautas partijas piedāvājums) vai 137 (Zaļo un Zemnieku savienības piedāvājums), vai minimālajam iedzīvotāju skaitam vietējā pašvaldībā ir jābūt 2000 vai 5000, manuprāt ir tikai atsevišķu stūrgalvīgu politikāņu vēlme turpināt Latvijā valdīt pēc principa “Skaldi un valdi!”

Ja reiz Staiceles pilsēta, Amata, Alsunga, Valgunde, Lapmežciems, Inčukalns, Allaži, Olaine, Sece, Sērene, Līvberze, Glūda, Priekuļi, Gailīši, Pūre, Mežotne, Brīvzemnieki, Baltinava, Ģibuļi, Vaidava, Kocēni, Kauguri, Strazde, Lībagi, Ance, Tārgale, Skrīveri, Rauna, Vecsaule, Īslīce, Code, Sala, Jersika un Smārde jūtas ekonomiski pietiekoši spēcīgas, un neredz ieguvumus no pievienošanās, tad kāpēc šīs pašvaldības arī turpmāk nevarētu pastāvēt? (Grasis J. Vietējā pašvaldība)

Secinājumi

1. Administratīvi teritoriālā reforma ir nepieciešama.
2. Administratīvi teritoriālās reformas gaitā iezīmējušies gan pozitīvi, gan negatīvi novadu veidošanas piemēri visā Latvija, tai skaitā arī Jelgavas rajonā.
3. Pretestību reformai radījuši šādi apstākļi:
 - a) reforma pārāk „izstiepta” laikā;
 - b) nepietiekami ievēroti demokrātijas principi reformas īstenošanas gaitā (pārāk maza iedzīvotāju informētība, vietējo pašvaldību viedokļu neuzklausīšana);
 - c) atsevišķās pašvaldībās dominē t.s. lokālpatriotisms, kas ne vienmēr pieņemams no valsts interešu viedokļa
4. Nepabeigtā reforma apgrūtinā turpmāko valsts funkcionēšanu un attīstību. Kā viens no pirmajiem tā apliecinājumiem ir 2009.gada pašvaldību vēlēšanu organizācija, kas ir ievērojami apgrūtināta.
5. Prognoze – reforma tiks pabeigta piespiedu kārtā, tomēr būs atsevišķas pašvaldības, kuru tiesvedība ar valsti var ieilgt, tādējādi radot problēmas gan pašas sev, gan valstij kopumā.

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ORIENTATION OF TEENAGER VALUES AS AN ASPECT OF SOCIALISATION IN THE ESTABLISHMENTS OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN LATVIA

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Abstract

Interaction of social interests and governing standards of society with the process of personality formation has topical meaning in the process of the value research. Moreover, subjective linking of values with the evaluator, changes of social system and personality values, as well as hierarchic structure of a set of certain values are problematic issues both for teenagers and the whole society. Acquirement of values is closely connected with the formation of a personality in the process of socialisation, in which the personality acquires social and cultural experience, working skills and social standards. The most intense this process is during childhood and teens. The late teens, i.e., 15/16 years, is a transition period from childhood to adolescence. Part of teenagers in the age of late teens have to change the accustomed social environment, as after acquiring the elementary education they enter establishments of vocational education. Therefore these teenagers have to face the changes of social environment. In order to ensure successful socialisation process of these teenagers in the new social environment offered by the establishment of vocational education, it is important to understand the system of their values.

Keywords: values, teenager, socialisation.

Introduction

The human life is essentially influenced by the aspect of values, i.e., what are the priorities of the values. It is not easy to find the substantiation of value formation and existence, as the issues which concern emergence, formation, stabilisation and revaluation processes are problematic. Interaction of social interests and governing standards of society with the process of personality formation has topical meaning in the process of the value research. In addition, the issues in the following spheres, whether the values are subjectively linked to the evaluator, changes of the social system and personality values, as well as the hierarchic structure of a set of certain values also are problematic.

Understanding of a value

In antiquity Greek philosophers paid attention to the fact, that the human life is determined by definite orientations. People usually prefer pleasure, for example, want to relish, acquire knowledge and welfare. The human aspirations are different: some strive to knowledge; the others are preoccupied only by material interests.

Plato was one of the first philosophers which tried to find out what is the value. Plato has created a division: material world and the world of subjective emotional experience of people. Plato considered that there exist an idea of virtues, which encompass various virtues, i.e., piety, justice,

composure, wisdom etc. Plato has compared the said virtues with the parts of a face, in which each part has its own function. Plato has considered wisdom as the most important virtue of the idea of virtues (Platons, 1999, p. 44).

Aristotle thought that the highest value of a person is his knowledge. Knowledge of a person is formed by his personal conviction and basic principles, known only by him. Practically wise person possesses the ability to correctly decide on that is good, useful and needed for him, in order to have a good life. Aristotle thought that the most exact science of all is the wisdom of a person himself. Wisdom at the same time is both an intuitive mind, and logical theoretical knowledge. Aristotle thought that wisdom is the top of knowledge of all most prominent persons (Aristotelis, 1988, p.125).

Seneca has pointed out that in the whole world there is nothing enough sacred not to meet a desecrator. Wisdom of a person of the best hallmark is that no umbrage can harm it. Soul of a wise person is stable and has accumulated enough strength to withstand umbrages (Seneka, 2001, p. 76).

According to R. Descartes, mind is the source of real knowledge. Humans have always had an ardent desire to learn how to distinguish the true from the false, in order to be able to evaluate their behaviour with clear understanding and proceed in this life with confidence (Dekarts, 1978, p.77).

D. Hume has accented the science as a value which stimulates maintaining of human spirit. The most pleasant and harmless path of life leads through the alley of science and education, and the person which is able to remove obstacles from this path or hew a new way, should be evaluated as a benefactor of humanity (Hjūms, 1987, p. 44).

The discussion about the values was continued by the representative of the philosophy of life F. Nietzsche. His philosophy was based on revaluation of all values. One of his main cognitions – values are relative as they are variable and subjected to the flow of time. The values are created by a person himself. A person himself has put a value in things to support himself. A person has created only the meaning of things, attaching them a human meaning (Nīče, 2001, p. 63).

J. A. Students considers that the mistake of people is hidden in mistaking opinions for values. Values are not changing. Only opinions about values are changing. The eternity of a value is expressed by independence of the value from a person. Money, things are material values. Material values can change. They are not eternal. Mental values are not changing, they are eternal. J. A. Students has admitted that education is an incontestable value. If young people at educational establishments would be encouraged to think that education is a value in itself, that by education and

collection of knowledge they improve themselves mentally and serve the ideal of life they have chosen and selected (Students, 1998, p. 89).

Formation of understanding of values in teenagers

Regularities of the culture existing in society influence the activities of a person. The activity may be seen from two aspects. First, it is means, methods and approaches which regulate behaviour of a person. Second, they are goals, attaining of which needs using of these methods.

For example, the values typical to modern society and determining the goal of activity of a person are: standard of living, property, fame, education, physical training and health. In order to attain these values assiduous learning, intense work, persistent training, distinguishing oneself at work (career) is required. If this issue is treated from another aspect, the values determined by cultural laws may contain heavier or lighter burden of responsibility. For example, a value, which already has become an axiom: "In modern times every person has to acquire education" (Štompka, 2005, p. 273). The priority of education is stressed by the social factors in economic, cultural and political life. Education plays an important role in the individualisation process of a person.

The age of 15/16 years, i.e. the age of late teens may be characterised as the time of maximal endeavours of individualisation. Moreover, in this age everything typical in the social experience is denied. But the teenager is not yet ready for complete autonomy of personality. He is characterised by strong emotional protest, and on the background of strong emotional experiences there is yet no place for analysis, consideration, and searching of own values as well. The teenager frees himself from generalised social standards which do not function in the real life and are uncritically born in mind by adults. The teenager uncritically and fully bears in mind the standards of the referent group of equals in age. The only source, from which he is deriving the material for cognition of social relation of life, is spontaneous personal experience, often obtained in risky and extreme forms. The teenager is not free from typical experience. He tries to develop in a phase opposite to it. He does not search for freedom as he is not ready for it yet. He needs a path of life along which he could move, "freely fluttering his disproportionally long and clumsy arms". In addition his path of life should have clearly marked edges. Modern teenagers have difficulties of formation of such values orientation which would facilitate his painless joining of socially economical system. The reason for it is the changes of socially economical situation and as the consequences of that – weakened formation functions of modern family in formation of long-term personality attitudes of a child. Modern teenager at school tries not only to acquire knowledge in subjects, but also a certain life

experience, which would help him in future to be effective in the social environment (Bitjanova, 2008, p. 335).

The teenager in the establishments of vocational education

Part of teenagers in the age of late teens, i.e. in the age of 15/16 years, have to change the accustomed social environment, as after acquiring the elementary education they enter establishments of vocational education. Not always the establishment of vocational education is located near the pupil's habitual place of residence. It is possible, that the teenager for the first time in his life will have to stay away from his family for long time. So the teenager finds himself in an unfamiliar social environment. The social neighbourhood of the teenager's life has changed, i.e., the totality of existence and social, material and mental circumstances of activities, as well as the totality of social relations, in which the teenager has been developing as a personality, has changed.

Today a topical problem in Latvia is socialisation of teenagers in the establishments of vocational education. In the result of insufficient socialisation of teenagers every year a great number of pupils is expelled already in the first academic year. In Latvia the proportion of the pupils expelled from the establishments of secondary vocational education during the last four years has not changes – 12.9%, exclusive of the pupils which have terminated studies because of illness.

In the Basic Statements of Educational Development 2007 – 2013 in Latvia it is specified that the education system of Latvia during the last years has been improved and become a part of the European education system. Its development is planned in accordance with internationally established basic statements in the sphere of education, planned initiatives and activities of new education policy, by stressing the most important development trends of education. In order to carry out serious improvements in the education system during the next planning period, new solutions of problems are sought, more effective activities are planned, which would provide maximal contribution in attaining the education goals. In compliance with the goals of the Lisbon Strategy of education and the Copenhagen Process the proportion of expelled pupils in the establishments of vocational education in 2010 should be less than 10 percent.

Part of pupils enters establishments of vocational education with weak knowledge and low motivation to study, majority of pupils come from low-income or socially disadvantageous families. The material and technical basis of the establishments of vocational education does not correspond to modern requirements. Therefore one can observe decreasing of the prestige of vocational education.

One of the reasons why pupils are expelled from the establishments of vocational education is insufficient socialisation which forms the mental essence of a person by involve him in social structures, i.e., the social environment of the establishment of vocational education. In addition, it is essential that the maturing teenager not always quickly acquires social standards. Formation of social maturity of the age of teens is connected with seeking of independence, tendency to choose and act by himself. The teenager who at the elementary school has been feeling a constant care of a teacher finds himself in new social situation of the establishment of vocational education that requires his own responsibility about all processes.

Self actualisation of a personality is wholesome if it results from socially valuable and at the same time personally significant activities. At the same time the activity is limited by objective possibilities of the age group. The basic activity in which the teenager can express himself is study. Though even in the best case the study process in this age group can not fully satisfy the need of self actualisation of the personality. Modern teenagers mature earlier (acceleration), earlier feel the need for self actualisation of their personality already today, not waiting for tomorrow. At the same time the age when the teenager involves in an independent activity increases. Thus this gap between the desire of self actualisation and the real activity aggravates many processes characteristic to late teens. It leads to especially active forms of self actualisation. The teenager in late teens lives with the scenes of future, aiming at future. But very often we forget that the teenager lives already today. And that “today” for him is not less important that tomorrow. As today it is significant with its topicality (Mudriks, 2006, p. 346). Socialisation is a process in which the social and cultural experience of a personality, acquisition of working skills, social standards and values, identity of the personality is formed. Most intensively this process takes place during childhood and age of teens. The social environment, in which the teenager lives, has an important influence upon him. Essential importance has the adaptation of the teenager to the new situation, requirements, and certain conditions which are constantly changing as the vocational education comprises both the theoretical study process in the educational establishment, and in later stage of studies the time of practice in an enterprise or organisation connected with the field of study. Moreover, part of teenagers, establishment of vocational education of which is located far from the place of residence in addition have to adapt to the social environment existing in hostels. Therefore the pupil of the establishment of vocational education during the study process at least three times is forced to finds himself in an unfamiliar social environment, i.e., for the first time when he enters the establishment of vocational education, for the second time in the hostel and for the third time at the place of practice in an enterprise or organisation. Most programs of vocational education have been developed so that the

first practice of pupils is scheduled already in the first year. While the socialisation process of teenagers in the establishment of vocational education, including hostel, may be directed by the teachers and social workers of the establishment of vocational education, the social environment at the place of practice in an enterprise or organisation not always is favourable for a teenager. Thus this stage of socialisation for the teenager comprises also overcoming negative, unfavourable factors connected with adaptation to the respective social environment.

Part of pupils enters establishments of vocational education with weak knowledge and low motivation to study, majority of pupils come from low-income or socially disadvantageous families. The material and technical basis of the establishments of vocational education does not correspond to modern requirements. Therefore one can observe decreasing of the prestige of vocational education.

The Research of the Education as a Value

In order to allow the socialisation process of these teenagers in the new social environment offered by the establishment of vocational education be successful, it is important that the values prevailing in the establishment of vocational education and those of teenagers coincide. Moreover it is important that pupils understand that the education is a value and they allocate it a significant part in their system of values.

Goal: to find out the prior values of pupils of the establishments of vocational education and the place of the education as a value in the pupils' system of values.

Research base: 1st year pupils of two establishments of vocational education of Riga, i.e., 109 pupils.

Time of research: December, 2007.

Method: Method of polling. Questionnaire method.

Results

According to the choices made by the pupils the values included in the questionnaires may be generalised in groups, which are formed based on the frequency of the choice of the values made by the pupils. The most frequently chosen values with the largest number of choices: *family* (85 choices, i.e., 80%), *health* (66 choices, i.e., 61%) and *love* (64 choices, i.e., 59%). Values, which according to the choices of the pupils had an average showing of choices: *education* (44 choices, i.e., 40%), *justice* (35 choices, i.e., 32%), *knowledge* (22 choices, i.e., 20%). Values, which had less choices in comparison with the valued of the first two groups: *honesty* (21 choice, i.e., 21%),

confidence about ones future (21 choice, i.e., 19%), *ability to be independent from others* (19 choices, i.e., 17%), *the profession you have chosen* (16 choices, i.e., 15%), *language literacy* (13 choices, i.e., 12%).

Conclusion

The pupils of the establishments of vocational education in the hierarchy of their values allot quite average place to the values connected with education, i.e., 40% of the respondents consider education as a value, 20% of the respondents consider knowledge as a value, 15% of the respondents consider the chosen profession as a value and 12% of the respondents consider language literacy as a value. In addition one can conclude that about 20% of the pupils have not allotted in the system of their values any place for the values connected with education.

Awareness of education as a value in the age of teens is essential as at this age the highest degree of intellectual development – formal operations or verbally logical intellect is attained. In addition, factor of perception of education as a value in the establishments of vocational education is connected with awareness that parallelly to the curriculum of general secondary education the pupils acquire their profession as well which will give them a chance of choice after graduation, i.e., to continue education in the higher educational institution or join the labour market as a qualified specialists.

The establishment of vocational education in a certain period of time is the one who implements the socialisation of a teenager, by providing the individual both with theoretical knowledge and practical skills for future life. The topicality of the problem may be contained in several layers, i.e., the general regularities moving the socialisation process and the peculiarity of the socialisation process of the teenager. Therefore it is necessary to find out and solve the problems of teenager socialisation in the system of vocational education. The solution of the aforesaid problem would facilitate maintaining the contingent of pupils in the establishment of vocational education, which in its turn would allow the pupil to acquire the secondary education and the profession at the same time, facilitate provision of the labour market with the specialists of the respective field, as well as motivate the personality growth of an individual.

By cognition of the course of socialisation and developing a scientifically substantiated progress of the socialisation process of pupils in the establishments of vocational education, it is possible to decrease the process of expelling pupils form the establishments of vocational education. That would enable the pupils who have difficulties in the socialisation process to continue education in the chosen establishment of vocational education by acquiring a speciality demanded by the

modern labour market, well paid and modern, for example, IT specialist, environmental designer, specialist of tourism services, specialist of hospitality, office management, motor engineer etc. The graduates of the establishments of secondary vocational education have the possibility to continue their education in the higher educational institutions due to the fact that parallelly to the profession they have acquired the secondary education as well. Moreover if a person has already obtained some degree of education, it needs little efforts to continue obtaining education and change a qualification and profession in accordance with the demand of labour market.

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THE ROLE OF NGO'S SOCIAL NETWORKS IN THE MAINTENANCE OF A MULTICULTURAL ENVIRONMENT IN THE RURAL AREAS OF LATVIA

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Introduction. A united cultural space, characterized by cultural diversity and united by common values is a basis of Latvian civil society. The existence of a united cultural space initiates development of various social, ethnic and religious groups as a united civil society. The national culture values based on the culture institutions of national significance and cultural heritage of each group take an important role in developing state cultural perspective and in development and maintenance of national identity.

Fundraising from EU and other foundations is an important sphere where networks and their agents start to cooperate. In many cases co-financing is necessary from the organization itself or from the local municipality or state, and coordination and cooperation principles become important. Recently new initiatives are observed also at the countryside, e.g., partnerships which unite local municipalities, private sector, state institutions, non-governmental organizations and other community groups show itself as a relevant development agent.

Methods. The research objective is to explore the role of NGO support network in the maintenance of cultural diversity and development of a multi – cultural cooperation at the Latvian countryside. The research methods are: structured interviews and SWOT analysis.

Key words: NGO, multi-cultural environment, social networks, countryside.

Theoretical Conceptions of Multiculturalism

There are two tensions within multiculturalism that sociology inherits. First, multiculturalism has come to define a set of state policies to manage (neutralize, nullify, subdue, or conquer) difference (multiculturalism as policy). Second, it also has come to define those strategies that mount resistances to state management policies of difference (multiculturalism as politics). Thus, multiculturalism has come to express both a will to difference and a will to sameness (equity, equality, fairness) simultaneously.

These tensions are not unique to multiculturalism. In the second half of the twentieth century, many struggles for social justice have mobilized identity and difference and placed new demands on citizenship. There are two reasons for this. First, which may be called the politics of identity, many social movements (civil rights and women's and indigenous peoples' rights being principal examples) called into question the shortcomings of the ideal of universal citizenship in practice, signalling that, while being formally citizens, their identities still excluded them from rights of citizenship. Second, which may be called the politics of difference, many social groups articulated rights that accrued to them on the basis of their difference. Struggles for minority rights in language, schooling, and public appearance were often waged on this basis. The politics of recognition (combining the politics of identity and difference) has, therefore, increasingly mobilized

itself as simultaneous and conflicting claims to sameness and difference, inclusion and exclusion, and rights and obligations. (*Bryan S. Turner, 2006:407*)

Multiculturalism, either as policy or politics, may well have exhausted its possibilities. It was never as accepted and embraced in the United States and Europe as it was in Canada, and it has had a variegated history in Australia. The growing securitization of the state and politicization and radicalization of borders, and the growing conflicts between Muslim minorities and dominant cultures, have already shifted the discourse in the United States and Europe from multiculturalism to euphemisms of “integration” and “cohesion”. Whatever the concepts deployed, the tensions of the politics of recognition will continue to influence the research and political agendas. (*Bryan S. Turner, 2006: 407-408*)

Multiculturalism in which ethnic groups exist separately and equally. The United States and other Western countries are pluralistic in many senses, but ethnic differences have for the most part been associated with inequalities rather than equal but independent membership in the national community. It does seem at least possible to create a society in which ethnic groups are separate but equal, as is demonstrated by Switzerland, where French, German and Italian groups coexist in the same society.

In Britain and elsewhere in Europe, the leaders of most ethnic minority groups have increasingly emphasized the path of pluralism. To achieve 'distinct but equal' status will demand major struggles, and as yet this is a very distant option. Ethnic minorities are still perceived by many people as a threat: to their job, their safety and the “national culture”. The scapegoating of ethnic minorities is a persistent tendency. With the young in Western Europe quite often still holding similar prejudices to those of older generations, ethnic minorities in most countries face a future of continued discrimination, in a social climate characterized by tension and anxiety. (*Giddens A., 2006: 498*)

The model and characteristic of NGOs

The model NGOs determines what functions need to be performed to achieve its mission and allocates the work or assigns tasks. Management regularly updates assignments in light of changing plans and priorities. Management aims for an optimum match between the human resources (staff and volunteers), their skills and expertise, and the tasks they are assigned..

An NGOs human resources (staff and volunteers) need skills, motivation, and opportunities to make the best contribution they are capable of. It is necessary to organize staff and volunteers so they relate to each other in ways that are most conducive to productive outcomes.

NGOs have historically been found on the Moral High Ground. They have been organizations founded by people with strong moral commitments to helping the poor or the powerless, of empowering people and developing communities, of changing unjust laws and oppressive behavior. They have set themselves up as official structures proclaiming these missions, and are prepared to live by these precepts. NGOs:

- They are driven by values that reflect a desire to improve peoples lives.
- They are voluntary (i.e. formed by choice, and involving voluntary contributions of time and money.
- They have private and independence governance.
- They are not for profit (i.e. not distributing profit to staff or shareholders.)
- They have a clearly stated and definable public purpose.
- They respond to, and are accountable to, a constituency.
- They are formally constituted in law. (*Holloway R.,2007*)

A further characteristic of NGOs is that in most cases they depend on donations for the resources required to perform their functions. The donations may come from the community, from businesses, from the government of the country in which the NGO operates, or from foreign governments, foundations and businesses. For an NGO to be able to collect donations from the general public there must be a certain measure of financial viability in some section of that community. The section of the community with financial viability must be sympathetic to the needs of that section which needs the service being provided by the NGO. The contribution by a government to an NGOs material needs can only happen where there is a friendly relationship between government and the NGO. This happen where the government wishes to channel its resources into work of more urgent need, but the government is prepared to have an NGO, or a number of NGOs take care of those needs which the government cannot fully pay attention to at that particular time. (*Fanyana D. Mazibuko, 2000*)

Social networks Theory

There is an old saying that “it’s not *what* you know, it’s *who* you know”. This adage expresses the value of having “good connections”. Sociologists refer to such connections as networks – all the direct and indirect connections that link a person or a group with other people or groups. Your personal networks thus include people you know directly (such as your friends) as well as people you know indirectly (such as your friends’ friends). Personal networks often include people of similar race, class, ethnicity and other types of social background, although there are

exceptions. For example, if you subscribe to an online mailing list, you are part of a network that consists of all the people on the list, who may be of different racial or ethnic backgrounds and genders. Because groups and organizations can also be networked – for example, all the alumni of a particular university – belonging to such groups can greatly extend your reach and influence.

Social network theory produces an alternate view, where the attributes of individuals are less important than their relationships and ties with other actors within the network. This approach has turned out to be useful for explaining many real-world phenomena, but leaves less room for individual agency, the ability for individuals to influence their success; so much of it rests within the structure of their network.

A social network is a social structure made of nodes (which are generally individuals or organizations) that are tied by one or more specific types of interdependency, such as values, visions, ideas, financial exchange, friendship, kinship, dislike, conflict or trade. The resulting graph-based structures are often very complex. (*Mouge, P., Contractor, N., 2003*)

Network analysis within organizations In general, network analysis focuses on the relationships between people, instead of on characteristics of people. These relationships may comprise the feelings people have for each other, the exchange of information, or more tangible exchanges such as goods and money. By mapping these relationships, network analysis helps to uncover the emergent and informal communication patterns present in an organization, which may then be compared to the formal communication structures. These emergent patterns can be used to explain several organizational phenomena. (*Burt, R.S., 1992*)

Along with growing interest and increased use of network analysis has come a consensus about the central principles underlying the network perspective. In addition to the use of relational concepts, we note the following as being important:

- Actors and their actions are viewed as interdependent rather than independent, autonomous units;
- Relational ties (linkages) between actors are channels for transfer or "flow" of resources (either material or nonmaterial);
- Network models focusing on individuals view the network structural environment as providing opportunities for or constraints on individual action;
- Network models conceptualize structure (social, economic, political, and so forth) as lasting patterns of relations among actors.

Network analysts believe that how an individual lives depends in large part on how that individual is tied into the larger web of social connections. Many believe, moreover, that the success or failure of societies and organizations often depends on the patterning of their internal structure (Wasserman S., 1994)

The network plays a significant role not only in the life of the actors of the organizations and other public sectors, but also in the individual's life, because the non-formal exchange relationship provides them with the necessary material and non-material resources.

The network concept lays stress on the fact that each individual has a connection with other individuals, who are connected at the same time with some other individuals etc. In the social network theory the network is generally homogenous, with a marked social nature, because the agents that form it are social beings or individuals, or their groupings of different kind. That is why the social network refers to the actors totality and the ties between them.

The actors in the social network theory may be both separate individuals and their groups, which possess legal capability, ability to make choice, to make decisions and to act. It is exactly the legal capability that is the most typical feature of the actors. The social network performs several functions, which are very important to the individual and the whole society. These are offering different kinds of support, information exchange, economic resources exchange, possibilities of socialization and providing the sense of belonging. It could be referable both to the official and to the non-official process of the network formation.

Aspects of problem

In order to make the research, the research problem SWID analysis aspects were indicated:

1. NGO role in the maintenance of a multi – cultural environment
2. Characteristics of a multi – cultural environment diversity in the Latvian regions
3. Significance of NGO social networks in the maintenance and development of a multi – cultural environment in Latvian regions.

SWOT analysis

The research selection:

1. NGO Support Centre of the South Latgale (SL) (Head – Ilgvars Zvīdris, Daugavpils);
2. NGO Support Centre of the North Kurzeme (NK) (Head – Inese Freije-Neimane, Talsi);
3. NGO Regional Support Centre of Zemgale (Z) (Head – Uldis Dūmiņš, Jelgava);
4. NGO Resources Centre of Vidzeme (V) (Head – Evija Platača, Valmiera)

1. The role of the NGO in maintenance of the multicultural environment – the SWOT analysis

Strengths	Weaknesses
NK. <i>“The activities organized by the NGO are those, which come from “below”, respectively – they come</i>	SL. <i>“The participation of the NGO in the politics formation has an insufficiently high level or it has none</i>

<p>organized from the very nation. That is why they have such power.”</p> <p>SL. “The NGO is one of those opportunities that unite people who are thinking similarly and who are willing to do something. In the same way, if they join together in the organization, the participants have much bigger influence in the processes of civil society.”</p> <p>Z. “The NGO’s of the minorities in Zemgale are developed as the organizers of cultural activities and initiators of their own traditions maintenance...”</p>	<p>at all.”</p> <p>Z. “In the sphere of the multicultural environment maintenance there is a lack of knowledgeable NGO leaders in project management.”</p> <p>NK. “There is no concrete action in maintenance of the NGO’s multicultural environment.”</p>
<p>Opportunities</p> <p>SL. “The NGO is the very organization that is able to show/to express a different opinion from the official point of view of the state.”</p> <p>Z. “For protection of the minorities’ interests the NGO can strengthen the capacity of these organizations by providing the support in different spheres.”</p>	<p>Threats</p> <p>NK. “The support of the NGO cannot provide the maintenance of the multicultural environment, because many organizations exist there, where these issues are included in the range of activities.”</p>

2. Characteristic of the multicultural environment’s multiformity in the regions of Latvia – the SWOT analysi

<p>Strengths</p> <p>NK. “People have become more familiar and get on. Russian community functions in Saldus as a very active organization that helps maintain the traditions of the Russian culture.”</p> <p>“The best cooperation with Saldus and Ventspils districts can be found in Kurzeme region.”</p> <p>Z. “For the formation of an enabling environment the NGO uses the informative network of the NGO’s database, the section of the self-governmental Web pages “NGO”.</p>	<p>Weaknesses</p> <p>NK. “The cultural difference is not marked in Kurzeme region. This is a matter of the Roman culture; and there are more representatives of the Russian culture in the biggest cities, but in general I suppose that there are no marked cultural distinctions.”</p> <p>“The information exchange and cooperation are insufficient; the reason is that each district has a shortage of financing and valuable cooperation provision.”</p>
<p>Opportunities</p> <p>SL. “The Latgalians are characterized as the people willing to speak the Latgalian language and achieve the aim that means that the Latgalian language is accepted on the state level.”</p>	<p>Threats</p> <p>V. “Valmiera hardly can have typical ethnic groups.”</p>

3. The significance of the NGO’s social networks in maintaining of the multicultural environment and the development in the countryside of Latvia – the SWOT analysis

<p>Strengths</p> <p>SL. “Tight interaction ties with the Support Agency of Latgale region and the Countryside Forum of Latvia.”</p> <p>“It acts unitary, because it uses its self-formed networks in case, if necessary, and cooperates.”</p> <p>Z. “The network of the NGO’s Support Centres – Zemgale NGO centre and Jēkabpils NGO centre are the organizations -that unites the most part of Zemgale region. The number of the resources users reaches more than 300 organizations from approximately 600 of them registered in Zemgale region.”</p>	<p>Weaknesses</p> <p>NK. “Lack of financing for provision of the ties (links) and cooperation.”</p> <p>V. “One does not have to form anything artificially, practically, the networks exist in each district and there are contacts with Riga.”</p>
<p>Opportunities</p> <p>SL. “In order the network could successfully function a mutual communication is necessary; it is one of the most significant motives for the network development and life.”</p>	<p>Threats</p> <p>Z. “The network structure has not been precisely defined, because several support organizations take part.”</p>

Social network analysis is focused on uncovering the patterning of people's interaction. Network analysis is based on the intuitive notion that these patterns are important features of the lives of the individuals who display them.

Conclusions

The geopolitical situation and history have created a *multicultural society* in Latvia, which may become more multihued due to the globalization.

The survey data speak volumes for the significant role of the NGO in the maintenance and development of the multicultural environment, because the NGO functions as a central agent between the governmental and the non-governmental structures.

A big part (35%) of the active network links in the countryside of Latvia is local. That means, in world of today, where a high mobility and perfect migration opportunities exist, we still receive a great part of support from the agents.

The individuals whose are evolved into NGO's work they try satisfy their necessity of community feeling.

NGO's improve their participation to some social group, also cooperation, friendship and faithfulness and more over their process supports integration into society and forming civil cognition.

The NGO's representatives emphasize that the biggest problem in the maintenance of the multicultural environment in the countryside of Latvia is connected with the lack of finances and human resources.

The survey data show that the resources block is used insufficiently; the opportunities of the network resources and agents should be coordinated and used not only on a scale of the local region, but also in the country in general.

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IMPLEMENTATION OF SOCIAL INCLUSION POLICY IN RURAL MUNICIPALITIES

SOCIĀLĀS IEKĻAUŠANAS POLITIKAS REALIZĀCIJA LAUKU PAŠVALDĪBĀS

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Abstract

Approximately one-third of the total population of Latvia resides in rural areas. Previous research shows that poverty, unemployment, and other problems contributing to social exclusion are persistent more in rural than urban areas. Although a range of normative documents – international and national – is elaborated to eliminate social exclusion, and definite rights are guaranteed by the legislation, difficulties with the solution of these problems still exist, especially in rural municipalities. The aim of the research was to investigate how the social inclusion policy is implemented in rural municipalities, what are the target groups and what support is offered to them, what resources and services are used by the municipalities in the work of social inclusion.

Field work took place October-December 2007. The sample included 141 local deputies from 24 rural municipalities.

Although local deputies do not consider social exclusion to be a current issue, the problems of exclusion are being solved. Social inclusion work is being done in rural municipalities. Various social services and social assistance is offered to the risk groups of social exclusion, and social assistance is dominant among other activities. At the same time, the deputies see various obstacles that hamper social inclusion. They mention both subjective (individual) and objective (structural) factors as reasons for social exclusion. However, not all of the deputies fully understand issues connected with social inclusion and its necessity. Not all of them have enough information about social inclusion activities in their municipalities. Probably, they rely too much on social workers in social inclusion work; they do not pay much attention and do not go in depth into social issues and the means to address problems themselves.

To improve the work, it would be useful to develop a complex approach to social inclusion in rural municipalities in Latvia.

Key words: social inclusion, rural municipalities

Introduction

Though on the whole Latvia has lately experienced economic growth and an increase of individuals' and households' well-being, the society is experiencing problems of poverty and social exclusion. Social exclusion means the inability of individuals or groups of persons to fully or partially integrate into society, when they have been denied access or they have been impeded in accessing goods, services and/or actions vital for the development of personality and full participation in society. Social inclusion is a process aimed at preventing and reducing the risk of

poverty and social exclusion and promoting full integration of people into society (Social Report..., 2007). The process of social inclusion is multi-dimensional and complicated. It is regulated by a wide range of policy documents and legislative acts – European, national, and local. Local authorities are those who decide priorities, allocation of resources, and give finances to social assistance and social services in their municipalities. Therefore the research on social inclusion in rural municipalities focused mainly on them.

Social inclusion policy at EU level

In 2000, in Lisbon the Lisbon Strategy was accepted, which defined as the most important long-term development goals for the European Union. One of the long-term goals is to substantially eliminate poverty and social exclusion in each Member State of the EU, increase the quality of life for individuals and guarantee high level of social cohesion. Since then, the European Union has provided a framework for national strategy development as well as for policy coordination between the Member States on issues relating to poverty and social exclusion. The EU Lisbon Strategy was reviewed and revised in 2005. Under the Lisbon Strategy there is intended to be mutually reinforcing feedback between economic, employment and social policies (“feeding-in” and “feeding-out”). Member States produce *National Reports on Strategies for Social Protection and Social Inclusion* on a regular basis. The first such reports were submitted to the European Commission in September 2006.

Social inclusion policy in Latvia

The social inclusion sphere is influenced and regulated by a very wide range of policy documents and legislation encompassing different fields – employment, education, social insurance, social assistance and social services, policy of housing, health protection and care etc.

Joint Memorandum on Social Inclusion is a policy planning document, which defines the key objectives in terms of solving poverty and social exclusion issues (signed with the EC in 2003). It defines the reduction of poverty and social exclusion as one of the main long-term aims of the social policy of Latvia. The most attention should be paid to the activities aimed at eliminating those factors that cause poverty and social exclusion in different population groups, as well as to the identified activities that would provide support for population groups which are currently more vulnerable to the risk of poverty and social exclusion than others.

With the accession to the European Union, Latvia joined the coordination process of policy of the EU Member States in fields of social inclusion and social protection in which the Open

Method of Coordination for harmonization of the policies is used and national action plans are a component thereof. For the first time *The National Action Plan of Latvia against Poverty and Social Exclusion for 2004 – 2006* was accepted in the Cabinet of Ministers in 2004. In 2006 *The Latvian National Report on Strategy for Social Protection and Social Inclusion 2006-2008* was prepared. In the National Development Plan of Latvia the development of human resources and promotion of employment, as well as elimination of social exclusion are defined as priorities for growth.

In the sphere of social inclusion *The Latvian National Report on Strategy for Social Protection and Social Inclusion 2006-2008* defined three priority policy objectives:

- access to education and labour market services for children and youth at risk of poverty and social exclusion;
- the accessibility of resources and services to families, in particular large and single-parent families;
- the accessibility of resources and services for retired persons, in particular single pensioners.

The main areas of social inclusion policy are:

- inclusive labour market,
- social security,
- education,
- health care,
- housing.

The success of the strategy depends on effective regional and local input and implementation.

The duties of local governments in the social inclusion field

The social services and social assistance that are given by local governments is one of the most important support elements for inhabitants who have low income and/ or social problems that they can not solve by themselves and there is a need of social workers to interfere. The main aim of the social assistance is to give people minimal income and to further an integration of risk groups into the labour market and include them in the society.

The local governments' activities in the social including field are main staggered by two laws: *the Law on Local Governments* (1994.) and *The Social Services and Social Assistance Law* (2003.).

The 15th section of the **Law on Local Governments** defines that local governments have their autonomous functions which refers to the social including work:

- to ensure social assistance (social care) to residents (social assistance for poor families and socially vulnerable persons, ensuring places for old people in old-age homes, ensuring places for orphans and children without parental care in training and educational institutions, provision of overnight shelters for the homeless, and others);
- to provide assistance to residents in resolving issues regarding housing;
- to facilitate economic activity within the relevant administrative territory, and to be concerned about reducing unemployment.

The local governments organize and are responsible for an implementation of autonomous municipality functions. The implementation of these functions is financed from the budget of particular local government. To provide their functions, as stated by the law, local governments have to publish binding regulations that have to be noted in the particular administrative territory. The law also defines that there have to be social, education and culture issues committee in every local government. It also underlines the importance of the social issues in the activities of local governments.

Although the local government is responsible for a social administration, it can delegate these services to a social institution or private service provider who specializes in social help and services rendering. In this case the social institution is responsible for a political administration, though the politics projection stays in the charge of local government.

The Social Services and Social Assistance Law establish that the local government in the territory of which a person has registered his or her main place of residence has a duty to provide the person with a possibility to receive social services and social assistance corresponding to his or her needs. There has to be at least one social work specialist on every 1000 inhabitants in each local government for qualitative social services and ministration. This norm has to be done by the year 2008. At the moment the numbers of social work specialists is increasing, although it is hard to forecast whether all local governments will reach the required target, because the deficit of social workers, especially in country (rural) municipalities, is still high. Each local government in the administrative territory of which the number of inhabitants exceeds 3000 shall establish a local government social service office.

If the number of inhabitants in the administrative territory of a local government does not exceed 3000, the local government city or county council (district or parish council) need not establish a local government social service office. If the local government does not establish a local government social service office, the performance of the tasks referred to in Section 11 of this Law

shall be ensured by the local government city or county council (district or parish council) or institutions delegated thereby according to the procedures provided for in the local government binding regulations.

Local governments which have not established the necessary social service providers shall enter into agreements with other social service providers in their territory or with other local governments regarding provision of the referred to social services and payment. These social services shall be fully or partially financed from the local government budget. A local government has a duty to ensure consultative support to the local government social service office and the social service provider established thereof social work specialists. However, despite the desires of law, many leaders of local governments take their time to do these desires. Ones for the objective circumstances, for example lack of money, others for subjective- personal disinclination to social sphere and risk groups, indisposition to delve in necessity of social work

Sample and method

Field work took place in October-December 2007. The sample was carried out in two stages. First, two regions (one with the largest and one with the smallest number of population) from each of four planning regions were chosen. Secondly, sample three local governments were chosen in each region at random. A quantitative methodology was used for data collection. The questionnaire was completed by 141 local deputies in 24 rural municipalities.

The questionnaire consists of 53 questions which can be divided into several groups. There are questions about the functions of local governments and their implementation; about the social exclusion situation and excluded groups; about social work, social assistance and services; and about co-operation with other organizations and institutions in the sphere of social inclusion.

Results and discussion

Municipalities perform a range of functions, but not all of them are regarded as equally important by the deputies. Provision of social assistance, provision of utilities and improvement of a territory, and financial allocations for the education and maintenance of culture are mentioned as priorities of municipalities. At the same time, other functions which also are closely related to social inclusion – facilitation of economic activity and provision of assistance regarding housing – are not considered as priorities. Probably, this is related to the fact that about a half of the respondents does not recognize social exclusion as a significant issue, although this is mentioned among the state priorities.

The risk groups of social exclusion in rural municipalities are similar to those in the country in general (see National Report on Strategy...,2006). Rural municipalities in their work in the sphere of social inclusion pay more attention to retired persons, poor persons, large families and people with disabilities (See Fig. 1). It is understandable, as exactly these categories are more subjected to the risk of poverty, and consequently – to social exclusion, than others (according to data 69% of lonely pensioners and 52% of large families are at risk of poverty in Latvia) (Sociālā atstumtība...). Less emphasis is put on work with parents (women) after child-care leave, persons released from imprisonment, and homeless people. Probably, representatives of these groups are relatively few or none in rural areas.

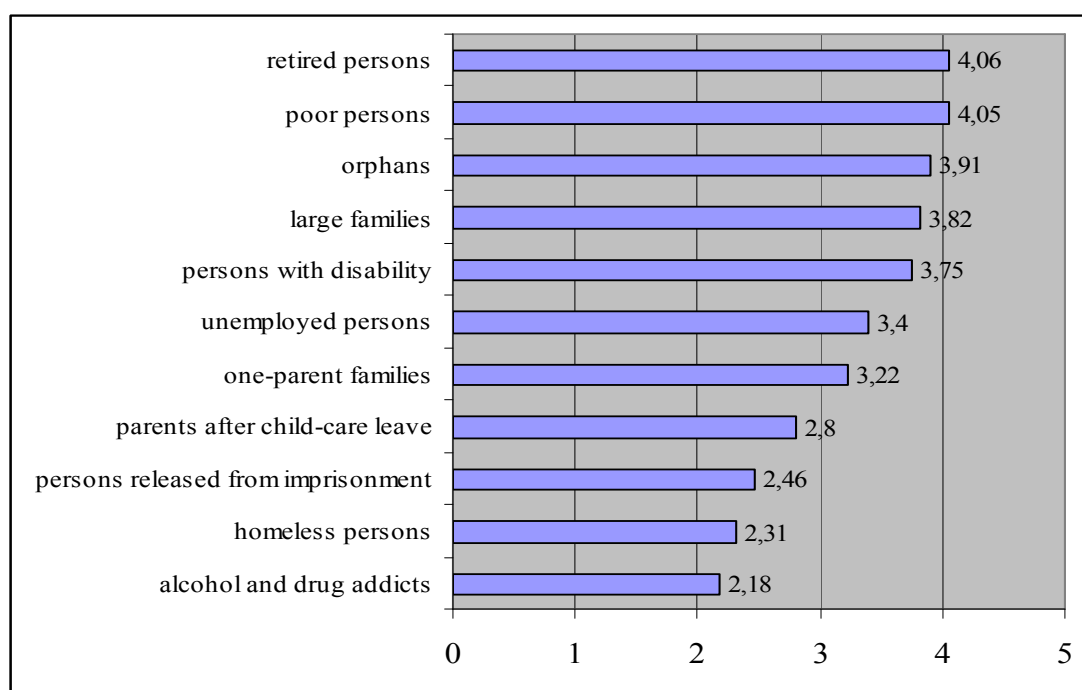


Fig. 1. Priority groups for social inclusion (mean grades, where “5” shows most priority).

It depends very much on the decision of local authorities which groups receive priority in terms of support and what kind of support is offered. Services offered to different segments of the population differ according to their needs. So, education and re-qualification services more often are offered to unemployed people (mentioned by 46,6% of respondents), orphans (20,6%), poor people (17,7%) and persons with a disability (17,0%). As target groups for home care service the respondents see persons with a disability (53,2%) and retired persons (51,1%). All groups are recipients of social rehabilitation, but most often it is provided for persons with disabilities (29,1%), alcohol abusers (19,1%), and retired persons (17,0%). Along with various kinds of benefits (guaranteed minimum income benefit, lump-sum benefit in cases of emergency, and benefits paid

out on local governments' initiative), a significant role is played by information offered to risk groups about their rights, assistance, and services available.

In addressing complicated social problems and promoting social inclusion, social work is of great importance. The situation in the investigated municipalities in this respect is relatively good: 38,3% of the respondents indicate that there is a social service office in their municipality, 58,9% have a social worker, and only 2,1% of the respondents say that social work is performed as additional job in their municipality. Also the competence of social workers is evaluated as high by 83% of the deputies. But the situation is not as good with other resources necessary for social inclusion: financial resources as sufficient consider 25,5% of the respondents, human resources – 41,8%, infrastructure – 53,3%. However, as main obstacles in social inclusion work the respondents mention subjective factors (unwillingness of people to solve their problems, a lack of interest, inability to adapt to changes, inability to make decisions, also alcohol abuse) more often than objective factors (a lack of finances, a lack of job vacancies, distance from the capital, bad road conditions, lack of day-centres, etc.).

In general, the respondents give a positive evaluation (79,4%) to social inclusion work carried out in their municipalities.

On one hand, the responses given by deputies show quite an optimistic picture of the social sphere in their municipalities. On the other hand, it is surprising that a significant number of the respondents do not have sufficient information and knowledge about social exclusion issues and their solution in the municipalities (quite often the respondents did not give a definite answer or had no opinion). It is understandable that not all of the deputies are experts in the social sphere in general and social inclusion in particular, but we must not forget that local authorities are those who with their decisions shape local social policy and allocation of resources for its implementation.

Conclusions

The work of social inclusion has been done in rural municipalities. Various social services and social assistance are offered to the risk groups of social exclusion, and social assistance is dominant among other activities.

1. As main risk groups considered are retired persons and poor persons, however, services are offered to other groups as well.
2. Social workers employed in the municipalities and their high qualification (as stated by the respondents) can be considered as significant resources for social inclusion work. Other resources (financial, human and infrastructure) are also evaluated as more or less sufficient.

3. Taking into account that social inclusion is a complex and multi-dimensional process, to improve the work in this sphere, it would be useful have a plan for social inclusion in municipalities. It would also to be useful for the deputies to widen and deepen their knowledge about social issues, their solution, and the necessity of this work.

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PEOPLE'S WITH DISABILITIES INTEGRATION INTO THE LATVIAN HOTELS LABOUR MARKET

CILVĒKU AR ĪPAŠĀM VAJADZĪBĀM INTEGRĀCIJA LATVIJAS VIESNĪCU DARBA TIRGŪ

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Abstract

Disabled people are willing to integrate in the society and to be recognized as full – fledged members of the society. Therefore it is important for them not to be ostracized but to be involved in all its happenings. Integration is a process of all the manifold society which secures long term welfare for all its members. It is necessity to be needed to the society. For successful integration process, it would be beneficial to change opinion of the society on the disabled as different members of the society. They are an organic part of labour market and society. Disabled people fall within risk group, and therefore there is a very important question about their integration in the society, including also its labour part. Hotels of Latvia also have opportunity to take part in solving of this question, involving the disabled people in work.

As the result of the research, it was cleared that view and understanding of the manager about a disabled person as an employee is essential for succesful involvement of the disabled in the working collective and performing his/her tasks. One of the main positive things, viewed by employers employing the disabled is the fact that they help to integrate such people in the society and opportunity to show them that they are also accepted as full - scale useful members of the society. The main reason which prevents employment of the disabled, by the view of the employers, is improper enterprise environment, as well as city infrastructure.

Employers, having experience with disabled employees evaluate them as very good and competititive among other workers of the same position.

Key-words. Disabled people, labour communication, integration

Ievads

Nodarbinātība ir instruments cilvēku pamatvajadzību apmierināšanai. Ja cilvēkam ir darbs, tas rada iespēju ne tikai nodrošināt sevi ar iztikas līdzekļiem, bet arī veicina profesionālo attīstību, kā arī ļauj pilnībā piedalīties valsts sabiedriskajā, ekonomiskajā un politiskajā dzīvē. Arī cilvēki ar īpašām vajadzībām jeb invalīdi ir neatņemama darba tirgus un sabiedrības daļa. Invalīdi pieder pie sociālās riska grupas, līdz ar to ļoti svarīgs ir jautājums par viņu integrēšanu ne tikai sabiedrībā, bet arī darba tirgū. Lai veiksmīgi noritētu integrācijas process, būtu vēlams mainīt sabiedrības viedokli par invalīdiem kā atšķirīgiem sabiedrības locekļiem. Nepieciešams mudināt darba devējus nodarbināt cilvēkus ar īpašām vajadzībām. Invalīdi spēj dot savu ieguldījumu Latvijas Republikas uzņēmējdarbības un valsts kopējā attīstībā, un Latvijas viesnīcām ir iespēja piedalīties šī jautājuma risināšanā, iesaistot cilvēkus ar īpašām vajadzībām darbā.

Pētījuma mērķis: izpētīt situāciju par cilvēku ar īpašām vajadzībām integrāciju Latvijas viesnīcu darba tirgū.

Definētā mērķa sasniegšanai tiek pakārtoti šādi **darba uzdevumi**:

1. Definēt invaliditātes būtību.
2. Noskaidrot nepieciešamos darba apstākļus un vidi cilvēkiem ar īpašām vajadzībām.
3. Intervēt viesnīcu vadošo personālu, lai noskaidrotu darbinieku ar īpašām vajadzībām integrāciju Latvijas viesnīcās.
4. Apkopot, analizēt un izvērtēt pētījumā iegūtos rezultātus.

Materiāli un metodes

Pētījumā izmantoti šādi **informācijas avoti** – mācību un zinātniskā literatūra; LR normatīvie akti, kā arī internetā pieejamie resursi un citi informācijas avoti, kas saistīti ar iepriekš formulētā mērķa un uzdevumu izpildi.

Pētījuma uzdevumu risināšanai izmantotas šādas zinātnisko **pētījumu metodes** – monogrāfiskā jeb aprakstošā metode; socioloģisko pētījumu metode– strukturētā intervija; analīzes un sintēzes metode.

Rezultāti

1. Invaliditāte un tās jēdziens

Atbilstoši likuma „Par invalīdu medicīnisko un sociālo aizsardzību” 4. pantam **invalīds** tiek definēts kā persona, kurai sakarā ar slimību, traumu vai iedzimtu defektu izraisītiem orgānu sistēmu funkciju traucējumiem ir nepieciešama papildu medicīniskā un sociālā palīdzība un kurai ir noteikta invaliditāte šajā likumā un citos tiesību aktos noteiktajā kārtībā. Invaliditāte šā paša likuma 5. pantā tiek definēta šādi „**Invaliditāte** ir ilgstošs vai nepārejošs ar vecuma pārmaiņām cilvēka organismā nesaistīts fizisko vai psihisko spēju ierobežojums, kas apgrūtina personas integrāciju sabiedrībā, pilnīgi atņemt vai daļēji ierobežo tās spēju strādāt un sevi apkopt”.

Pašreizējā situācijā valstī ir aptuveni 70 000 invalīdu darbaspējas vecumā, no tiem nodarbināti ir tikai 10%. Latvijā gadā invaliditāte pirmreizēji vai atkārtoti tiek noteikta 40043 personām darbaspējīgā vecumā, no kurām 1412 personām (4%) Veselības un darbaspēju ekspertīzes ārstu valsts komisija un tās struktūrvienības sniedz atzinumu par nepieciešamību pārkvalificēties vai apgūt jaunu profesiju. (Invalīdu nodarbinātības ..., 2008)

Nodarbināto invalīdu procents ir neliels no invalīdu darba spējīgā vecumā kopskaita. Tas liecina, ka ir vēl neizmantots darbaspēks, kurā ir iespējams investēt resursus, kas šo darbaspēku padarītu par konkurētspējīgu darba tirgū. Arī neliels pabalsta apmērs, kas invalīdam tiek maksāts, nav salīdzināms ar darba algu, kas varētu tikt izmaksāta, ja invalīds strādātu kvalificētu darbu.

2. Darba tiesiskās attiecības un darba vides prasības cilvēkiem ar dažāda veida invaliditāti

Latvijas Republikas Darba likums darba devējam nosaka vairākus pienākumus un normas, kas jāpilda, noslēdzot, uzturot un pārtraucot darba attiecības ar invalīdiem. Galvenais - jāievēro **vienlīdzības princips**, nav pieļaujama atšķirīga attieksme pret darbiniekiem, tostarp invalīdiem.

Izšķiramas triju veidu **vides**, kurās iekļaujas un darbojas cilvēks: tiešajiem darba apstākļiem domātā darba vide; uzņēmuma iekšējā vide; uzņēmuma ārējā vide. Lai invalīdu iekļaušanās notiktu veiksmīgi, visām vidēm ir jābūt piemērotām un atbilstošām katra cilvēka vajadzībām. Ja kāda no tām iztrūkst un nav piemērota, integrācijas process kļūst apgrūtināts vai neiespējams. Saskaņā ar darba likumdošanu, pieņemot darbā cilvēkus ar īpašām vajadzībām, darba devējam ir jāievēro vairāki darba vides iekārtošanas nosacījumi. Darba vietu izveidošana invalīdiem ir darba vietu aprīkošana ar tehniskajiem līdzekļiem, atbilstoši invalīdu funkcionālā traucējuma veidam, smaguma pakāpei un veicamajam darbam. Tas ir nepieciešams, lai veicinātu invalīdu nodarbinātību, iekārtošanos pastāvīgā darbā un radītu viņiem vienlīdzīgas iespējas iekļūšanai darba tirgū. (Drošas un..., 2006; Vides pieejamība, 2008; Viša K., 2007.)

Cilvēks ar invaliditāti, nonākot darba tirgū, ļoti bieži izjūt atstumtību un noraidījumus no darba devēju puses. Tādēļ liela nozīme ir sabiedrības attieksmei un atbildīgo institūciju darbībām. Nodarbinātības valsts aģentūra (NVA) ir iestāde, kas ar dažāda veida projektiem palīdz invalīdiem iekļauties darba tiesiskajās attiecībās, radot invalīdu - bezdarbnieku subsidētās darba vietas, kā rezultātā sabiedrība un darba devēji var pārliecināties, ka invalīdi arī ir labi darbinieki un spēj veikt viņiem uzticētos pienākumus. (Invalīdu – bezdarbnieku subsidētā nodarbinātība, 2008)

3. Darbinieku ar īpašām vajadzībām integrācijas Latvijas viesnīcās novērtējums

Pētījumā izvirzītā mērķa sasniegšanai veiktas intervijas 10 Latvijas viesnīcās. Viesnīcas tika izvēlētas, ņemot vērā NVA informāciju, ka tajās tiek nodarbināti invalīdi, kā arī balstoties uz pašu viesnīcu vadošā personāla atsaucību un iniciatīvu.

Galvenie **pētnieciskie jautājumi**: vai Latvijas viesnīcās ir (vai ir bijuši) nodarbināti cilvēki ar īpašām vajadzībām, kāds ir viesnīcu personāla viedoklis par cilvēkiem ar īpašām vajadzībām kā par darbiniekiem un kolektīva locekļiem, kādi ir ieguvumi un zaudējumi, pieņemot darbā cilvēkus ar īpašām vajadzībām, kāds ir viedoklis par nepieciešamo atbalstu, lai invalīdu integrācija darba tirgū notiktu veiksmīgāk.

Intervēti tika viesnīcu vadošie darbinieki – direktori un personāla vadības speciālisti. Piecās viesnīcās ir bijusi pieredze cilvēku ar īpašām vajadzībām nodarbināšanā, t.i. trijās viesnīcās – „Konventa sēta” (Rīgā), „Hotel de Rome” (Rīgā) un „Līva” (Liepājā) cilvēki ar īpašām vajadzībām veikuši istabeņu pienākumus, viesnīcā „Club -1934” (Ogrē) invalīds veicis dārziņa pienākumus, bet viesnīcā „Akva” Jelgavā – cilvēki ar īpašām vajadzībām pieņemti vairākos amatos – administrators, grāmatvede, saimnieciskie darbinieki. Līdz šim cilvēki ar īpašām vajadzībām nav bijuši darba attiecībās viesnīcās: „Reval Hotel Latvia” (Rīgā); „Jūra” (Liepājā), „Dobele”(Dobelē), „Kuldīgas Metropole” (Kuldīgā) un „Helvita” (Liepājā).

Cilvēku ar īpašām vajadzībām kā darbinieku raksturojums

Viesnīcās, kurās ir strādājuši vai strādā cilvēki ar invaliditāti, viesnīcas personāls ar sadarbību ir apmierināts un vērtē to kā veiksmīgu, uzsverot, ka šādu darbinieku darba spējas praktiski neatšķiras no citiem darbiniekiem, ja vien pats darbinieks ir ieinteresēts savā darbā un vēlas pilnvērtīgi strādāt:

„... draudzīgi, labi sastrādājas ar kolēģiem. Ja gadās kāda konfliktsituācija, tad tā tiek veiksmīgi atrisināta un uzskatu, ka tam pamatā nav šī cilvēka invaliditāte...” (Līva)

Viesnīcu vadošie darbinieki, kurās nav bijusi iespēja nodarbināt invalīdus, nenoliedz, ka cilvēki ar īpašām vajadzībām varētu būt labi darbinieki:

„... nav nācies saskarties, bet piekrītu, ka invalīds, kā jebkurš cits cilvēks, ir pilntiesīgs darba tirgus dalībnieks un var veiksmīgi darboties viesnīcu nozarē. ...ja cilvēkam ir fiziski rakstura traucējumi, tad viņš var veiksmīgi strādāt ar prāta un intelekta spējām. Kā piemēru var minēt: darbs birojā, operators vai darbs neklātienē.” (Reval Hotel Latvia)

Kolēģu attieksme un cilvēku ar īpašām vajadzībām iekļaušanās kolektīvā

Pārsvarā viesnīcās, kurās nodarbināti cilvēki ar īpašām vajadzībām, iekļaušanās kolektīvā nav bijusi sarežģīta, un kolēģi visu ir sapratuši un invalīdu ir pieņēmuši, nav iztikts arī bez konfliktsituācijām, kam par pamatu gan nav bijusi cilvēka invaliditāte, bet gan cilvēcīgais faktors:

„...Protams, ka ir problēmas un konflikti, taču ar citiem darbiniekiem ir tieši tas pats. Un es domāju, ka šīs problēmas ir risināmas.” (Konventa sēta)

„Attieksme no kolēģu puses bija pozitīva, arī paši invalīdi bija draudzīgi un veiksmīgi iekļāvās kolektīvā. Nē, problēmu nebija.” (Akva)

Viesnīcās, kurās nav nodarbināti invalīdi, uzskata, ja perspektīvā tiktu noslēgtas darba tiesiskās attiecības ar cilvēku ar īpašām vajadzībām, nebūtu problēmu ar tā iekļaušanos kolektīvā:

„Domāju, ka ar kolēģu attieksmi un invalīda iekļaušanos kolektīvā problēmām nevajadzētu būt. Mūsu kolektīva panākuma atslēga ir labs komandas darbs, un cilvēkam ar fiziskiem rakstura traucējumiem darbs noteikti atrastos, ja vienīgi viņam pašam ir vēlme darīt un pozitīva domāšana.”
(Reval Hotel Latvija)

Ieguvumi, pieņemot darbā cilvēku ar īpašām vajadzībām

Intervijās nosaukti vairāki ieguvumi, kas radušies, pieņemot darbā invalīdu. Kā galvenais pozitīvais ieguvums atzīts tas, ka mainīta sabiedrības attieksme pozitīvā virzienā, kā arī notikusi invalīdu iekļaušana sabiedrībā un darba tirgū.

„Kā viens no galvenajiem plusiem ir palīdzēt cilvēkam dzīvot pilnvērtīgu dzīvi, ja mēs viņam varam palīdzēt, iesaistot kā darbinieku mūsu viesnīcā, tad mēs to darām un tas priecē.” (Līva)

Sadarbība ar cilvēkiem, kuriem ir invaliditāte, mainījusi arī pašus viesnīcas darbiniekus. Mainījušās domas un attieksme pret šādiem cilvēkiem:

„Jāteic, ka komunikācija ar klusuma pasaulē mītošajiem cilvēkiem mani ir bagātinājusi ar jaunu pieredzi un atziņām, savstarpējā saskarsme mūs visus disciplinē...” (Konventa sēta)

Cilvēku ar īpašām vajadzībām nodarbināšanu kavējošie faktori

Kā atzīst viesnīcu vadošie darbinieki, lai cilvēki ar invaliditāti varētu strādāt viesnīcās, ir nepieciešams pielāgot gan uzņēmuma, gan pilsētvidi. Traucē arī sabiedrības aizspriedumi par invalīdu nodarbināšanu un viņu iekļaušanu sabiedrībā:

„Sabiedrības attieksme, uzņēmumu standarti par to, kādam jāizskatās darbiniekam, bet visticamāk, ka šie kavējošie faktori ir mūsu galvās un nespēja iedomāties, kā tas būs.” (Reval Hotel Latvija)

„Jāatzīst, ka kopumā visai sabiedrībai vēl garš izpratnes veidošanas ceļš ejams, lai tā spētu bez aizspriedumiem pieņemt jebkuru iedzīvotāju grupu, arī nedzirdīgos. Iedrošinos teikt, ka mūsu gatavība pieņemt praksē un arī darbā šīs mūsu jaunās darbabiedrenes ir mazs solītis šajā ceļā.”
(Hotel de Rome)

Lielas problēmas rada tas, ka viesnīcu vide nav piemērota, lai pieņemtu darbā cilvēkus ar kustību traucējumiem:

„Mums nav piemērotu apstākļu... ēka celta Padomju laikā, tāpēc arī tā nav piemērota un nav pielāgota tādām vajadzībām.” (Dobele)

Dažkārt arī pieredzes trūkums kavē darba devēju nodarbināt savā viesnīcā cilvēku ar īpašām vajadzībām. Tas rada aizspriedumus un stereotipus:

„Nav bijusi nepieciešamība tos nodarbināt, jo nav darbinieku trūkuma, kā arī neviens invalīds līdz šim par šādu iespēju nav interesējies.” (Jūra)

Bieži vien arī invalīdu fiziskie trūkumi var sākumā radīt nevēlēšanos nodarbināt invalīdus:

„Var traucēt fiziskie trūkumi, kā ar runas traucējumi, jo darbs, galvenokārt, ir saistīts ar cilvēkiem!” (Helvita)

Nepieciešamais atbalsts invalīdu integrācijai darba tirgū

Visās viesnīcās atzīst, ka ir nepieciešama palīdzība, lai invalīdu nodarbināšana būtu iespējamāka un darba vietas pieejamākas. Darba devēji gaida dažāda veida atbalstu, galvenokārt, **no valsts**. Tā ir gan informācijas pieejamība, gan finansiāls atbalsts. Šajā viedoklī jūtama vajadzība pēc pozitīvas sabiedriskās domas veidošanas par iespējamiem invalīdu integrācijas pasākumiem. Darba devēji uzskata, ka nepieciešams sabiedrības atbalsts un pieredze šādās situācijās:

„Apmācības vai kursi, publiskās debates, kuras varētu būt bezmaksas. Iespējas redzēt to dzīvē. Uzņēmumi varētu saņemt kaut kāda veida stimulējošus atvieglojumus.” (Reval Hotel Latvija)

„Informēt viesnīcas par potenciālajiem darbiniekiem ar nepieciešamajām iemaņām un uzņēmumiem, kas nodarbina invalīdus, dot kādus nodokļu atvieglojumus.” (Jūra)

Izteikts arī viedoklis, ka invalīdu sagatavošana darbam ir jābūt valsts atbildībā un viesnīcas labprāt redzētu jau gatavus un apmācītus darbiniekus:

„Ja valsts sagatavotu invalīdus darbam pati, tas radītu interesi viesnīcu direktoriem nodarbināt invalīdus vai pieņemt tos darbā.” (Club - 1934)

Atbalsts ir nepieciešams arī **no pašvaldību puses**, jo pielāgota viesnīcas ēka un pretimnākoši darba devēji vēl nav garants veiksmīgai invalīdu uzņemšanai viesnīcās, jo traucējošā ir arī pati pilsētas vide, kura nav draudzīga invalīdiem, lai viņi veiksmīgi varētu pa to pārvietoties un nokļūt viesnīcā bez sarežģījumiem:

„Būtu nepieciešams pašvaldības atbalsts, jo ne tikai viesnīcas ēka ir jāpielāgo cilvēkiem ar īpašām vajadzībām, bet arī pati pilsētas vide” (Līva)

Viens no svarīgākajiem nosacījumiem, lai viesnīcā tiktu pieņemts jauns darbinieks, ir atbilstoša kvalifikācija. Taču būtiskas ir arī cilvēciskās īpašības: atbildības sajūta, ieinteresētība un vēlme pilnvērtīgi strādāt. Ņemot vērā iepriekš uzskaitītos nosacījumus, nav iemesls domāt, ka cilvēki ar invaliditāti nespētu konkurēt šajā darba tirgū. Iemesls, kādēļ netiek nodarbināti invalīdi, varētu būt informācijas un pieredzes trūkums par šāda veida gadījumiem Latvijā. Citu viesnīcu pieredze varētu darboties kā motivējošs faktors invalīdu nodarbināšanas jautājumā. Viesnīcās, kurās ir bijusi šāda pieredze, sākumā arī ir nācies saskarties ar šaubām, bet tas nav bijis par iemeslu atteikumam. Daļai no šīm viesnīcām invalīdu nodarbināšana ir bijis Nodarbinātības valsts aģentūras

(NVA) projektu ietvaros, tas liecina, ka NVA ir iespēja ietekmēt un sekmēt šo procesu. Vērā ņemams ir viesnīcu, kurās nodarbināti cilvēki ar īpašām vajadzībām, vadošā personāla pozitīvais viedoklis par pieņemtajiem darbiniekiem. Galvenais pozitīvais moments, ko uzsver vadošie viesnīcu vadītāji, ir invalīdu integrācijas procesu atbalstīšana.

Secinājumi

1. Darba devēji, kuriem ir bijusi pieredze nodarbināt cilvēkus ar īpašām vajadzībām, vērtē šos darbiniekus, kā ļoti labus un konkurētspējīgus ar citiem konkrētā amata darbiniekiem. Darba attiecībās svarīgs ir vadītāja viedoklis un izpratne par invalīdu kā darbinieku, lai cilvēks ar invaliditāti varētu veiksmīgi iekļauties darba kolektīvā un efektīvi veikt uzticētos pienākumus.
2. Kā vienu no lielākajiem ieguvumiem, ko saskata darba devējs, pieņemot darbā cilvēku ar īpašām vajadzībām, ir palīdzība integrēties šiem cilvēkiem sabiedrībā, kā arī dot iespēju viņiem parādīt sevi kā pilntiesīgiem sabiedrības locekļiem.
3. Galvenais iemesls, kas kavē nodarbināt invalīdus, pēc darba devēju domām, ir uzņēmuma darba vides nepiemērotība, kā arī pilsētas infrastruktūras trūkumi.
4. Ņemot vērā darba devēju pieredzi, būtu nepieciešami pamudinājumi, kas motivētu uzņēmējus nodarbināt cilvēkus ar īpašām vajadzībām. Piemēram, sociālā nodokļa atvieglojumi darba devējiem.
5. Neraugoties uz viesnīcu gatavību pieņemt darbā cilvēkus ar īpašām vajadzībām, nepieciešams ar pašvaldību palīdzību uzlabot pilsētvides infrastruktūru, lai šiem cilvēkiem nebūtu grūtību pārvietoties (piem., pielāgots sabiedriskais transports, uzlaboti ceļi u.tml.), kā arī piekļūt nepieciešamajām iestādēm (piem, lai varētu iegūt nepieciešamo informāciju par darba piedāvājumiem, lai varētu ierasties uz darba intervijām u.tml.).

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SOCIOTECHNICS OF FEAR IN MODERN DEMOCRACIES

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Abstract

The aim of the following paper is to present the mechanism of intensifying fear in sociotechnics of democracy in the conditions of globalization. The contemporary knowledge about the influence of fear on our actions is precise enough to apply it in order to steer human minds.

Key words: modern democracies, globalization, sociotechnics.

Application the phenomenon of fear has been known for ages. Only the causes of fear have changed, which correlated with historical circumstances and the development of human awareness. Also the intensity level of applying this mechanism has been varied and its amplitude has currently reached the level so far unseen. However, it must be underlined from the beginning that despite this transformation the aim of the steering system remains the same¹. J. Rudniański in his paper *Elementy prakseologicznej teorii walki (Elements of praxeological theory of fight)*, presented the methods of controlling the environment in non-armed fight on the macro scale: shaping and applying a depriving situation, intensifying non-elementary needs, channeling ideals and intensifying fear². These methods were also the starting point to discuss sociotechnics of a higher level when analyzing sociotechnics of liberal democracy³. At the same time it was pointed out that one should not apply the notion of sociotechnics methods because it would suggest the existence of particular subjects using them. Facing sociotechnics on the macro scale their identification most frequently is impossible or at least hindered. Sharing this argumentation in the further part of the paper I will use the notion of sociotechnic mechanism. In democracy the above mechanisms are

¹ According to Herbert I. Schiller the final aim of steering human mind is the passivity which ensures maintaining *status quo*. 'Passivity constitutes the breeding ground for itself, destroying the ability of any social action, which could change the conditions disabling currently fulfilling human hopes'. H. I. Schiller, *Sternicy świadomości (Steermen of awareness)*, Kraków 1976, p. 48.

² J. Rudniański, *Elementy prakseologicznej teorii walki (Elements of praxeological theory of fight)*, Warsaw 1983, pp. 93 – 118.

³ P. Pawełczyk, *Socjotechniczne aspekty gry politycznej (Sociotechnic aspects of political game)*, Poznań 2000, p. 164. According to M. K. Mlicki, higher level sociotechnics are such influences on the controlled system that cause that a moment later this system reacts on other sociotechnic as well as non-sociotechnic endeavors (instructions, recommendations, orders) in a way that is maximally consistent with the expectations and assumptions of the steered system. We face here generating in the steered system a particular way of perceiving reality, attitude to the idea and abstract notions, which subsequently condition attitudes towards particular phenomena and behavior. The aim of higher level sociotechnics is to prepare society to actions on the micro scale channeled on reaching immediate goals. M. K. Mlicki, *Socjotechnika. Zagadnienia etyczne i prakseologiczne (Sociotechnics. Ethical and praxeological issues)*, Wrocław 1986, p. 35.

applied in combination (even fear in homeopathic quantity occurs in every democracy), but almost always one of them undergoes bigger intensity than the others and takes the dominating role in steering society. The difference between these mechanisms is that the first three are directed to ‘pursuit towards’, while mechanism of intensifying fear to ‘pursuit from’. In reality both these pursuits occur simultaneously, are tightly connected with each other and cannot be separated, they may only be intensified and channeled either one or the other one. Talking about the transformation of the sociotechnics of democracy I mean the move from intensification of channeling the control in ‘pursuit towards’ which characterized *welfare state* (or the so called old democracies) to control in ‘pursuit from’ characterizing democracies in the conditions of globalization (both the old and the new ones – created after the year 1989)⁴.

Functioning of a *welfare state* was possible due to specific conditions present at that time in the world. As Claus Offe indicates: ‘Social, economic and political order was built at the end of the 40s and at the beginning of the 50s around the broad liberal-democratic *consensus* – concept of welfare state which was not undermined by any significant political power neither from the right nor from the left. This systemic agreement based firmly not only on <posttotalitarian *consensus*>, but was also sanctioned and enhanced by international configuration of power that emerged after the Second World War’⁵. The order was a peculiar synergy between democracy and capitalism (within the national state were made to make some concessions). As a result of democratization of the majority of social institutions, *welfare state* was characterized by relatively flat income structure, which enabled a broad range of society to participate in the successes of economic growth, ‘Hidden sociological assumptions being the basis of systemic welfare state organization said that the patterns of life concentrated around <privacy>, so the family, work and consumption, absorbing energy and aspiration of most citizens. Therefore, the participation in the conflict around policy of the state will be the subject of marginal interest of the majority of the society’⁶. *Welfare state* was characterized by channeling the control of society to ‘pursuit towards’ which was based on the mechanism of intensifying the non-elementary needs. It relied on igniting non-elementary needs and directing and reglamenting the ways of satisfying these needs. It was mainly about the need of acceptance which

⁴ For the needs of the article the existing democracies till year 1989 in which also capitalism existed I generally name welfare state. I am aware of the some kind of generalization because some of the authors are ready to assign this name only to the states of Western Europe and Japan excluding from his group Anglo-Saxon states. *More*: M. Albert, *Kapitalizm kontra kapitalizm (Capitalism contra capitalism)*, Kraków 1994.

⁵ C. Offe, *Nowe ruchy społeczne (New social movements)*, (in:) J. Szczupaczyński (choice and edition.), *Władza i społeczeństwo (Power and society)*, Warszawa 1995, p. 227.

⁶ *Ibidem*, p. 228

could only be fulfilled by the participation in the consumption race⁷. The steering system generated and popularized the ideology of consumption i.e. it pursued to make the most significant criteria of values in the society to be the criteria which intensify the needs of expansion.

The turning point of the year 1989 indicates the beginning of new conditions in the world (commonly described as globalization), which are the coincidence of many processes and which created new possibilities for the expansion of capitalism to fields control over which is the necessary condition for further development. It was most accurately embraced by E. Luttwak, who wrote: 'They call it a free market but for me it is the capitalism with turbo supercharge, or in short turbocapitalism, because it absolutely differs from the strictly controlled capitalism which stood firmly from 1945 to the 80s and which brought sensational novelty of mass welfare of people in Western Europe, Japan and all other countries which followed their steps'⁸. Contemporary turbocapitalism has always the option of choosing the place of its expansion while the state is devoid of such an option which in result determines its activity and its institutions. In my opinion, in these new conditions the real direction of sociotechnics on the global scale is determined by the rules of capitalistic economy and is only formal (declared) by the rules of liberal democracy.

Conditions of globalization (liquidating *welfare state* – by dismantling social institutions whose aim was to care about limited span of remuneration in the society) mean the totally new layout of income in the society as well as leaving social security (burdensome for the steering system)⁹. We deal here with the phenomenon 'the winner takes it all' which means a small group in society of huge income and the remaining group of income allowing for only modest existence (in a big part of the world not allowing even for existence)¹⁰. The phenomenon of such a huge span of remuneration in the conditions of globalization was noticed even by researchers from the liberal circle¹¹. They believe that these new inequalities cause even more the weakening of coherence in a society than traditional ones¹². This inequalities, described by them as dynamic, seem to confirm only more explicitly the rule 'the winner takes it all'. Continuing sociotechnics of higher level based

⁷ Consumer society of welfare state was described by among others J. Baudrillard, *La société de consommation*, Paris 1990; G. Debord, *Spółczesność spektaklu (Society of spectacle)*, Gdańsk 1998; H. Marcuse, *Człowiek jednowymiarowy (One dimension human)*, Warsaw 1991; R. Vaneigem, *Rewolucja życia codziennego (Revolution of everyday life)*, Gdańsk 2004.

⁸ E. Luttwak, *Turbokapitalizm (Turbocapitalism)*, Wrocław 1999, p. 42.

⁹ This situation is perfectly visible in the latest UN Report from 25 August 2005 „The Inequality Predicament”, <http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/rwss/media%2005/cd-docs/media.htm>.

¹⁰ T. L. Friedman, *Lexus i drzewo oliwne (Lexus and the olive tree)*, Poznań 2001, p. 375.

¹¹ R. Dahrendorf, *Perspektywy rozwoju gospodarczego, społeczeństwa obywatelskiego i wolność polityczna (Perspectives of economic development, civic society and political freedom)* (in:) J. Danecki, M. Danecka (ed.) *U podłoża globalnych zagrożeń. Dylematy rozwoju (At the grounds of global threats. Dilemmas of development)*, Warsaw 2003, p. 39.

¹² J –P. Fitoussi, P. Rosanvallon, *Czas nowych nierówności (Time of new inequalities)*, Kraków 2000, p. 53.

mainly on the mechanism of intensifying non-elementary needs in these new conditions (i.e. without the possibility to realize them by the most of the society) would lead to excessive frustration of the society or using psychologist terms it would cause unpleasant emotional states connected with it, manifesting themselves in the increase of aggression among groups or apathy and resignation¹³. The result of that could be destabilization of the system. P. Braud writes: 'Political system in itself is the cause of frustration since every power imposes something, bans something or incites hopes. However it must channel any manifestations of dissatisfaction (especially when they are of economic or professional type) when they emerge on a political scene even if they emerge beyond the sphere of its activity. These frustrations being the source of active or passive aggression, verbal or physical put democratic governments against the basic problem of regulating social violence'¹⁴. Sustaining stability of the system in the new conditions induced the change in the way of steering society. Some describe it euphemistically as building the welfare state adjusted to new economic conditions where security of the society would be limited only to the sphere of security from real and imagined threats of other than social nature. Moving from the sphere of security to safety¹⁵. Social, economic and political order in the condition of globalization is built around the *consensus* – concept of the state of security from the threats of other types than before, which is not undermined by any significant political power either from the right or the left. In turn for obedience, society is offered only some minimal level of *safety*. Defense from real and imagined threats is to absorb all the energy of the society. In relation to the majority of the society disciplining is based on the

¹³ We deal with such a situation on a mass scale in Japan. Frustration caused by the inability to fulfill the expectations (mainly connected with finance) and the lack of any hope to fulfill these expectations in the future is called the hikikomori syndrome. Hikikomori manifests itself by withdrawing from life, skipping school or work and general fear of confronting the reality. This syndrome concerns mainly young people aged 15 – 34, 77 percent of which are men and 40 percent have higher education. People affected by this syndrome close themselves at home which they may not leave for years, sleep during days, live at night. Most of their time they devote to watching TV, listening to music and the Internet. Japanese government assesses that there are over half of 500 thousand Hikikomori, other sources mention a million of the affected. From the forecast of healthcare organizations it seems that before the year 2020 depression will be a bigger problem in Asia than cancer. A. Kołodziejewska, *Japonia walczy z hikikomori (Japan struggles with hikikomori)*, „Gazeta Wyborcza” 22.10.2004.

¹⁴ P. Braud, *Rozkosze demokracji (Delights of democracy)*, Warsaw 1995, p. 11. According to Braud one of the main conditions of stability of the system is maintaining frustration on an admissible level and indicating solutions (authentic or probable) matching the expectations of the governed and ambition of the governing; M. Burton, R. Gunther, J. Higley Clair that the stability requires subtle balance between conflict and consensus. Lack of such a balance manifests itself in three ways. Firstly, limiting democracy by reducing *de facto* or *de jure*, political and civil rights – or by election manipulations which enable the governing elite to avoid control from the electorate. Secondly, conflicts in democratic systems may exceed the limits of peaceful settlement, the proof of instability is the escalation of violence. Thirdly, the obvious proof of instability are rebellions or attempts of coup d'état. M. Burton, R. Gunther, J. Higley, *Elity a rozwój demokracji (Elites and development of democracy)*, (in:) J. Szczupaczyński (choice and editing.), *op. cit.*, pp. 15 -16.

¹⁵ Z. Bauman in one of interviews (which *nota bene* was to some extent the inspiration for this paper) indicates that the lack of threats can be expressed in Polish by one word – bezpieczeństwo, while English has two words: security and safety. Security concerns social relations – what in Polish is called social safety and safety concerns mainly bodily integration. Interview with Z. Baumanem, *Wiek kłamstwa (The age of a lie)*, addition to a weekly „Polityka” from 11 December 2004.

mechanism of depriving situation. Dreams and aspirations of the society should not exceed fulfilling their basic needs. This tendency also embraces the contemporary anti-consumer discourse.

Therefore I believe, that democracies in the conditions of globalization are characterized by steering channeled to 'pursuit from'. The mechanism of intensifying fear becomes dominant and it undergoes great pressure and starts to penetrate each field of social life. It relies on inciting and consolidating the average level of fear – on stronger or weaker hindering possibly big amount of activities unfavorable for the particular party and at the same time inciting skillful performance of possibly big amount of favorable actions for the particular party, while the latter are performed because thanks to their skillful performance the degree of fear is decreased¹⁶. Speaking of fear, I will discuss both the reasonable fear (i.e. having the rational basis of what in psychology is defined as fear) as well as fear not having such grounds and fear having partially rational basis. Of course, the last kind of fear is the most favorable for the steering system because even with a small output of resources to consolidate it, it causes – if it achieves sufficient level of intensity – performing the direct or indirect orders. As Kępiński writes: 'Subject fear in contrast to non-subject fear (internal) must be preceded by the perception of the subject of fear. The surrounding world must show its fearful face'¹⁷. In contemporary reality there are many sources of fear used by the steering system but the one that moved our imagination the most as the least possible to verify by the society and is the source which we may subject to personification is terrorism. Therefore, a symbol of fear source, which has at least partially rational basis, is the phenomenon of terrorism. Even if the phenomenon of terrorism has been present in the world for a long time and it does not take currently any more extreme dimension, then partially rational explanation of fear of it finds its basis in the process defined as the globalization of terrorism¹⁸. It is used instrumentally by the steering system. A terrorist as an enemy is some kind of a symbol. 'There is no one terrorism which one could fight. By declaring war with terrorism, the status of enemy is raised, the policy is built basing on inciting fear as well as carrying permanent campaign with no chances to win' – says Barber¹⁹. Reality is to loom as war reality. The society is to think and speak in the categories of war.

In democracy the sender of sociotechnics (steering system) on the macro scale is the system of institutions securing reproduction necessary for the liveliness of the system of values²⁰. The

¹⁶ J. Rudniański, *op. cit.*, pp. 106- 107.

¹⁷ A. Kępiński, *Lęk (Fear)*, Warsaw 1977, p. 240.

¹⁸ 'The third wave of globalization carries the phenomena in fact unknown before i.e. globalization of organized crime and terrorism'. E. Wnuk – Lipiński, *Świat międzyepoki (Interera world)*, Kraków 2004, p. 54.

¹⁹ With B. R. Barber talks A. Domosławski, *Dzielny szeryf Bush (Brave sheriff Bush)*, „Gazeta Wyborcza” from 22-23 January 2005.

²⁰ P. Pawełczyk, *op. cit.*, p. 151.

direction of sociotechnic actions is directed by the form of norms, bans, commands and obligations. If we were to take the hypothesis that in *welfare state* conditions these institutions at least underwent democratic control, then in the conditions of globalization these institutions became utterly controlled by economic subjects, which take care of only creating favorable conditions for their own functioning²¹. In conditions of globalization almost all institutions acting in the society to support the values and myths of the existing order censoring information not compatible with the accepted image of reality and simultaneously feeding people with notions and symbols which suit the image²². I share the opinion of Immanuel Wallerstein, who writes that 'democratization is not and never has existed for the benefit of capitalists'²³. Democratization has led to the creation of a state defined as the welfare state which could function for a long time for two reasons: firstly, the receivers had at the beginning moderate demands and only European blue collar workers received social benefits; secondly, today all blue collar workers worldwide expect benefits and also the level of expectations is much higher. Wanting to fulfill these expectations, the development of capitalism should be limited, while wanting to avoid that democracy should be limited. Therefore, for the benefit of the steering system it will be to create such conditions that in fact will limit democracy i.e. will not allow the real democracy to function. By the general notion of limiting democracy I understand the process of transforming real democracy in a formal one. Formal existence of democratic institutions is needed for the steering system to validate social order. Thanks to their formal existence, an illusion may be created that we still deal with democratic political system. In fact however, adjusting of all democracies to new conditions always relies on their limitation by intensifying the application of mechanism of fear intensification. However, bigger intensity of applying this mechanism we observe in old democracies than in the new ones.

Transforming democracy (in fact its limitation) as a result of adapting to new conditions of globalization is conducted on two levels. On the institutional level of the system occurs introducing means whose task is to keep order against the increasing disintegration which, as we know, in each case bears some kind of disorder. These means in the overwhelming part have the preventive character i.e. their aim is not to enter where the threat is probable but only when it is possible (therefore always and everywhere). We deal with the *escape from freedom*, which manifests itself in the greater acceptance of the society to limit their rights both *de facto* and *de iure* (such an

²¹ One of the conditions that the state undergoing globalization influence must fulfill is the requirement of broad scale of privatization and as a consequence commercialization of all spheres of social life. More: J. E. Stiglitz, *Globalizacja* (*Globalization*), Warsaw 2004.

²² M. Parenit, *Demokracja dla nielicznych* (*Democracy for few*), Warsaw 1982, p. 233.

²³ I. Wallerstein, *Koniec świata jaki znamy* (*The end of the world that we know*), Warsaw 2004, p. 59.

acceptance stems from the false awareness which is shaped mainly by the media). Introducing new law regulations is always justified by the security of the citizens. Even if single acts of law only insignificantly lead to some limitations, then the combined result of such acts seriously limit freedom of an individual. On this level we notice overlapping of real fears caused by internal contradictions of capitalism and fears of threats of terrorist attacks, real and artificially evoked by the steering system with the aim of gaining acceptance for these limitations. Threatened societies agree to some limitations of civil and personal rights hoping that this will allow at least satisfying their basic needs and exist in more or less safe place. The first ones, fears of social and economic degradation, also lead to the fact that currently, as Dahrendorf indicates, members of higher and medium economic class pursue to sustain their *status quo* (so their material position and connected with it level of life) wish to separate themselves with a high wall from the rest of the society and surely will not sustain certain democratic values²⁴. Today we can say freely that they do not only wish to do so, they just do it. The second contribute to the broader acceptance of the society for such limitations as controlling communication among people relying on recording conversations, registering electronic email etc and also on tighten the mechanisms of social control²⁵. Anyway, all strategies of security are only the extension of terror. And the real victory of terrorism is in fact driving the West to the obsession of security which means a veiled form of terror.

On the level of an individual these transformations are connected only with its awareness which to a bigger than before extent is formed in the way that addresses emotions. Fear evokes certain attitudes, with the predominance of affective element, making it closer to primeval human. 'Fear, especially the long-term one, may lead to regression – the return to more primeval forms of behavior and intensification of the inclination rooted in human to archaic, magic thinking'²⁶. In reply to the social needs there are new myths created both spontaneously and as a result of planned activities. Myths are used in justifying social order. 'Explaining reality, a myth creates particular intellectual limitations, it causes that it is understood by every one in the same way (...) Condensing the perception of reality, the existing order becomes justified on the level of elementary feelings and

²⁴ Z. Marzec, *Jaka globalizacja ? (What globalization?)*, „Bez dogmatu” nr 54, p. 4.

²⁵ An example is an act – Patriot Act („USA Patriot Act” – „Uniting and Strengthening America by Providing Appropriate Tools Required to Intercept and Obstruct Terrorism”), to defend the motherland and which allows significant limitation of civil rights. The Act was introduced a month after WTC attack and after four years from that event was maintained by the Senate. Similar example is the process of slow filling of prisons connected with worsening of the conditions of carrying sentence. All changes in the penalty policy are named by Loic Wacquant as the penalization of poverty. L. Wacquant, *Les prisons de la misere*, Editions Raisons d'Agir, 1999, pp. 73 – 79.

²⁶ J. Miturski, *Demonologia lęku. Niektóre formy ekspresji i symboliki lęku w dziejach kultury (Demonology of fear. Some forms of expression and symbolism of fear in the history of culture)*, (in:) A. Kępiński, op. cit., p. 320.

images'²⁷. A myth serves a ready image, releases from thinking. In the society soaked with fear magic acquires a new meaning²⁸. Just like the primeval hunter preparing for a hunt performed different magic actions to protect himself from the dangers of hunting, also the contemporary human facing threats performs a range of rituals to protect oneself from them. 'Sacred through the tradition ritual e.g. religious, military, diplomatic etc shelters human in the situation evoking fear. At the same time fear becomes partially at least moved from the situation itself to a ritual and people are not afraid of what threatens them but disturbs the ritual'²⁹. Therefore, ceremonies and rituals become to play a bigger role in political processes. Totalitarian systems of the 20th century were the infinite political ceremony. Contemporary intensification of political ceremonies manifested for example by the wealth of permanently organized political conferences devoted to the fight with terrorism, makes in this aspect liberal democracies closer to the totalitarian systems. Even by the objects used in a symbolic way one may shape the imagination of the society (monuments, statues, emblems)³⁰.

Stability of the social systems depends on the acceptance of activities of the steering system on behalf of the society, therefore these activities must be well justified. In the contemporary democracy motivating individuals, in line with the intentions of the steering system, is based mainly on emotions. The steering system addressed emotions of an individual because it is a way firstly – most universal (the catalogue of emotions is similar in all people), secondly – economical (among others for the above mentioned reason the message may be directed to the broadest circle of recipients) and thirdly – efficient both due to the already mentioned irrationality of human nature and the fact that it allows to influence not only behavior but also human attitudes what is obviously more permanent³¹.

The mechanism of fear intensification belongs to the oldest ways of steering the environment, depending on the conditions it provided more or less skillful steering. Current conditions (not only connected with globalization but also with the scientific and technical development) ensure the application of this mechanism on even a broader than before scale. The basic requirement of the steering system to be able to work efficiently is the access to energy and information sources by which we should understand information about the system which it

²⁷ S. Filipowicz, *op. cit.* pp.13 -14. More: P. Pawełczyk, *Charakterystyka mitu politycznego* (Characteristics of political myth), (in:) K. Borowczyk, P. Pawełczyk (ed.), *W kręgu mitów i stereotypów* (In the circle of myths and stereotypes), Poznań – Toruń 1993.

²⁸ A. Kępiński, *op. cit.*, p. 28.

²⁹ *Ibidem*, p. 28.

³⁰ P. Braud, *op. cit.*, p. 19. The steering system is aware of that which manifests itself in the intention to build an impressive monument in the place where the World Trade Center towers used to be located.

³¹ P. Pawełczyk, D. Piontek, *Socjotechnika w komunikowaniu politycznym* (Sociotechnics in political communication), Poznań 1999, p. 32.

influences, information on the surrounding and the methods of the influence as well as possessing the technical and financial means to conduct the activities. Nowadays the steering system has at its disposal much more developed *hardware* and *software* than it had just twenty years ago. The conditions of globalization mean also the great concentration of mass media properties. Never before in the human history have these means been so focused by the so narrow group of entities. It concerns mainly media which is in the mass society the main source of information. The process of commercialization and monopolizing media is particularly visible on the level of media globalization which embraces 'the processes occurring on the level of their organization, technology, property relations, range of influence, content. Television, radio stations, newspapers become more and more international in their range'³². Of course, only few media, those most well-known, have the global character and as a result those which have attained the monopolist status on the market of mass communication internationally. Global market of media and medial information, which has been conquered by big concerns, led to the situation in which television stations nationwide and local, regional press have lost their importance and became secondary³³. The process of globalizing mass communication occur unnoticeably even in societies of relative isolation even such that do not use directly the means of global range. It occurs through the necessity of using by national, local media from the information coming from planetary magnates. Only they can afford to gather information from all over the world, they also perform the initial interpretation of the gathered data. Globalization of the media undermined one of the functions inherent to sovereign state – monopoly of the state in shaping the minds of its citizens³⁴. Reaching with the image every latitude considerably facilitates the actions of the steering system, the whole world may be shown the face of threats. Social psychology prompts that only the images can address the imagination of the whole society in a sufficiently clear way. Only images to such an extent may instantly incite the human senses and evoke particular emotions³⁵. Media constitute irreplaceable instrument in propagating a particular vision of reality which comprises favorable background for the activities of the steering system. Such an organized communications takes the shape of the conditioning propaganda – modeling the public opinion and attitudes in the long-term what frequently becomes

³² T. Buksiński, *Spółeczeństwo informatyczne i komunikacyjne* (Information and communication society) (in:) Z. Blok (ed.), *Spółeczne problemy globalizacji* (Social problems of globalization), Poznań 2001, p. 35.

³³ Ibidem, p. 36.

³⁴ J. Szacki, *Ani zdrada, ani katastrofa* (Neither betrayal nor catastrophe), „Gazeta Wyborcza” from 21 November 2003.

³⁵ Even the best verbal account or description of collapsing towers of the World Trade Center could not evoke such fear as it was done by a TV account of these events.

the introduction to further ordering propaganda – seeking immediate response³⁶. The notion propaganda is always adequate in the description where we observe the lack of choice of message and we deal with the only one undisputed truth. Contemporarily propagated vision of reality is of such a character. Propagating this vision not only is limited to the present day but also recalls certain scenarios for the future³⁷. The efficiency of such actions results from the fact that arguments based on fear and anxiety draw attention more because the brain absorbs faster negative information. Also the announcements connected with violence gain the social interest faster. It is manifested by for example interest in the so called death tapes (films from executions of hostages kidnapped by terrorists, published in the Internet)³⁸. Even if their authenticity in most cases has been undermined, their existence efficiently suits the atmosphere of fear. As Zimbardo notes, people fed by fear eagerly accept simple answers also a lie³⁹. Even if we have the awareness that the information is incomplete or false, present fragmented social reality, still we accept this state of facts being convinced that it happens in the name of our security. A lie not only serves temporary aims but is the core and basis of functioning of the system. Lie which is spread in all the public sphere may be defined after H. Arendt as an organized lie⁴⁰. As Arendt writes, organized lie always aims at destroying all what it decides to defy, already totalitarian governments consciously treated lie as the first step to murder⁴¹. Organized lie begins at the stage of selecting information what is particularly visible on the level of media globalization (see above). One should remember that what we see and hear and also what we do not see and hear is determined by the entities controlling mass media. Even if we see and hear it, then it is presented in a certain context. Every event is ascribed terrorist context (every small accident is confronted with a probability of being a terrorist attack). Events are

³⁶ H. Rank, *The Pep Talk*, Park Forest 1984, p. 67 after: P. Pawełczyk, D. Piontek, *Socjotechnika w komunikowaniu politycznym (Sociotechnics in political communication)*, Poznań 1999, p. 39.

³⁷ An excellent example constitute 120 page document 'World 2020' which was drawn up on the basis of a thousand opinion of experts worldwide and was noted down by the best analysts of CIA. The council presents four of many – as it underlines – scenarios of what the world will look like in the year 2020. The world in 15 years is to be even more dangerous than today, It will be change by the developing globalization, the increase in power of China and India, aging of societies of Europe and Japan, expansion of mega-cities, increase of the demand on oil and gas and constantly higher process of these raw materials, communication technology development, threat growth from terrorism and spread of weapons of mass destruction. One of the bleakest scenarios entitled 'Spiral of fear: fight of Islam terrorist with globalization and the West become everyday. Terrorists use biological weapon or even small nuclear charges. America and Europe isolate from each other – in the US next civil rights are abandoned. Security services are everywhere, spying citizens and seeking terrorists. The world plunge into chaos. Next countries – almost all that can afford it – decide on weapons of mass destruction believing that it is the only way to feel safe. M.Gadziński, *Jaki będzie świat w roku 2020 (What is the world going to be like in year 2020)*, „Gazeta Wyborcza” from 15-16 June. Full text of the report is available on website http://www.cia.gov/nic/NIC_2020_project.html.

³⁸ Only one of recent films from executions was downloaded in a week over a million times from one website.

³⁹ with P. Zimbardo talks K. Monkiewicz – Święcicka, *I ty mógłbyś uciąć głowę (You also could cut head)*, „Przegląd” from 7 November 2004.

⁴⁰ H. Arendt, *Prawda a polityka (Truth versus politics)*, „Literatura na świecie” nr 6 from 1985.

⁴¹ Isn't the armed intervention in Iraq an example of this?

presented in an exaggerated form, insufficiently analyzed or simplified and distorted interpretation. The difference between totalitarian system and democratic one relies on the fact that in this first one we were aware of this fact and in the latter one we do not. Currently the myth of pluralism of mass means of communication was instilled in the awareness of individuals so deeply that they do not allow the thought that all media together would be able to present such a unilateral and false image of the world (the case of presenting arguments for armed intervention in Iraq)⁴². Eventually – as Goebbels claimed – a lie repeated so many times and by all mass media becomes the truth. Nowadays it is much easier to achieve that since small facts only sustain this big lie.

Bearing in mind the above considerations one should consider whether disciplining societies on the basis of fear intensification mechanism in the long – term is able to sustain its stability.

Conclusions

With the above article I wished to take part in the discussion on the future of liberal democracy in new conditions as the social changes caused by the process of globalization undoubtedly create. I pursued to indicate the essence of the stabilization process of democratic system in these new conditions as well as its consequences for the functioning of this system. The self regulating properties of democracy favor entities responsible for the transformations and will allow in the long term further departure from the ideals constituting it in the past. My aim was to draw attention to these transformations of the system, at least due to one reason, that they occur in the conditions of sustaining in the society a notion that all the time we deal with liberal democracy. The above presented analysis of applying fear intensification mechanism is general and short and because of that simplified due to the requirements concerning the length of the text. This issue constitutes one of the most complex notions in sociotechnics, therefore it was possible only to make here the first step on the way to the deconstruction of this mechanism. Further analysis is necessary, at least for one reason that we are presently, still as a society living in the liberal democracy, witnesses of the just the beginning of changes. Such an analysis will allow to see further stages of the changes and answer numerous questions e.g. Will the direction of the changes determined by the conditions of the globalization allow in the long term to maintain its stability or will it lead to some critical point, global rebellion? Will inciting moral enthusiasm prevent that and maintain systemic stability?

⁴² Schiller indicated that the illusion of the possibility to choose information is incited by purposefully sustained by controllers of information inclination to erroneous interpretation of the wealth of means of communication as the variety of contents. He defines it as a myth of pluralism of mass media because an individual is not aware of the capital concentration behind the media. H. I. Schiller, *op. cit.*, s. 22 – 41.

MUNICIPALITY OFFICIALS ABOUT SMALL TOWN'S DEVELOPMENT OPPORTUNITIES

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Abstract

The article is devoted to the development opportunities of small towns in Latvia. Until now made researches shows, that the sociological research of small towns is only at the beginning phase and needs to be continued. Various factors are the base of small town development. In this paper the main attention will be on such small town development parameters as production, employment, education, science and culture.

Key words: local municipalities, small town, sustainable development of territory.

Introduction

Law on Local Governments says that municipalities have to ensure local people with high quality and effective products. To complete this task municipalities have to ensure the sustainable development of the territory. Territory can be called sustainable, if the people want to live and work there now and in the future, if people feel safe in that territory and if the opportunities and services to all are equal (Raco, 2007: 305). To provide sustainable development is one of the top priorities of the administrative territorial reform. There are predicted 96 amalgamated local municipalities and 9 republic cities instead of 525 municipalities. Instant district centers and small towns will become the centers of the amalgamated local municipalities. That is why several scientists lately are interested in small towns in Latvia, but the research of small towns development opportunities from sociological aspect is still insufficient. Still actual question is, how really small towns are ready to explore the new possibilities and challenges, which are offered by administrative territorial reform. To clear that up, a group of scientists from LUA Sociology department made two researches in 2006 and 2007: "Influence of Objective and Subjective Factors on Attachment of Population to Rural Areas of Latvia", „Strategies for small towns to become centers of employment and services“. **Paper objective** – to establish the opinion of the officials of the small towns municipalities about development opportunities in the context of administrative territorial reform.

Paper tasks:

1. To establish the role of business in providing of sustainable development.
2. To establish the role of education, science and culture in the local inhabitant attachment to the small towns.

Hypothesis – the officials of small town municipalities have clear development perspective.

Methods:

1. The analysis of documents
2. Partly structured interviews with the heads of the municipalities, specialists, experts.

The survey was carried out in 12 small towns of Latvia: Akniste, Ape, Auce, Cesvaine, Dagda, Grobina, Pavilosta, Piltene, Skrunda, Smiltene, Viesite and Vilani. The towns were chosen on the bases of such criteria as:

1. representation of different regions,
2. location in different distances of the region centers,
3. experience of positive changes.

In total there were made 40 interviews with municipality's officials.

Results and discussion

The definition of small towns

In the scientific literature there are notable few approaches to the question, what is small town. One of them defines small town as a populated place, which has peculiar history, her own traditions, individuality, and which from big cities differs with that it doesn't have typical dynamism and estrangement... (Preservation struggle, 2004). Also in Latvia there is no agreement about the definition of small towns, not mentioning that, to the research of small towns scientists focused already in last century's 70 – 80's. Until made researchers scientists have focused on several small town development aspects. Economists focus on production aspect, geographers – surroundings and to the feeling of affiliation, but from the point of view of sociology there are researched the processes of migration and stratification connected with it, youth attachment to the cities, birthrate problems etc. (Bite D., 2008).

In general to the year 2008 in Latvia are 77 cities with very different level of population. Within 7 republic cities, 20 bigger cities – district centres. Others compering with named ones can be called – small towns. (Krastins, Vanags (Sc.red.), 2004: 105).

In the "Human Development Report" the main classification criteria of territory authors have chosen the level of urbanization from which inhabited territories are divided in four groups: Riga, republic cities, other cities and rural area. (Latvija. Pārskats par tautas attīstību 2006/2007: 117.) In the named classification with small towns should understand other cities.

Other authors for the classification of cities for the base suggest to use the amount of the population: small towns (50- 100 thousands), big cities (100-150 thousands), very big cities (500 thousands- 1 million), cities over million (Bite D., 2008).

There are different variants possible for town classification. Until now made researches shows, that the sociological research of small towns is only at the beginning phase and needs to be continued.

The administrative territorial reform is ending, which definitely will influence the development of small towns, and that shows the topicality of the following research. For the base of small town development is as the geographical location, as the accessible resources – workforce, finances, natural resources and infrastructure that reflects in development programs, which are developed and implemented by every government according to the territorial planning and the regions governments' development program and territorial planning. In this paper the main attention will be on such small town development parameters as production, employment, education, science and culture.

Production and employment

One of the vital factors to ensure sustainable development is business. Its advancing is an important function of government. It's typical for small towns that there are mainly small and average enterprises wherewith there is restricted amount of work places and there is low level of specialization. In small towns mainly develops traditional ways of production: wood-processing, processing of agricultural products, sewing, tourism etc.

„Dairy farm – private business, owners change. Wood-processing, agriculture, and visitors to beauty parlour come from Gulbene, Jaunpiebalga” (Cesvaine).

„Well, we have tourism, yacht tourism, windsurfing, and all these activities. Activities, which are connected with tourism” (Pavilosta).

In several places are developing for small towns less characteristic producing sphere, for example, in Auce, using innovative technologies and qualified workforce, there is developed metal working, but in Vilani – renewed energy producing.

In many small towns they have successfully managed to maintain restructurise and now successfully develop in Soviet times built production units.

„Those enterprises, which were in the Soviet period, except one... have managed to successfully restructurise and they are holding on despite the big taxes” (Smiltene).

Main problem, which delaying successful business development and with it have interfaced all in this research included governments, is lack of workforce, which is connected with the outflow of the people to bigger centre or to foreign countries.

„the business has to developed, but people are flowing away. Unfortunately, young people are flowing away” (Pavilosta). The government of Ape mentioned that, many people are going for work to Estonia, *„because the wages are stable. In Estonia the wages are three times higher than in Latvia... they are going for job to Aluksne – to the government institutions. There are no production units as well.”* The people of Viesīte are going for work to Jekabpils: *„Many people are going for work there. There are supermarkets. Here is the feeling like in ghetto.”* From more distant foreign countries municipality officials mention Ireland and England.

There are some, which earn there money, then come back and start a successful business or invest the money in fixed assets, but there are much people, which don't even think to come back, not in the nearest future.

In the research „The geographical mobility of workforce” P. Eglīte mentions main reasons for coming back: the possibility to get higher payment; bigger support for families; the change of attitude from employer and country; here is less bureaucracy, if you want to start your own business (Eglīte P., 2007).

The result in many small towns is that although there is unemployment, there is still a lack for workforce.

„Formally there id unemployment, but theoretically and practically at the moment there are no good workforce; people who are not able to live self-dependent” (Cesvaine).

„Actually we have problems with hands... That's why we have employees from Lithuania in Auce” (Auce).

With similar problem have interfaced also in Vilāni, where in pilot household there is not enough milkmaids. To fill this lack of employees, they have been searching for workforce in Ukraine. In Skrunda are working guest workers from Mongolia.

That's why small towns' municipalities have to think seriously about how to attract people, especially the youth, to make the town environment attractive, so that people want to come back. Separate municipalities already are working on that, for example, in Dagda to approximately 70 young people are offered municipality grant in amount of 20-30 lats, but *„no one is ready to take it, it's better to not take liabilities. It's safer to go to places, which, they consider, are with perspective.” (Dagda)*

Another factor, which delays business, is lack of territory. „ *Smiltene would be in further development position, if there would be territory. We had serious investors, but we didn't have where exactly*” (Smiltene).

In many places municipality officials were not satisfied about that the administrative territorial reform drags on, inconsequence in its realization, which creates uncertainty and it delays the development. This problem was mentioned as in Vilani, as in Cesvaine, as in Auce, as in other municipalities.

In general the main factors, which delay the development of production, the lack of territory, the outflow of workforce and unfinished administrative territorial reform. But exactly in the result of administrative territorial reform the biggest part of small towns will become for new region centres, which will provide new development opportunities.

Education, science and culture

Education, science and culture are an important factor of sustainable development of small towns. Snug cultural environment ensures fascination of small towns not only for local inhabitants, but also visitors and therefore can be considered as an instrument for attachment of population to small towns.

„If you would drive around Auce, you would see a beautiful playground in center, with whom could be proud every big town, for example, Jelgava... People from nearest villages and rural areas come here. He comes, he likes, and he is already thinking how stay here.” (Auce).

Auce can be proud also of renewed facade of recreation centre, its inside decoration and spruce surrounding.

“Great finances are invested. Open - air stage will be put into operation after month. Practically we have created environment where people can come” (Auce).

It was mentioned in local municipality that inhabitants take offered opportunities willingly and it is impossible to complain about attendance of cultural measures. Visitors from Dobeles and Jelgava are arriving to several measures. While in Pavilosta inhabitants attend measures with participation of guest artists reluctantly. Measures with participation of local artists are more attended. People from Smiltene can be proud of a new culture and sport centre.

“Culture and sport centre was made by consolidation of old recreation centre and new sport hall – big, normal, it can be done practically anything inside, even to play minifootball. Than we have such interesting thing as cinema, yet” (Smiltene).

In Grobina there were seriously worked on attractive city environment. The town is purposefully made as “sleeping wagon” of Liepaja.

Officials of Skrunda municipality mentioned the importance of culture environment and education in development of small towns, too. Skrunda is intelligent city, that attracts the tourists with Venta river and its own history. Because of nonbeing of secondary schools in surrounded rural districts, Skrunda secondary school in future will develop as region centre secondary school. Worth of mention also is positive aspect of use of trade school staff. *“All surrounded schools are very good places of praxis. Because trade school have taken all vacancies in cafeterias of Nikrace and Skrunda and also in Skrunda kindergarten. Also the training base is near bay, in “Mezabele” restaurant. Tees are the largest places of praxis” (Skrunda).*

Role of school was mentioned in the all small towns. Existence of schools in small towns ensures fascination in surrounding villages. Therefore schools are preserved and great attention to their development is paid by local municipalities. *„ We have concentrated our activity on building the school a lot. If we won’t have school, then won’t have development” (Cesvaine).* This school is one of rare school built after Latvia become independent.

One more factor of development, which mentioned officials of small municipalities in the interviews, is the opening of subsidiary office of different colleges and universities. The successful cooperation between Smiltene technical college and subsidiary offices of Latvian University of Agriculture (LUA) and Baltic International Academia were admitted in Smiltene. But the attendant of students in the town was highly evaluated in Auce *“If in soviet time the active period was summer, then now that is all over the year. Firstly, it is good for Auce, bet secondly, and it is more important, the government of Latvia at last realized, that field practice is the best knowledge...”*

Big role to attachment to the small towns has the feeling of affiliation, which basis is the relationships and trust of the local people: *„The charm of small towns – if you will fall down, everybody will give you a hand... but everybody knows everything” (Cesvaine).*

The feeling of affiliation was underlined in the all municipalities. Officials of Smiltene specified that the connection with the town is preserved after that people has gone away, lived and worked elsewhere: *“It seemed to me, that somebody has a childhood trauma, if he doesn’t come. There were all on the town festivity. I see, that nobody forgot his native land” (Smiltene).* Such standing together was maintained in Cesvaine, too: *“The main factor of the development is indigenous inhabitants, our local people stand together in Riga, too, on Saturdays and Sundays they are coming back to Cesvaine” (Cesvaine).* In the same time inhabitants of Pavilosta, especially the youth, doesn’t connect their future with the town, although they are satisfied with the surrounding

environment in general. On the question did he want to come back and work in his town after graduating university yang people answered: *"No. It is better to come here to rest – it is stilly here. But to work- no"* (Pavilosta). It means that local municipality has seriously to think about the attachment of people, because only in such way development can be promoted.

Conclusions

1. The discussion about criteria of small towns must be continued, to make more precise the definition and typology of small towns.
2. In small towns mainly develops traditional ways of production: wood-processing, processing of agricultural products, sewing etc. Production sectors, which are not so usual in small towns, are metalworking, renewed energy production etc. Production units made during Soviet period, which are maintained and restructured, is the basis of production nowadays. Factors delaying development of production are lack of labour force and territory, which could be prevented by satisfying the needs of people, who are working in foreign countries, by using imported work force, and opportunities, which are created by administrative territorial reform.
3. Inconsequence in the realization of the administrative territorial reform creates uncertainty and delays development of the small towns.
4. Arranged cultural environment is an important instrument to attract people. Greater attention to education and culture must be paid by local municipalities. Branches of universities leave positive influence on the cultural environment of small towns.
5. Officials of local municipalities have good knowledge about the situations and further development in small towns in general. Thereby the aim of paper is reached and hypothesis - the officials of small town municipalities has clear development perspective, is confirmed.

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SIGNIFICANCE OF SOCIAL CAPITAL INDICATORS FOR MEASUREMENT OF ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract

Analyzing the essence of social capital , I try at first present its cognitive virtue as a descriptive category . The concept of social capital can be understood in several, often contradictory, ways which proves useful for positive interpretation and critical analysis. The next step is directed to underline its empiric designates existing in practical functions . It is indicated that influence of social capital upon the social and economic life becomes a crucial element determining the development potential of the community, pro-social and pro-economic attitudes of individuals and social groups. In consequence problems raised in the paper focus on possibilities of measurement of social capital to enable projecting empirical studies.

Key words: social capital indicators, organizational development

Social capital and a success of an organization

Social capital, as a research notion, may be apprehended, on the one hand as a socioeconomic category and on the other hand as a particular sociopsychical and behavioral phenomenon. It is a category, which despite opinions of some opponents of its application (Fine Ben, 2001⁴³), is awarded certain descriptive and cognitive virtues as a descriptive and analytical category. It describes and explains, most importantly crucial for market economy and civil society, aspects of structure and social and economic processes, cultural institutions on the one hand and motivation and attitudes, bonds between individuals and groups and behaviors on the other hand. It is the category of social awareness, functioning both on the level of awareness and behavior of individuals as well as in the sphere of *collective awareness* (science, politics or social practice prerequisite) and actions and functioning of groups and other collective social subjects (constituting a particular *social regulator*). It seems therefore to be a real social, economic phenomenon as well as mental and behavioral at the same time. (Przybysz J., Sauś J., 2004)

Social capital is the bonder of both a modern enterprise and civil society. (Dyduch W., 2001). It fills the social gap between people and it draws its sources in interactions, due to which bonds and networks are based on robust foundations of cooperation. Social capital, similarly to other forms of capital, serves to increase the efficiency of functioning and development of organization

⁴³ Ben Fine criticisms of concept of social capital underlines its functional approach, lack of aims at social change, ahistorical and acultural premise, misrepresentation of the social by viewing the social and non-social as two separate entities which are unrelated, renewed attempt at establishing rational choice theory, and the cure all social theory.

mainly by enhancing cooperation between participants. (Dyduch W., Szczepankiewicz M., Szczepankiewicz E., 2001)

Research on social capital enabled pointing out its determinants:

- Participation in networks. Key issue in creating social capital is the existence of more or less dense, intertwining connections between individuals and groups. People enter relations with others through relations on different levels, which must be voluntary and equal. Social capital cannot be created by individual actions for its own benefit. It is therefore dependent on the inclination to act in collectiveness, to generate new connections, contacts and eventually a network.
- Reciprocity. Social capital means acting of some people for the benefit of others even at the cost of one's own benefit, expecting that this action will be reciprocal. Short-term altruism intertwines with long-term expectation to gain own benefits. In organizations in which reciprocity is strong people care about the other's business.
- Trust. Presence of trust evokes the inclination to take risk by the members of an organization, stemming from an assumption that the others will behave according to the expectations and will support each other. Trust positively influences the feeling of security of the members of the organization which enhances the information openness.
- Social norms. They are the source of internal informal social control which eliminates the need to introduce to the network sanctions that are more formal and institutional. Social norms are non-written by commonly understood laws which specify which forms of behavior are desired, valued and approved in a particular social context.
- Community. A mixture of trust, network, norm and reciprocity creates a strong society where there is commonly shared ownership of resources. Each member of the network has the access to resources, but no one owns it.
- Proactivity. Development of social capital requires eager and active involvement of people in activities of the community. Proactive people are the citizens of an organization. Proactivity means that social capital defines people as creators of efficiency and not its victims. (Bullen P., Onyx J., 2007)

Social capital is frequently associated with the orientating the set of abilities and skills, which enable cooperation among people within the frames of groups and organizations to achieve common good and perform common goals. In this process personal competence to create a group and be the part of a group as well as actions within it constitutes a significant part of social capital.

Common good and even strong group does not emerge quickly. Just like creating any other form of social capital accumulation and development of social capital requires the continuity of activities and long time. (Dyduch W., 2007). If an organization jumps too fast from hierarchy to a network without taking care of the lack of social capital, this process is most frequently deemed to fail. Repetitive failures to cement networks broaden the gap between the board and the staff causing that generating social capital is virtually impossible – all that may lead to increasing financial problems. Organizations which have low level of social as well as financial capital frequently do not devote time nor money to activities which do not result in immediate increase in profit. This change is not managed, it is introduced. Our ability to change the area of trust is an important and symbolic gesture of trusting ourselves and others and, what is more crucial, it constitutes the first step in generating positive social capital. Positive change cannot occur in the atmosphere of blaming each other and finding fault. The process of change will not happen evenly in the whole organization. That is why particular team must be able to plan, implement and assess changes on various levels. Initial conditions should be taken into consideration. The first aim is creating trust, second aim is developing and enhancing shared values and the third aim is completing the source of social capital and then enhancing profits. To regain trust both the structure and the process must enhance the creation of the new reality. Thus organization should appoint a special group to develop new structure and process to ensure that the management and the staff will be united in taking decisions and agreeing forward planning. With the social capital and trust growing, every member of the team changes the focus from I to we. New skills must be internalized and the only way to make it important is the evaluation of the learner. If we want to activate the staff and managers they must be made responsible for efficient work in independent teams. (Crow G., 2002).

Social capital is the driving force for every organization and brings the following benefits:

- economic (economic development, substituting other forms of capital, social security, limiting the problem of *'free riding'*);
- political (effective functioning of local institutions, development of local democracy);
- solving social problems (in areas of education, healthcare, social security and others).

(Theiss M., 2007).

Problem of measuring social capital

Despite the wealth of research, the definition of social capital remains imprecise. Conceptual imprecision, coexistence of multiple definitions, constant lack of proper data have so far been the obstacles both for theoretical and empirical research of phenomena in which social capital

may play a role. It may be noticed that in this respect problems with which empirical studies on social capital have to face, are – to some extent – typical for all empirical studies in social and economic sciences. It may be observed that in empirical research a great variety of methods of measuring social capital was offered as well as ways of testing its potential to generate significant social, economic and political results. However, empirics of social capital still experience particular difficulties when it is to present convincingly results on the macro scale. In this respect one may notice two main problems.

First is the usage of indicators on the macro scale not connected directly with the key components of social capital. Indicators such as for example the percentage of crimes, minor pregnancies, blood donors, indicators of participation in tertiary education – are quite popular in empirical studies but their application leads to significant obfuscation of the idea what exactly social capital is, because of differing aspects arising from research results. Research which depend on the results of social capital as its indicators claim that the social capital is connected with this result. Social capital is repetitive present every time when the result is observable. To avoid such limitations we should focus only on the structural dimensions of social capital, recognizable by social networks.

The second main problem which the empirical literature has to face is aggregation. A big part of the existing international studies on economic results of social capital is based on measures of trust drawn from *World Values Survey*. Trust measured through surveys is a ‘micro’ and ‘cognitive’ notion because it expresses individual perception of social environment which is connected with a particular position the surveyed take in a social structure. Aggregating such data creates however a measure which may be called ‘macro’ or ‘social’ trust which loses its connection with social and historic circumstances in which trust and social capital is placed. However, empirical studies based on international comparisons of trust may become a ‘cul de sac’, due to the inability to comprise results on the macro scale from the point of view of lack of broader context – within which attitudes are generated and determined. If social capital is dependent on context – and context is very changeable depending on what, when and to whom – then all conclusions are unfounded as the basis of generalization for other circumstances. (Sabatini F., 2006)

Despite difficulties in quantifying social capital there are attempts to research and measure it in organizations. The so called groups of closer and farther indicators are used. First one for example embraces the measures of effects caused by the presence of elements of social capital such as networks, trust, reciprocity of actions. Fukuyama and Putnam suggest drawing up a list of groups

and participation in groups in a particular society (civic), and using data from surveys on the level of trust and public involvement. (Fukuyama F., 2001)

In the literature there is a range of concepts of measuring indicators of social capital:

1. Indicators of social capital as the component of intellectual capital.
2. Measure of creating new network links.
3. Multiplier of networks.
4. Measure of the gap in a network of social relations.
5. Measure of network efficiency.
6. Measure of social capital as a structural equivalence of network of bonds.
7. Questionnaire methods .(Bratnicki M., Dyduch W., 2003).

Researching social capital of an organization as the source of entrepreneurship

It is not sufficient within economics to focus only on financial and tangible capital issues. Social capital in creating the value of an enterprise and in gaining competitive edge is equal to tangible capital. Adam Smith claimed that in the market system orienting own business acts as an ‘invisible hand’ which persuades particular individuals to work for common benefits by aiming to achieve their own. (Zabieglik S., 2003). Nowadays we may state that such an invisible hand in organizations is social capital by which gaining common benefits leads to achieving welfare, entrepreneurship revival and as a result gaining competitive edge. (Dyduch W., 2001).

Organizations having a great amount of social capital are more inclined to take risk entrepreneurially and implementing new activities than organizations which limit spontaneous creation of groups. It happens because social capital is the form of social structure in an enterprise and enhances proactive behavior of people within this structure. Understanding social capital as involvement of individuals in creating the networks of relations constitutes the premises to explain the inclination to innovation. Social relations are in fact the reason of rising reciprocity of actions in the networks and this in turn is the basis to develop trust, increased will to take risk and innovative actions. Networks make coordination, communication and cooperation easier as well as enhancing the reputation of participants which enables group problem solving. A superior task of every entrepreneur is the proper use of the existing network of contacts and its enhancement and development. It gives the basis to create a strong position of an organization and on the macroeconomic scale results in economic growth. (Dyduch W., 2007)

In consequence it may be stated that the social structure evolves by creating new links and relations. New bonds modify the existing social capital and create chances to use the resources and exchange them internally between individuals in the organization. Creating new network links is not

easy and organizational units are not always ready to become the participant of a network. Therefore, the role of social capital in facilitating and catalyzing fast creation of new and efficient connections and by that maximal use of resources by the biggest number of network participants to take enterprising actions is crucial. (Tsai W., 2000). In contemporary economy an important aspect of social capital is also the fact that it becomes the network of social bonds between the participants of organization and customers and is helpful in striking economic transactions. Such transactions are facilitated due to quick access of participants of these bonds to real and potential organizational resources. They become accessible by the network of connections in which an individual person or an organizational unit is entangled. Close bonds with customers add to an enterprise competitiveness because they increase the knowledge on the market, favor creating satisfied customer and decrease the cost of transaction in the long-term.

Social capital constitutes also the basis of benefits and efficiency of enterprising organizations, among others because it helps to decrease the cost of searching and flow of information. Since network of social contacts constitutes the source of knowledge and data, and organization is not obliged to employ services searching for information. Networks of social contacts decide moreover who is informed the first for example about the technological innovations, activities of the competition, market chances etc. Social capital is the basis of team work and efficient sharing of private goods. The network of enterprising people presents a kind of collectivity, group which is able to use the goods together. It turns out that social capital as a network of people constitutes a particular lobby which may favorably influence the activities of the government. (Putnam R., 1993). Developing entrepreneurship of an organization on the basis of social capital leads to creating dynamic networks of relations and contacts with the participation of many participants. Networks then play bigger and bigger role in the strategy of enterprising organizations. Networks based on cooperation allow newly established companies gaining new competencies, retaining resources, sharing the market, faster expansion to new markets or creating attractive strategies of investing. Despite the promise carried in the social capital resulting from properly built, developed and maintained networks, many establishing companies go bankrupt not maintaining and revitalizing in a work place bonds between people which unite participants of an organization and create great field to show the value and take enterprising activities. While personal relations between participants of an organization who cooperate with each other are shaped by social capital revitalizing entrepreneurship of an organization, the role of employees as components of a properly understood social capital of an organization and their relations with the organization is often ignored. Therefore, improper building of interpersonal bonds, lack of involvement in building

networks resulting from unfavorable environment in the work place may cause that social capital will become the impediment for development of innovation and entrepreneurship. Research has proved that lack of trust between the participants of a network, dissatisfaction with work place or too stringent cultural norms of the organization do not favor taking enterprising activities and only persuade to routine. (Sparrowe R.T., Linden R.C., Wayne S., 2001)

To avoid inhibitory influence of improperly built social capital on innovation in enterprises of any economy, communication and proactive sharing of knowledge and information should be developed. Such actions in organizations may enhance social capital.

To optimize this process the following premises should be considered:

- efficient cooperation requires connections on different levels of organization;
- trust plays a significant role in networks willing to gain benefits;
- frequent contacts, devoting time on information exchange, precise formulating and accepted feedback from each partner will decrease misunderstanding, improper interpretation, bad reception of the message and enhance cooperation;
- personal bonds to a greater extent displace formal relations in organizations;
- contracts on the psychological, emotional and personal level become to bigger extent substitute of formal legal contracts. At the same time it is worth noticing that dismissals and lowering costs has a great power of destroying social bonds and as a consequence idiosyncratic social capital what again may make social capital impediment of entrepreneurship. (McKinley W., Reynolds-Fisher S., White M.A., 2001)

Fortunately the unique features of social capital – non-repeatability, uniqueness, difficulty in imitation support entrepreneurial development of an organization. Despite the threat of improper building of a network of social bonds, social capital from all forms of capital still seems to have the greatest influence in the growth of collectiveness within an organization. In extreme cases social, financial and tangible capital support the process of creating networks and the only of the kind of connections and contacts and these are the cradle of the process of entrepreneurship leading to gaining permanent competitive edge which manifests itself in specific product, service or idea. Such successes resulting from innovation lead to feedback and enhance financial, tangible and human capital. These forms of capital from the beginning enhance networks so as to form social capital. It should be emphasized that the process described above is not a closed circle enhancing exclusively the organization and its entrepreneurship. After all, making a competitive product leads in particular circumstances to stable economic growth. Enterprising organizations try to apprehend the meaning

of complex exchange of knowledge and value between participants of the entrepreneurship participants: leaders, managers, customers, suppliers, economic units, production units, service providers, partners, investors, communities or local governments. Organizations of the new economy know that to take wiser decisions in the environment in which intangible resources play a crucial role and people are put in the foreground, to transform social capital in the breeding ground of entrepreneurship the change in thinking is needed. The change which will teach organizations how to work on complexity and social relations. There are named four key factors which help organizations to understand complex and tempestuous surrounding and as a result draw the best possible benefits from the developed social capital. (Allee V., 2000).

Multidimensional perception. Entrepreneurs should be the beneficiaries of their entrepreneurial behavior and at the same time they should understand the assumptions, values and ideas which maintain and develop this behavior.

1. Dynamic relations. Creating maps of relations occurring between participants of an organization allows to notice emerging trends and understanding existing relations, contacts and interdependence in the organization.
2. Commonly shared standards. Managing complexity is easier when participants of an organization share ways of thinking, behavior or cooperation.
3. Group work. Individuals left alone are not able to comprehend the complexity or the entirety of the system. Its understanding needs group effort. Learning in knowledge economy is the process requiring cooperation and big input of social capital.

Contemporary organizations have to realize in what ways their activities sustain creating values and revitalize entrepreneurship. In the case of social capital it means the ways social initiatives are carried to provide multiplication of it. To verify the role of intangible resources a range of questions must be answered. Does economy accelerate building social capital by improving processes of work and creating new instruments of cooperation and group work? Do contemporary organizations build social capital by sharing the knowledge with customers, suppliers and other partners in business? Do building strong teams enhance social capital of an organization? What measures would allow organizations to demonstrate usage and the value of intangible resources? How does the social capital influence entrepreneurial behavior of its participants? Is and in what way social capital able to revitalize entrepreneurship and persuade to innovation? Answering these and other questions concerning measuring intangible resources would allow an organization to accelerate creating values comprising social capital.

The issue how social capital is significant for effective functioning of contemporary organizations has been for some years the topic of consideration and studies in the United States, Japan and more frequently also in Europe. The interest in this field has born fruit by publishing significant studies concerning intangible organizational resources including social capital. Many of these studies were supported by empirical research confirming the earlier hypotheses that social capital as mutual benefit resulting from maintaining proper interpersonal relations constitutes the basis of gaining entrepreneurial features by an organization, being the basis of permanent competitive edge and generating welfare. (Bratnicki M., Dyduch W., 2003). In Poland the issue of intangible organizational resources, especially intellectual capital and its components – is the interest field of among others M. Bratnicki, J. Strużyna, W. Dyduch.

In Poland scientific research attempts to verify the veracity of the following research hypotheses:

1. There is a possibility of measuring social capital and as a result assessment of its value in organizations.
2. The level of social capital influences taking strategic decisions.
3. The value of social capital in particular organizations differs.
4. The value of social capital in Polish organizations is low due to orientating managerial staff on financial results.
5. Social capital influences the emergence and development of the inclination towards enterprising behavior in organizations.
6. Consistently developed and accumulated social capital has the connection with the efficiency growth in an organization especially with its entrepreneurship. (Dyduch W., 2007).

On the basis of the literature studies in Poland one may state that there are few interpretations of social capital which would take its issues from the point of view of entrepreneurship at organizational level and to research the influence of this capital on entrepreneurial behaviors, better usage of chances by an organization or its better efficiency. In particular, it is unavoidable to quantify and measure the level of this form of capital. It will also be important to specify its influence on the organization's efficiency and revitalizing its innovation and entrepreneurship. As a consequence the following actions should be taken:

1. Construing an adequate to Polish conditions model of management based on social capital.
2. Presenting the rules and procedures enabling creation, sustenance, development, accumulation and reinvestment of social capital in organizations on Polish ground.

3. Developing a range of practical assumptions concerning the system of continuous development of social capital in organizations.
4. Figurative explanation of the essence of the presented methodological concept.

The basic assumption is the key role of the economy based on knowledge in which activity, motivation, time, intellect, ability to use the opportunity and combining contradictions are the main sources of managerial success. The conceptual frames of management comprise: multidimensionality and pursuit of integrated perception on complex reality of an organization. The research methods should comprise studies of research tool, conducting questionnaires, empirical analysis and finally formulating model concepts. Research on social capital of an organization must inevitably have mainly the descriptive character but also to a limited extent it should be explanatory and prognostic. The main sources of information are the subject literature and primary materials gathered during empirical studies. To verify the adopted research hypotheses it is necessary to conduct direct research by the method of survey and immersed interview. (Dyduch W., 2007).

Conclusions

In the paper are raised issues of social capital measurement. The main point of departure of the empirical analysis of social capital is the acknowledgment of the very multidimensionality of the concept of social capital, which cannot be represented by a single indicator. In consequence in literature there are many approaches of measuring the level of social capital. Trying to assess social capital, a basic step towards its evaluation by empirical research has to confirm the hypotheses that social capital as mutual benefit resulting from maintaining proper interpersonal relations constitutes the basis of gaining entrepreneurial features by an organization, being the basis of permanent competitive edge and generating welfare.

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SOCIAL CAPITAL IN NON-PROFIT ORGANIZATIONS

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Abstract

Nowadays the efficiency of acting in complex social systems is based on the codependence, remunerating relations, education and joint creation. In dynamic and insecure conditions of actions contemporary organizations pursue to adapt to changing conditions and create favorable for them paths of development. Social capital may become a source of such a mobilization and control of resources. It concerns both economic and non-profit organizations.

Key words: social capital, non-profit organizations

The notion of social capital

The real meaning of social capital relies on building trust, assumptions and conditions to join mutual potentials, credible dialogue with the surrounding; as a consequence shaping a specific network of connections bringing positive synergic effect, serving the good of an organization and its surrounding and further public good of people creating it⁴⁴. Social capital is sometimes differently apprehended and in the literature there is no unambiguous definition. R. Putman (2002) defines social capital as the set of informal values and ethical norms common for particular members of a group enabling them to cooperate efficiently. It is created as a result of characteristic features for the social life such as: networks, norms, values and trust which bond people allowing them to act with the aim to achieve common results. Such understood social capital is perceived as a part of social and economic life and is established for the common good. Similar attitude towards the role of social capital is presented by F. Fukuyama underlying the role played by trust in the society. This perception is also crucial for the efficiency of the public sector, general social welfare and competitiveness of enterprises. Moreover, in the literature social capital is presented as individual investment in the network of social relations (Bourdieu); it is defined by such resources as: information, ideas, leadership, business chances, financial capital, power, emotional support, goodwill and kindness, trust and cooperation (Baker). Such understood social capital is created due to building relations, rarely as a result of a transaction. The central assumption of the idea is the existence of network of mutual connections and relation creating a valuable resource for an

⁴⁴ Przybysz J., Sauś J. , *Kapitał społeczny. Szkice socjologiczno-ekonomiczne*. (Social capital. Sociological and economic drafts) Poznan University of Technology Publishing, Poznań 2004.

organization⁴⁵. Social capital is the bond both for an enterprise in the new economy as well as in civil society⁴⁶. It fills the social gap between people and it draws its sources in interactions, due to which bonds and networks are based on robust foundations of cooperation. Social capital, similarly to other forms of capital, serves to increase the efficiency of functioning and development of organization mainly by enhancing cooperation between participants⁴⁷.

Functioning of an organization both in economic and non-profit organization may become a field to gain a deeper insight on social capital, to be more precise, because they provide common background in which it is possible to analyze on the level of community – local societies as well as in the institutional dimension – formal organizations.

Organizations commanding a great amount of social capital are more inclined to take risk entrepreneurially and implementing new activities than organizations which limit spontaneous creation of groups. It happens because social capital is the form of social structure in an organization and enhances proactive behavior of people within this structure⁴⁸. Understanding social capital as involvement of individuals in creating the networks of relations constitutes the premises to explain the inclination to innovation. Social relations are in fact the reason of rising reciprocity of actions in the networks and this in turn is the basis to develop trust, increased will to take risk and innovative actions. Networks make coordination and communication and cooperation easier as well as they enhance the reputation of participants which enables group problem solving. A superior task of every entrepreneur is the proper use of the existing network of contacts and its enhancement and development. It gives the basis to create a strong position of an organization and on the macroeconomic scale results in economic growth, although some claim that slowly the role of network of contacts is diminishing in leading business successfully⁴⁹.

Development of social capital by achieving mutual benefits, influences to a great extent development of entrepreneurship of an organization forming important basis of gaining and

⁴⁵ Paliwoda-Matiolańska A., *Biznes rodzinny w Polsce. Wyzwania i perspektywy. (Family business in Poland. Challenges and perspectives)* FBN Polska, nr.3/2006, www.biznesrodzinny.pl, September 2007.

⁴⁶ W. Dyduch, Niewidzialna ręka kapitału społecznego w przedsiębiorczych organizacjach, w: *Przedsiębiorczość i kapitał intelektualny. (Invisible hand of social capital in enterprising organizations, in: Entrepreneurship and intellectual capital)* Collective work ed. M. Bratnicki and J. Strużyna. AE, Katowice 2001.

⁴⁷ W. Dyduch, M. Szczepankiewicz, E. Szczepankiewicz, Kapitał społeczny podstawą zdobywania przewagi konkurencyjnej w Nowej Ekonomii, w: Moszkowicz M.(red): *Strategie i konkurencyjność przedsiębiorstw po dziesięciu latach transformacji, (Social capital as the basis of gaining competitive edge in New Economy, in: Moszkowicz M.(ed): Strategies and competitiveness of entrepreneurship after a decade of transformation)* Politechnika Wrocławska, Polanica Zdrój 2001, pp. 193-202.

⁴⁸ Woolcock M. ,(Brown University and the World Bank, Washington) , *Microenterprise and Social Capital: a framework for theory research and policy*, Journal of Socio-Economics 30 (2001), pp.193-197.

⁴⁹ W. Dyduch, Kapitał społeczny organizacji pożywką dla przedsiębiorczości i innowacyjność (Social capital of an organization as the breeding ground for entrepreneurship and innovation), www.zti.com.pl, September 2007.

maintaining competitive edge which has its sources in the structure of strategically important resources and competencies. Differences between enterprise are mainly the differences in efficiency of processes of creation and application of social capital. These are also the differences in the strength of the influence of social capital on innovative processes, using synergic effects and as a result adequate buffering of entrepreneurship.

Multi-aspectual concept of social capital may be perceived as a synthetic indicator within three dimensions:

- 1) *Bonding social capital* shaped by strong family bonds;
- 2) *Bridging social capital* shaped by weak informal bonds between friends and neighbors, bonds between coworkers,
- 3) *Linking social capital* given within formal bonds connecting people within voluntary organizations, specifying the quality of norms and organizational structures and values shared by all the employed⁵⁰.

Presented above dimensions of social capital have various social and economic effects. Bonding social capital shaped by strong family bonds and bridging social capital – strong and weak bonds between friends and acquaintances – exert negative result on work efficiency, condition of economy and human development, contrary to linking social capital of voluntary organizations, which positively influences these results. It constitutes a valuable resource and its accumulation is the most important challenge for an organization nowadays. Social capital influences:

- increase in efficiency of the organization's activities by the reduction of threats due to opportunistic behaviors and costs of insurance from them;
- greater adapting abilities of an organization and it improves the process of learning by the organization. It creates necessary atmosphere to cooperate and share knowledge;
- enhances development of human and intellectual capital. Connections and exchange of knowledge constitute a complex social process where knowledge, based socially, is generated in particular situations and by cooperation. It constitutes, therefore, a source of potentialization i.e. accumulation of potential, ability to act in unpredictable situations and control of resources which the organization has not controlled before.

Therefore, the role of social capital should be considered with respect of not only economy, as mainly economist and sometimes socialist do, who treat it as one of particularly crucial factor of

⁵⁰ Sabatini F. *Does Social Capital Improve Labour Productivity in Small and Medium Enterprises?*, DIPARTIMENTO DI ECONOMIA PUBBLICA, UNIVERSITA' DEGLI STUDI DI ROMA, Roma, Working Paper, n. 92, , Febbraio 2006, pp.4-5.

economic processes. Mainly as an instrument of their enhancement, specific factor of modern production i.e. generating and reproducing economic capital and such forms of capital as human, political, cultural, organizational and even military. It constitutes, in fact, an assumption (possibility) and real basis of multiplying and benefiting (of participation and appropriation) from profits, generated to individuals and groups by economic capital in all its forms, as well as an important basis to use by individuals and even whole collectivities form different types of spiritual goods desired socially.

Social capital cannot be only limited to economic processes, also due to important general social reasons. One should not also overlook its particular application as the optimization prerequisite and means (lowering costs and their rationalization) of functioning in an economic and social reality⁵¹. These processes occur on different levels and in different spheres of people's lives. What these levels and spheres are could be apprehended by analyzing *research fields* of the social capital theory. We may distinguish in particular the following fields:

1. family and its existential and behavioral problems;
2. school, education and upbringing;
3. communities (*real* and *virtual*) and problems in their functioning;
4. social organizations and their activities;
5. work and other forms of activity;
6. political system and power;
7. global social problems and social cooperation in solving them;
8. economy and its development⁵².

The above enumeration seems to indicate that proper apprehension of social capital is as a particular social regulator: as a creation of social life, conditioning human behavior both on the level of individual and group activity; both economic, social and cultural. It constitutes one of crucial factors of creating, functioning and improving *social order*, which should be distinguished, as Max Weber indicated, from *economic order*⁵³. Creating this what – according to F. Toennies – lies *at the foundations of our peace, feeling of self-confidence and therefore other motives of trust (...), namely regular and confident, although varied functioning of three big systems (...), which I call order, law*

⁵¹ Daubon R. H., Saunders H., Operationalizing Social Capital: A Strategy to Enhance Communities, "Capacity to concret", International Studies Perspectives 2002, nr 3, s. 176-191.

⁵² Woodlock M., Microenterprise and Social Capital: a Framework for Theory. Research and Policy, The Journal Socio-Economics 2001, nr 30, p. 194.

⁵³ Weber M., *Gospodarka i społeczeństwo (Economy and society)*, PWN, Warsaw 2002, pp. 670-671.

and morality, while the two latter ones as a law order and moral law as developed, evolved from the first one⁵⁴.

What Weber and Toennies wrote about, concerns also the newly emerging *new social order*⁵⁵, which is defined as *societies of modern civilization, new society, postindustrial or post capitalistic*, order which creates and develops *new economy* and *new society*⁵⁶. New economy of the postindustrial era is one of the main instruments of *auto creation (self creation)* and constituting new social order, starting from the local scale and finishing on the global⁵⁷. Analogously to economic phenomena – we can say – about new forms of organization and functioning of *new societies* in the process called *constituting society*⁵⁸.

New economy and new society require for its existence and development, to a significantly greater extent than so far forms of capitalism, special order or in other words adequate to its needs social order. Order understood as ordered but multidimensional and dynamic structures defining behaviors of individuals in social, economic and cultural life. Each of them is conditioned, naturally, utterly by other factors. Social order manifests itself in ordered and regulated behaviors of individuals and mechanisms of functioning of collectiveness. It is accompanied always by correlated with it forms of individual and collective awareness and – to repeat it – law and moral order.

Rules of conduct of individuals and collective activities created by a specific social order are based on institutionalized norms and values socially appreciated and awarded, constituting its basis. It is not the effect of some automatic social self regulation, is not a spontaneous phenomenon independent of will, awareness and activities of individuals as well as social collectiveness. As such it is a specific product of this activity, institutionalized but not being a part of law order, norms, rules or values i.e. what is more frequently called social capital.

Researchers focusing on issues of social capital generally share the opinion that if a particular country social capital is insufficient its development should be consciously and purposefully created, also with the help of state institutions, similarly to the way human capital is created. Although it cannot be created through rational investment decisions as in the case of

⁵⁴ Toennies F., Wspólnota i społeczeństwo jako typy więzi międzyludzkich (Community and society as types of human bonds), (in) Derczyński W., Jasińska-Kania A., Szacki J.(selection), Elementy teorii socjologicznych (Elements of sociological theories), PWN, Warsaw 1975., p.50.

⁵⁵ Januszek H., Dylematy modernizacji i nowego ładu społecznego (Dilemmas of modernization and new social order), (in:) Krzykała F. (ed.), Socjologia gospodarcza w okresie przemian (Economic sociology during transformation period), A E, Zeszyty Naukowe, Seria I, Zeszyt 249, Poznań 1997, pp. 41-52.

⁵⁶ Drucker P. F., Społeczeństwo pokapitalistyczne (Post-capitalist society), PWN, Warsaw 1999.

⁵⁷ Bauman Z., *Globalizacja I co z tego dla ludzi wynika (Globalization and what it means for people)*, PIW, Warsaw 2000, pp. 121-150.

⁵⁸ Giddens A., Stanowienie społeczeństwa (Constituting society), Zysk i S-ka, Poznań 2003.

different forms of human capital. It may be done among others by establishing more schools and universities or by accepting, through these institutions, norms and moral and cultural values of a particular society⁵⁹. The participation of state and governmental and non-governmental institutions of various levels depends mostly on the tradition, culture and structure of a particular society⁶⁰.

Non profit organizations

The name of a non profit organization is attributed to an entity which conducts non commercial activity serving realizing aims socially useful. It comprises both activities for the benefit of individuals or groups of people as well as for the whole society. Realization of aims is conducted by offering social services as well as by creating conditions of life and development according to the cultural and civilization needs and aspirations of citizens. Conducting activity of a non profit character means that it resigns from economic motivation for the benefit of humanitarian one. It does not exclude the possibility of conducting economic activities still very rarely it constitutes the only source of financing the organization.

Main features of non commercial organization:

- superior character of social tasks,
- not depending the conduct of activities on the benefits of economic character,
- leading activities mainly of service character
- High degree of dependence on external financing⁶¹.

Non commercial organizations embrace with its conduct numerous spheres of social life⁶².

They act in the following areas:

Social security	Education and upbringing
Tertiary education	Culture and art
Healthcare	Physical education and sport
Tourism and recreation	Ecology
Activities of non governmental organizations	Entrepreneurship issues

⁵⁹ Warner M., *Building Social Capital: the Role of Local Government*, Journal of Socio-Economics 2001, nr 30, pp. 188-190.

⁶⁰ Kaczocha W., Demokracja – państwo opiekuńcze – dobro wspólne (Democracy – welfare state – common good), (in:) Kaczocha W. (ed.), *Filozoficzne i empiryczne zagadnienia współczesnej demokracji* (Philosophies and empirical issues of contemporary democracy), OBRSW, Poznań 2003, pp. 105-125.

⁶¹ Krzyżanowska M., *Marketing usług organizacji niekomercyjnych* (Marketing of services provided by non commercial organizations), WSPiZ, Warsaw 2000

⁶² Sargeant A., *Marketing w organizacjach non profit* (Marketing in non profit organizations), Oficyna Ekonomiczna, Kraków 2004, p.18, 19.

Problems of professional groups	Regional development
Rights protection of human, children, women, national, religious, race, sexual minorities	

Two types of entities fulfill the criteria of non commercial organizations. These are:

- public institutions – established by the state,
- non governmental organizations – emerging due to social initiatives.

By the notion of public institution we should understand a non commercial organization established due to state administration or regional government initiative, dependent on the establishing units, conducting activities of public character i.e. available to every citizen. The educational institutions in question have the goal to educate and bring up the youth with the aim of developing in them Polish and world heritage, responsibility, love towards motherland, respect to Polish and world cultural heritage and prepare them to fulfill family and civil duties on the basis of solidarity, democracy, tolerance, justice and freedom. Public educational institutions are established by units of regional governments or other public entities and must follow the rules of ethics. Ethical business and pro-social activities improve the image of organization, create its social capital⁶³. As a result implementing CRS (*Corporate Social Responsibility*) concept may significantly influence the processes of generating social capital in relations between the organization and its internal and external environment⁶⁴.

The most important institutional means shaping the credibility and trust as the basis of social capital bind with the processes of education. *To build trust it is necessary to create educated and well-informed public individual*⁶⁵. Education has basic meaning in building civil society. Referring this process to academic circles one should indicate the significance of scientific ethos based on: universality, communalness, disinterestedness and organized skepticism. Universality is the non personification of science. Falsification of claims undergoing assessment within the range of science cannot depend on personal or social attributes of the protagonists. Communalness orders not to treat scientific knowledge as private property of its author but rather as the common good and heritage.

⁶³ Przybysz J. Odpowiedzialność społeczna biznesu (CSR) w kształtowaniu wizerunku firmy (Corporate Social Responsibility in creating company image), in: Przybylski H. (ed.), Public relations. Sztuka skutecznej komunikacji w teorii i praktyce (Public relations. Art of efficient communication in theory and practice), Wyd. Akademii Ekonomicznej w Katowicach, Katowice 2007.

⁶⁴ J. Sauś, PR jako instrument kreowania kapitału społecznego organizacji. (PR as an instrument of ceating social capital in an organization) in: Public relations. Sztuka skutecznej komunikacji w teorii i praktyce, Public relations. Art of efficient communication in theory and practice), Przybylski H. (red), Wyd. Akademii Ekonomicznej w Katowicach, Katowice 2005.

⁶⁵ P. Sztompka: Zaufanie. Fundament społeczeństwa (Trust. Foundation of society), Wydawnictwo ZNAK, Kraków 2007., p.298.

Disinterestedness requires obedience external interest to pure autotelic satisfaction from the discovering the truth, while organized skepticism requires temporary lack of judgment and impartial analysis due to empirical and logic criteria⁶⁶. This is the model understanding described by R. Merton. If science fulfills these criteria it can be said that it is credible and trustworthy. An excellent Polish sociologist P. Sztompka claims that *current erosion of trust towards science stems from a partial fall of its ethos and traditional forms of demonstrating its credibility what results from a new type of organizational and institutional structure and a new type of elation with a broader society characteristic of post academic science. What is more, the new situation opens new fields to deviation and pathology and creates more opportunities for them*⁶⁷.

Despite these fears schools of tertiary education undoubtedly should and can play active and significant role in the process of shaping and developing social capital. Research in this scope among others could embrace the following areas:

- atmosphere at the university, whether it favors cooperation or competition,
- role of the university in the process of developing cooperation,
- analyses of didactic techniques based on cooperation and their implementation at the university,
- students' attitude to cooperation,
- their satisfaction from cooperation,
- criteria of choosing co-partners,
- membership in various organizations⁶⁸.

Undoubtedly the concept of social capital at universities constitutes a challenge that are served by modern economies in which social capital becomes one of the most important strategic resources where credibility and trust grow to the level of contemporary values.

Nowadays there is however an erosion of trust, because the norms of scientific ethos are circumvented ore become weaker, the credibility of scholars and culture of trust are undermined. The contributing factors are:

- fiscalization of science and ethos of consumer society,
- privatization of science when more and more research results belong to sponsors,
- commercialization of science, research results become attractive market product,

⁶⁶ Ibidem, pp. 366, 367.

⁶⁷ Ibidem, p. 367.

⁶⁸ P. Zeller: Rola uczelni w procesie kreowania i rozwoju kapitału społecznego. W: Kapitał społeczny we wspólnotach, Januszek H.(red), Wyd. Akademii Ekonomicznej w Poznaniu, Poznań 2005, s.223

- bureaucratization of science when researchers devote long time to writing projects, planning expenses, research reports,
- lowering exclusivity and autonomy of scientific community⁶⁹.

The above processes are connected with the development or market orientation. Educational processes must compete to win not easily accessible resources, financing on the basis of sponsorship becomes necessary. Competition between universities causes publishing of rankings of these institutions. Universities begin to employ marketing in their activities⁷⁰. Marketing of universities is defined as discovering educational needs and desires of the market within the range of tertiary education and subsequently fulfilling the efficiently through studies and other forms of education⁷¹. In such a definition we underline the didactic activity of a school of tertiary education because this sphere constitutes the main source of budget and beyond budget income.

Conclusions

Ethical business and pro-social activities enhance the image of an organization, create its social capital. Positive developmental effect of social capital manifests itself in the scope of the role of organizations, associations as specific schools of democracy in which socialization of cooperation and trust values takes place. Where the networks are stronger, more dense, horizontal and cross-cutting, there is a gradual spread – from participation in organization to cooperative values and norms developed by citizens. In areas where there do not appear networks of such properties there occur fewer opportunities to learn civil merits and democratic attitudes, whose result is lack of trust. Social environment rich in possibilities of participation allow people to communicate socially, constitute a fertile ground to develop shared values and social norms – trust and reciprocity. Where such values and norms develop there is higher probability of cooperative behaviors and the participants may be more motivated and the organizations have the basis not only to survive but most of all to develop.

⁶⁹ P. Sztompka: *Zaufanie. Fundament społeczeństwa*, Wydawnictwo ZNAK, Kraków 2007 s. 374.

⁷⁰ A. Sargeant: *Marketing w organizacjach non profit*, Wyd. Oficyna Ekonomiczna, Kraków 2004, s. 277.

⁷¹ A. Pabian: *Marketing szkoły wyższej*, Oficyna Wyd. ASPRA–JR, Warszawa 2005, s. 25.

SOCIOCULTURAL CHANGES IN LITHUANIA AS A RESULT OF MODERN POLICY OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT

SOCIOKULTŪRINIAI POKYČIAI LIETUVOJE KAIP ŠIUOLAIKINĖS KAIMO PLĖTROS POLITIKOS REZULTATAS

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Abstract

The article discusses the relation between rural development policy and social and cultural changes in the Lithuanian countryside. EU agricultural and rural development policies have had a diverse impact on Lithuania's country side till the country entered the EU, whereas after 2004 the common EU agricultural policy affected not only the income of Lithuanian countrymen, but also their social structure, value orientation. It is important to explore if the policy stimulates the development of civil society in Lithuanian countryside and in what way, what tendencies and problems can be found on the issue. The positive social and cultural changes arising from the policy may be mentioned.

Key-words: rural development, countryside, sociocultural changes.

Introduction

The main factor in contemporary Lithuanian country life is the agricultural and rural development policies of the European Union (EU). It influenced Lithuania's life even before joining through SAPARD (Special Pre-Accession Programme for Agriculture and Rural Development). After Lithuania has become a member-state of the EU, CAP (Common Agriculture Policy), that also covers rural development, influenced the social structure of Lithuanian countrymen, their income and social structure, value orientation and changed the "face" of the countryside. Therefore, it is important to explore; what are the results of the policy in Lithuania, what problems arise concerning the issue and what socio-cultural changes have occurred.

The Lithuanian countryside is characterized by the fact that one third of all Lithuanians live there and the number has remained steady for many years. Though the importance of agriculture for the country's economy has decreased, Lithuania exceeds both the average of the EU and that of older states-members. Common added-values created in the sector of agriculture in 2005 comprised 5,7 % and was the highest in EU (Lietuvos....krypčių planas. 2007-2013).

Rural development is not approached uniquely. Generally, the concept of rural development embraces continuous thought-out and balanced sum of economic, social, political, cultural and environmental processes. However, in Lithuania, rural development is usually perceived of as a sum

of economic tools, eliminating other important spheres of countryside life and countrymen themselves as one of the most important subject.

The situation is the result of countrymen lagging behind urban citizens concerning education and qualification and possibilities to satisfy spiritual needs. The growing gap according these indices among countrymen are slower development of the information society in rural areas and low countrymen entrepreneurship.

Cultural development in the Lithuanian countryside is an important task. These are some characteristics of Lithuanian countrymen culture, namely, immature political culture: passivity in political and social life, ungrounded hopes and expectations regarding the government, inability to organize themselves and defend their interests which causes nostalgia of the soviet past, a protest culture by voting for radical populist political parties, distrust and opposition to the governmental elite.

Scientific literature discusses rural development from economic, social and managerial perspectives (Vitunskienė, 2007, Treinys, 2001, Janušauskaite, 2007, Čaplikas, 2007, Vazonis, 2007, Atkočiūnienė, 2007, Stonkutė, 2005, Naujokienė, 2005, Kšivickienė, 2007), spiritual or ethnocultural aspects are touched upon rarely (Povilaitis, Steikūnienė, 2003); political scholars restrict themselves by the analysis of common agricultural policy of EU (Trakelis, 2007). The governmental institutions that form the strategy of rural development policy in Lithuania and society itself does not reflect and define rural development as integrated and continuous phenomenon. "Rural development policy is a part of governmental economic policy which is understood as a strategy implemented by the government and focused on economic issues" (Naujokienė, 2005).

The aim of the article: to explore if rural development policy creates favourable preconditions for the sociocultural development of the Lithuanian rural society, which is understood here as non-urbanized territories with villages, urban settlements and towns.

The method of the research: the analysis of scientific literature, official EU and Lithuanian documents, data of statistic and sociologic researches in Lithuania; comparison and synthesis of economical and cultural indicators.

Results (discussion)

The beginning of rural development policy is considered to be the last decade of XX century after announcing the package of reforms "Agenda 2000" which determines the essential changes in agricultural policy of EU.

The shift to the new stage of rural development policy stated in the document of European Commission "Agenda 2000" and determined by the excess of agricultural production in the 9

decade and heavy burden of financial support for agriculture expressed new attitude towards countryside and its place in the society. The focus now is not on the quantity but rather quality of production, environmental, food safety, animal welfare standards. This means that farmers have more responsibility and must be more culturally developed than earlier, while the promotion of rural multifunctional processes encourage farmers to take up new activities for which they have to educate themselves and acquire new experience. Rural development policy implementation creates favourable preconditions for that. The country implements several programs aimed at free farmers education. Lithuanian consultation service for agriculture was established in 1993. Now it has 48 offices and 322 employees in various regions. They provide free information in various forms – courses, consultations, seminars, expositions, publications, etc. – and teach farmers and forest holders how to improve agriculture and forestry, introduce basics of business and possibilities to get EU support. Similar activity is performed by other educational and consultation institutions.

Financial support of EU funds plays essential role in sociocultural changes in Lithuanian countryside. According to SAPARD programme (Special Pre-Accession Programme for Agriculture and Rural Development-support before entering EU, has been in practice since December 2001) till 2004 countrymen got 617 bln Lt of EU support (Stonkutė, 2005). After Lithuania entered EU, the support has grown even more. Since 2004 Lithuanian farmers have got about 3 bln. Lt of direct payments targeted to maintain the level of farm income or compensate their loss (Lietuvos kaimo plėtros 2007-2013 metų programos kryptys, 2006). The support came along with challenges for Lithuanian country– intense competition, higher quality standards, trade and production quotas – which cannot be treated as only negative factors, they may be termed as favourable from the perspective of rural cultural development since they force to mobilize intellectual recourses of farmers, encourage education, skills and qualification improvement.

In recent years very important documents were prepared and approved on the basis of all-inclusive documents of country development coordinated to the EU development strategy (The Plan of Lithuania's National Strategic Directions for 2007-2013 and The Plan of Lithuania's National Strategic Directions). These documents approved by EU in 2006-2007 are: The Basic Provisions for Lithuanian Rural Development Strategy in 2007-2013, National Strategy for Rural Development in 2007-2013, directions of rural development in Lithuania in 2007-2013, the programme of rural development in Lithuania in 2007-2013.

Lithuanian policy of rural development is set and implemented according to EU model, however now it is primarily focused on the solutions of problems existing in countryside. These problems are serious and related with sociocultural development of rural areas. Land reform that

started in 1991 has not been finished yet. The process is quite complicated, regions develop differently, social economical rural development is lagging behind cities and the difference between income in cities and rural areas is constantly growing. The analysis states (Vaznonis, 2006, Treinys, 2006) that the biggest problems of the country are the small and economically weak farms, irrationally used agricultural property, insufficient organizational skills of farmers, low level of enterprise, the lack of innovation and initiative. It is considerably caused by farmers' old age and low level of education. People in rural areas, especially farmers, receive low income, most of them are poor, these areas feature high unemployment rate among young people (Treinys, 2001). The average wage of those working in agriculture and forestry comprises about $\frac{3}{4}$ of average gross domestic wage (Lietuvos Statistikos Metraštis.2006, 173). A large part of people in rural areas are in social disfavour. Rural areas face the following problems: underdeveloped social and material infrastructure, environmental and cultural heritage concerns, weak local government and democracy, the lack of trust and cooperation among municipalities and local communities, low level of community, the lack of active, initiative people (Nacionalinė...strategija, 2006). The development of information society in rural areas is much slower than in cities. Such a situation does not meet the characteristics of post industrial society.

European Community Commission has given the priority support to the most significant directions of Lithuanian policy (2007-2013). These are the following: productive human resources for information society, competitive economy, social quality and cohesion. All these priority spheres are going to be supported by 6,8 bln. Lt (Lietuvos nacionalinis strateginių kryptų planas. 2007-2013). These directions create favourable conditions for the essential sociocultural changes in Lithuanian countryside. It is notable, that not only agricultural but also overall rural development is accentuated which is favourable for spiritual development. Certain directions concerning rural areas such as rural diversification, social integration, health, reduction of unemployment, heritage protection and others are included into the programme of social quality and cohesion (Lietuvos nacionalinis strateginių kryptų planas. 2007-2013).

The National strategy of rural development for 2007-2013 sets the following goals: buoyant economy, nurturance of environmental and rural values, diversification of economic activities and employment possibilities (Nacionalinė...strategija, 2006). Plans are made up to increase average farm size from 11,4 ha (2005) to 20 ha, to reduce the number of people working in agriculture by one third, to encourage young people taking up agricultural activity, to reduce the difference of income between people in cities and rural areas from 25 % to 15%, develop country tourism, establish 2500 internet service centers, etc. (Nacionalinė...strategija, 2006). Such concerns as the

development of people's skills in rural areas by employing them or diversifying their activities, improvements of local government, encouragement the initiatives of local people are very important for the sociocultural progress of countryside.

The programme of rural development in Lithuania for 2007-2013 discerns several directions of activities, describes the means to achieve the goals and determines financial resources. The support for the period comprises 7,8 bln. Lt (1,8 bln. from national budget). The first trend "Reinforced competition in agriculture, forestry and food sector" numbers the tools, for example, vocational training and briefing activity, using the service of consultants, settlement of young farmers. These tools directly encourage the intellectual growth of farmers. Other means that encourage installation of new technologies, modernization of farms also stimulates intellectual maturity of farmers. However, hardly this can be said about such a means as "early withdrawal from commodity production" which provides payments for this category of people. It opposes to traditional values of Lithuanian farmers – diligence and love for soil. On the other hand, it is not clear how withdrawal from commodity production will affect people's leisure time structure, health, spiritual and other needs. The second trend "Improvement of environment and landscape" sets out actions necessary for the restoration of forests and cultivates ecological culture, creates responsible attitude towards environment and compensates the loss of income for people who voluntarily transfer from intensive to ecological agriculture or forestry or who are forced to do that because of governmental restrictions or who has settled in areas less favourable for agriculture. The third trend "Social quality in rural areas and diversification of rural economy: encouraged farmers to transfer from agricultural activity to other spheres, such as country tourism. The tools of this trend are very important and because they stimulate enterprise which is very low in rural areas in Lithuania. For instance, in 2005 in 15 EU states-members there were 24 small or media companies for 1000 countrymen, whereas in Lithuania the number reached only 7 (Lietuvos kaimo plėtros 2007-2013 metų programos priemonės, 2007). If the situation does not change, if there are no new business types, the number of owners-farmers will decrease which will bring negative consequences. The tools being discussed also motivate people to take care of environment and cultural heritage protection while using it for business (e.g. launching country tourism business), thus, they stimulate spiritual development. Renewal of country is important since it may encourage young people to stay in rural areas, or newcomers from cities to settle here; it may also attract more tourists. These outcomes should revive economical and cultural life, solve the problems of ageing, emptying and strengthening of local communities in rural areas.

The fourth trend “Implementation of Leader method” is of particular importance for the sociocultural progress of countryside and is dedicated to revive rural communities, to develop their members’ activity and initiatives, to look for leaders and place to realize various projects. According to this programme, activity of local groups has been stimulated for several years. Not less than half of the members are local people, representatives of non-governmental organizations and business. The implementation of this programme is very important in the process of increasing the competence, confidence and independent activity of people in rural areas. Though financial support for the “Leader” programme comprises a relatively small part of all funds dedicated to rural development (6,1 % of all funds for agriculture and rural development for the period 2007-2013), but “Leader” method is also implemented through the tools of the third trend, which get 12,2 % of all funds.

It is difficult to judge the impact of rural development policy (under the influence of EU policy) on the sociocultural development of countryside since its practical application in Lithuania is relatively short (since 2004). Some positive changes are noticeable, for instance, in the sphere of countrymen education or development of information society in general. In comparison to 2001, in 2006 the number of countrymen who have primary education has decreased by 4,6 %, whereas the number of those who have high education has increased by 3,5 % (it has grown to 12,2%). Mostly it happened because the process has been supported by EU (Kšivickienė, 2007).. Youth is a part of society that involves in the process of education the most actively. And tools of rural development are primarily oriented to youth. In 1999-2005 the number of studying youth grew by 47,9 % (in 2005, 70,1 % of all 15-24 year old countrymen studied) (Dubonytė, 2007). Nevertheless, the amount of farmers’ income, has increased considerably since 2004-in 2005 disposable income of rural population increased by 14,7 per cent, in 2006 year by 25,0 per cent (compared with 2003-63,8 %) (Lietuvos statistikos metraštis, 2006, 2007). It is worth, noting, that the establishment of associations brings positive changes. For instance, in 2001 there were 10 registered rural communities, whereas in 2001 – 30, 2002 – 210, 2003 – 406, 2004 – 800, 2005 – more than 1300 (Lietuvos kaimo plėtros...priemonės, 2007). Since 2006 communities can get not only EU, but also the governmental support to realize their projects. Local communities allow engaging people into common activity, developing their abilities, starting partnership with the institutions of local government. In 2007, the number of active local groups was 46, which embraced 99% of the country’s territory.

Contemporary Lithuanian countryside also features some tendencies that negatively affect sociocultural rural development, such as growing social differentiation of countrymen (according to income, education, indices of information society development, lifestyle, subculture and others)

.These phenomena cannot be dissociated from rural development policy because its results, firstly the support of SAPARD, are distributed unequally. The biggest and economically strongest producers have always got the lion's share and continue to do so. It is possible to predict, that the results of the rural development policy will not be exclusively positive.

Conclusions

The situation in the countryside at present depends on Lithuania's rural development policy which comes from EU agricultural and rural development policy and has a great impact on the country's economic, social and spiritual development. The analysis of the most important documents of Lithuania's rural development policy (Lietuvos kaimo plėtros 2007-2013 metų programos priemonės; Lietuvos kaimo plėtros 2007-2013 metų strategijos pagrindinės nuostatos; Lietuvos kaimo plėtros 2007-2013 metų programos kryptys) shows that contemporary EU agricultural and rural development policy (that has been implemented since the last decade of XX c.) creates favourable preconditions for sociocultural development of Lithuanian countryside till 2013. Some positive tendencies arising from the policy may be mentioned: growth of income, organization and community, better education, certain approach to information space. A short period of Lithuania's rural development policy implementation does not allow to make any deeper generalizations about concrete results on sociocultural progress in rural areas in Lithuania.

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SOCIAL REPRESENTATIONS ABOUT POLITICIAN: PILOT RESEARCH STUDY

SOCIĀLIE PRIEKŠTATI PAR POLITIĶI: PILOTPĒTĪJUMA REZULTĀTU ANALĪZE

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Abstract

The aim of this report is to analyse conception of social representations and present the results of the pilot research study "Social representations about politician". The study question: what are the main Latvian students' social representations of politician? The method of free associations is one of the methods of researching social representations which many scientists in Europe and elsewhere have utilized in their studies. A research draft study was carried out to research the method in which 236 students from institutions of higher education (universities and university colleges) in Latvia. All received associations were divided in 12 groups, therefore the sense of social representations about politician were interpreted.

Key-words: social representations, politician, the method of free associations.

Ievads

Serža Moskoviči (Moscovici) sociālo priekšstatu teorija radusies, pētot indivīdu, attieksmju un parādību dažādības visās tās savādības un neprognozējamības izpausmēs. Šīs teorijas mērķis ir atklāt, kā no šādas dažādības indivīdi un grupas var radīt stabilu, prognozējamu pasauli (Moscovici, 1984).

Atkarībā no izcelšanās, S.Moskoviči izšķir divu veidu sociālos priekšstatus, kas galvenokārt balstās uz uzskatiem vai uz zināšanām. Uzskati parasti sakņojas kultūrā, tradīcijās un valodā, un tiem ir raksturīga nelokāma un stingra pārliecība. Tos var tālāk neapzināti nodot ar kolektīvās atmiņas, implicētas komunikācijas un tradīciju palīdzību (Moscovici, Markova, 2000 pēc Ruža,

2006). Taču visi uzskati ir atšķirīgi sava ilguma, spēka un noturības ziņā. Dažus uzskatus var vieglāk mainīt kā citus.

Savukārt kopīgajās zināšanās ietilpst gan transformētas zinātniskās zināšanas, gan zināšanas, kas balstās uz cilvēku savstarpējo attiecību, sarunu, ikdienas rutīnas pieredzi utt. Zināt, gluži tāpat kā ticēt, nozīmē uzskatīt kaut ko par patiesu. Zināt nozīmē pēc iespējas neatkarīgāk no pārējiem izpētīt noteiktu parādību dabu. (Markova, 2003).

Sociālo priekšstatu teorijas sākumi ir saistīti ar priekšstatu pētījumiem par psihoanalīzi Francijas sabiedrībā 20.gadsimta 50. gados. Laika gaitā parādījusies virkne aktuālu pētījumu, sākot ar S.Moskoviči psihoanalīzes izpēti (Moscovici, 1961/1976) līdz pat priekšstatu pētījumiem par zinātņi un jaunajām tehnoloģijām (Wagner, Kronberger, 2001), par veselību un slimību (Campbell, Jovchelovitch, 2000), identitātes skaidrojumiem (Howarth, 2005), par jaunu pārtiku (Huotilainen, 2005), par cilvēku tiesībām (Le Duc, 2001) u.c.

Arī Latvijā ir veikti atsevišķi sociālo priekšstatu pētījumi par zinātņi (Reņģe, Austers, 2003.), par Eiropas Savienības valstīm (Ruža, 2006) u.c. Jāsecina, ka sociālo priekšstatu pētījumi Latvijā ir aktualizējušies tieši pēdējos gados, joprojām ir aktuāli un tiek izmantoti kā sabiedrības pētīšanas instruments.

Šī referāta mērķis ir pilotpētījuma “Sociālie priekšstati par politiķi” rezultātu analīze.

Pilotpētījuma jautājums – kādi ir Latvijas studentu sociālie priekšstati par politiķi?

Datu savākšanas metode

Šajā pētījumā tika izvēlēta brīvo asociāciju metode (pēc Reņģe, Austers, 2003), ar kuras palīdzību tika noskaidroti sociālie priekšstati par politiķi. Šo metodi savos pētījumos ir izmantojuši daudzi zinātnieki gan Eiropā (Di Giacomo, 1980, Lorenzi-Cioldi, 1994, Tsoukalas, 2006, Hovardas, Korfiatis, 2006), gan arī Latvijā (Reņģe, Austers, 2003, Ruža, 2006).

Izmantojot šo metodi tika izpētīti 235 studenti no dažādām valsts un privātajām augstākās izglītības iestādēm Latvijā: Rīgas Stradiņa universitātes, Latvijas Kultūras akadēmijas, Baltijas Starptautiskās akadēmijas, Alberta koledžas.

Pētījuma metodes

Tika apsekoti 154 studenti no Rīgas un 80 studenti, kuri dzīvo ārpus Rīgas. Viens students dzīvesvietu netika norādījis.

Tika aprēķināti ticamības intervāli, lietojot datorprogrammā CIA Vilsona metodi politiķiem, raksturojumiem un asociācijām, kurus izvēlējās vismaz 20 % respondentu.

Katram respondentam vajadzēja izvēlēties 3 asociācijas, kas tika sagrupētas 12 grupās (sk. 1.tab.) un 3 raksturojumus, kuri tika klasificēti kā pozitīvi, negatīvi vai neitrāli (sk. 2.tab.). Tātad no

katras asociāciju grupas respondents varēja izvēlēties no 0 līdz 3 asociācijām. Tāpat no katras raksturojumu grupas respondents varēja izvēlēties no 0 līdz 3 raksturojumiem.

1. tabula. Asociāciju klasifikācija

Npk	Asociācijas skaidrojums
1.	Asociācijas, kas saistītas ar politika ārējo (vizuālo) izskatu (piemēram, biežāk minēts- vīrietis, uzvalks un dūšīgs).
2.	Asociācijas, kas saistītas ar politika izglītību un izglītoību (piemēram, biežāk minēts- izglītots, gudrs, inteliģents, muļķis)
3.	Asociācijas, kas saistītas ar politika atpazīstamību sabiedrībā un popularitāti (piemēram, biežāk minēts - publiska, atpazīstama un slavena persona).
4.	Asociācijas, kas saistītas ar politika darbību, pienākumiem, to pildīšanu (piemēram, biežāk minēts - atbildības uzņemšanās, neko nedarišana un slinkošana, zagšana)
5.	Asociācijas, kas saistītas ar politika īpašībām / raksturojumiem (piemēram, biežāk minēts -savtība, viltība, liekulība, iedomība, augstprātība, netaisns)
6.	Asociācijas, kas saistītas ar korupciju un ar to raksturojošām darbībām (piemēram, biežāk minēts - negodīgs, korumpēts, krāpnieks)
7.	Asociācijas, kas saistītas ar politika runu uztveri (piemēram, biežāk minēts- runas vīrs, orators, melis, solītājs, runātājs)
8.	Asociācijas, kas saistītas ar politika varas izpausmēm un ietekmi (piemēram, biežāk minēts- vara, valdība, likumi)
9.	Asociācijas, kas saistītas ar politika piederību profesijai (piemēram, biežāk minēts- deputāts, aktieris).
10.	Asociācijas, kas saistītas ar politika materiālo stāvokli un labklājību (piemēram, biežāk minēts- bagāts, mantkārīgs)
11.	Asociācijas, kas saistītas ar piederību cilvēku grupai (piemēram, biežāk minēts- saeima, valsts, sabiedrība)
12.	Citas asociācijas (piemēram, biežāk minēti dažādi dzīvnieki – žurka, putns, cūka; emocijas – riebjas, nevaru ciest)

Savukārt, raksturojumu klasifikācija ir sekojoša (sk. 2.tab.).

2. tabula. Raksturojumu klasifikācija

Npk	Raksturojumu skaidrojums
1.	Negatīvi raksturojumi (piemēram, biežāk minēts- viltīgs, liekulīgs, savtīgs, iedomīgs, melīgs, varaskārs, slinks, zaglis, negodīgs, korumpēts, muļķis u.c.)
2.	Neitrāli raksturojumi (piemēram, minēts- konservatīvs, steidzīgs, organizators, pašapziņa, attapīgs u.c.)
3.	Pozitīvi raksturojumi (piemēram, biežāk minēts- nopietns, diplomāts, gudrs, izglītots, inteliģents, strādīgs).

Tika pieņemts, ka asociāciju un raksturojumu skaits ir attiecību skalas lielumi un lietota klasteru analīze SPSS programmā ar k – vidējo metodi. Respondenti tika sagrupēti 5 klasteros. Katra klastera centra koordinātas nosaka centrālo sociālo priekšstatu, ap kuriem grupējas respondenti.

Rezultāti

Aprēķinot ticamības intervālus, tika iegūti sekojoši rezultāti par politiķiem, kurus izvēlējās vismaz 20% respondentu (sk. 3.tab.).

3. tabula.

Ticamības intervāli politiķiem, kurus izvēlējās vismaz 20 % respondentu

Politīķi	Rīga		Ārpus Rīgas		Kopā	
Šlesers	30.8%	43.2%	34.9%	47.6%	32.5%	45.0%
Godmanis	35.9%	48.6%	33.7%	46.3%	35.4%	48.0%
Kalvītis	47.5%	60.3%	42.3%	55.2%	45.5%	58.3%
Zatlers	15.6%	26.0%			14.9%	25.1%
Šķēle	27.7%	39.8%	36.1%	48.9%	30.4%	42.8%
Repše	19.7%	30.9%	17.1%	27.9%	19.1%	30.2%

Aprēķinot ticamības intervālus, tika iegūti sekojoši rezultāti politiķu raksturojumiem, kurus izvēlējās vismaz 20% respondentu (sk. 4.tab.).

4. tabula.

Ticamības intervāli raksturojumiem, kurus izvēlējās vismaz 20 % respondentu

Raksturojumi	Rīga		Ārpus Rīgas		Kopā	
Viltīgs, liekulīgs, savtīgs, iedomīgs, melīgs, varaskārs, slinks, zaglis, negodīgs, korumpēts, muļķis u.c.	38.2%	50.9%	38.4%	51.2%	38.2%	51.0%
Konservatīvs, steidzīgs, organizators, pašapziņa, attapīgs u.c.	40.6%	53.4%	40.0%	52.9%	40.3%	53.2%

Aprēķinot ticamības intervālus, tika iegūti sekojoši rezultāti asociācijām, kuras izvēlējās vismaz 20% respondentu (sk. 5.tab.).

5. tabula.

Ticamības intervāli asociācijām, kuras izvēlējās vismaz 20 % respondentu

Asociācijas	Rīga		Ārpus Rīgas		Kopā	
Atbildības uzņemšanās, neko nedarīšana un slinkošana, zagšana u.c.	22.2%	33.7%	31.3%	43.7%	25.5%	37.2%
Savtība, viltība, liekulība, iedomība, augstprātība, netaisns u.c.	27.1%	39.2%	21.8%	33.2%	25.9%	37.7%
Negodīgs, korumpēts, krāpnieks u.c.	25.8%	37.8%	22.9%	34.6%	25.1%	36.8%
Runas vīrs, orators, melis, solītājs, runātājs u.c.	16.2%	26.7%	21.8%	33.2%	19.2%	30.1%
Vara, valdība, likumi u.c.	24.6%	36.4%	20.6%	31.9%	23.5%	35.0%
Bagāts, mantkārīgs u.c.	18.5%	29.5%	28.9%	41.1%	22.7%	34.1%
Saeima, valsts, sabiedrība u.c.	15.0%	25.3%	20.6%	31.9%	17.3%	27.9%

Tabulās redzams (sk. 3., 4., 5. tab.), ka ticamības intervāli vairākumā gadījumu pārklājas, ka rezultāti ir statistiski ticami un neatšķiras starp Rīgas, ārpus Rīgas un visiem pārējiem respondentiem.

Vienīgi V. Zatleru, ar kuru saistās priekšstats par politiku, izvēlējušies mazāk par 20% ārpus Rīgas respondentu.

Lietojot klasteru analīzi, tika iegūti 5 centrālie priekšstati par politiku.

Tabulā (sk. 6.tab.) attēlots asociāciju un raksturojumu grupu izvēles biežums.

6. tabula.

Centrālie priekšstati par politiku

	Kopā (N=235)					Rīga (N=154)					Ārpus Rīgas (N=80)				
Klasteru kārtas numurs	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Klasteru apjoms nī	34	29	66	79	27	25	46	22	46	15	33	9	8	17	13
Asociācijas															
Vīrietis, uzvalks un dūšīgs u.c.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Izglītots, inteligents, gudrs, mulķis u.c.	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Publiska, atpazīstama un slavena persona u.c.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Atbildības uzņemšanās, neko nedarišana un slinkošana, zagšana u.c.	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Savtība, viltība, liekulība, iedomība, augstprātība, netaisnība u.c.	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Negodīgs, korumpēts, krāpnieks u.c.	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Runas vīrs, orators, melis, solītājs, runātājs u.c.	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Vara, valdība, likumi u.c.	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
Deputāts, aktieris u.c.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Bagāts, mantkārīgs u.c.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
Saeima, valsts, sabiedrība u.c.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Dzīvnieki – žurka, putns, cūka; emocijas – riebjas, nevaru ciest u.c.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Viltīgs, liekulīgs, savtīgs, iedomīgs, melīgs, varaskārs, slinks, zaglis, negodīgs, korumpēts, mulķis u.c.	2	0	2	0	1	1	2	2	0	1	3	0	0	0	1
Raksturojumi															
Konservatīvs, steidzīgs, organizators, pašapzinīgs, attapīgs u.c.	0	2	0	2	1	1	1	0	3	2	0	1	3	3	2
Nopietns, diplomāts, gudrs, izglītots, inteligents, strādīgs u.c.	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0

Secinājumi

- Galvenās asociācijas saistās ar politika personiskajām īpašībām / raksturojumiem un darbību. Tomēr ievērojams asociāciju īpatsvars ir saistīts ar korupciju un to raksturojošām darbībām, politika varas izpausmēm un ietekmi.

2. Latvijas studentu sociālajos priekšstatos par politiķi dominē negatīvi raksturojumi.
3. Politiķi personificēti kā A.Šlesers, I.Godmanis, A. Kalvītis, V.Zatlers, A.Šķēle, E.Repše, kas atbilstoši ļauj izteikt pieņēmumu, ka iepriekš iegūtās asociācijas primāri saistās tieši ar šo politiķu raksturojumiem / tēliem.
4. Tādējādi ir jāsecina, ka Latvijas politiķiem (protams, to sabiedrisko attiecību un citām konsultatīvam personālam) būtu jāņem vērā šie rezultāti, veidojot un realizējot praksē politika komunikācijas stratēģijas, vienlaikus atceroties, ka augsts negatīvisma līmenis ir saistīts ar Latvijas sabiedrības neveiksmīgo politiskās prakses pieredzi un nestabilo sociāli-ekonomisko situāciju.
5. Ticamības intervālu rezultāti statistiski ticami neatšķiras starp Rīgas, ārpus Rīgas un visiem respondentiem. Vienīgi V.Zatleru, ar kuru saistās priekšstats par politiķi, izvēlējušies mazāk par 20% ārpus Rīgas respondentu.
6. Sadalot respondentus klasteros, var pamanīt, ka Rīgas un ārpus Rīgas respondentu centrālie priekšstati par politiķi atšķiras; kopīgi ir salīdzinoši bieža negatīvu un neitrālu raksturojumu izvēle un reta pozitīvu raksturojumu izvēle.
7. Pilotpētījums autoriem deva priekšstatu, kādai vajadzētu būt optimālai apjomīgāka pētījuma anketai.
8. Respondentu asociācijas atspoguļo virkni stereotipu un emocionālo attieksmju par politiķiem un viņu darbību. To pamatā ir attiecīgais negatīvais novērtējums, ko Latvijas politiķi, iespējams, ir ieguvuši, gan pateicoties savas darbības rezultātiem, gan ņemot vērā studentu saskari ar pašiem politiķiem un / vai iespaidus / uzskatus / zināšanas par politisko procesu attīstību valstī.

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BRAND KNOWLEDGE AND USE OF COMMUNICATION TOOLS IN THE MARKETING OF ORGANIC PRODUCTS IN LATVIA

BIOĻOGISKĀS LAUKSAIMNIECĪBAS PRODUKTU ZĪMOLA ATPAZĪSTAMĪBA UN MĀRKETINGA KOMUNIKĀCIJA LATVIJĀ

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Abstract

The research reveals the current situation in the market of organic products in Latvia that is quite complicated because of heavy competition between organic and more powerful conventional brands. Promotional campaign implemented last two years increased organic brand awareness in Latvia; nevertheless marketing activities could be carried out more effectively. Interviews of experts of producer groups and consumers enquiry show that demand for organic products has increased, but consumers are still confused about meaning of organic and it's representing brands. Based on the results of market research, recommendations are given to increase effectiveness of promotion campaigns and recognition of organic products in Latvia.

Key words: Organic products, marketing campaign, brand, consumer behavior

Introduction

Agriculture is one of the most important branches of national economy of Latvia, and organic farming plays a very important socio-economic role in rural areas of Latvia.

Within the time period of August 2006 to August 2008 one of the most significant projects of promotion of organic agriculture took place in Latvia.

The research work has been made with the aim to investigate effectiveness of marketing communication of organic products in the terms of brand awareness and products' demand.

The following tasks were accomplished within the investigation:

- 1) To characterize market situation of organic production in Latvia;
- 2) To analyze consumer attitude to organic products and changes in their behavior;
- 3) To evaluate effectiveness of marketing communication of organic products.

Research methods

Random sampling was used to interview consumers in the age group between 20 and 60 years, which was settled also as the target audience of marketing campaign. A survey of target audience of organic products was carried out in September 2007 and research data were obtained from 152 consumers.

At the same time ten experts in different fields of organic production – leaders of seed, milk, beef, poultry, crop, vegetable, fruits, apiculture production branches in the structure of Association

of Latvian Organic Agriculture (ALOA), as well as canteen and retail managers were interviewed by phone and in person to get data about changes from supply side of organic market.

Reports of the Ministry of Agriculture of the Republic of Latvia (MoA), Association of Latvian Organic Agriculture and “Marketing House” Ltd. have been used to make the necessary comparisons and to find out the most evident current trends.

Statistical, graphical and analytical methods were used to process the data of the investigation.

Results and Discussion

1. Market Situation of Organic Production

The organic farming has been developing in Latvia very rapidly over the last three years that is equal to the period of Latvia’s membership in the EU and notable financial support availability to organic sector from the EU and national funds.

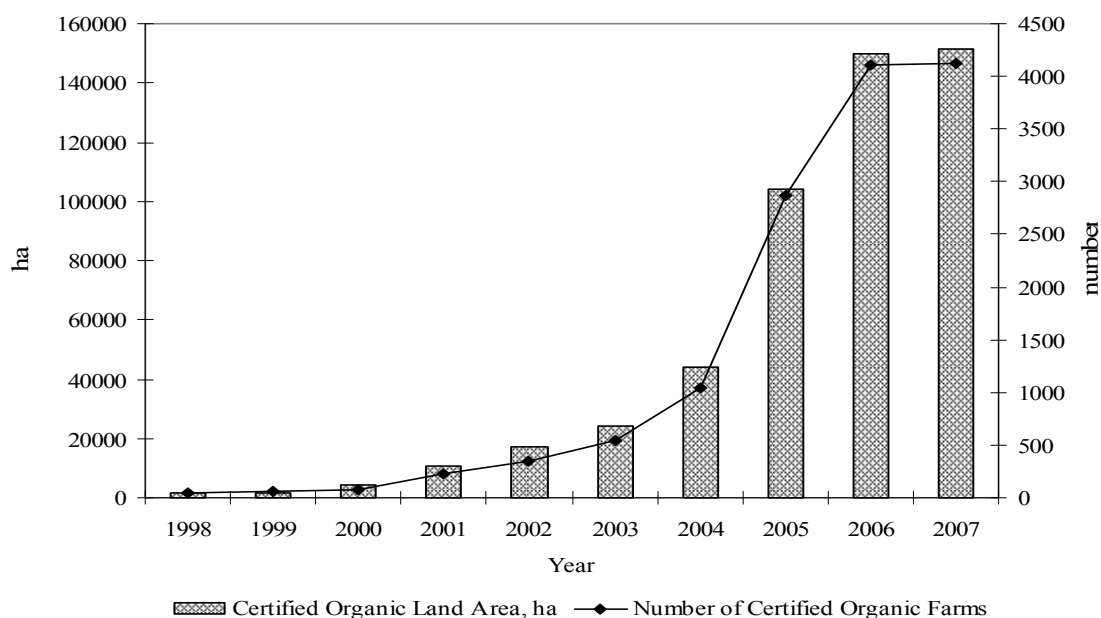


Figure 1 Certified Organic and In-conversion Land Area and Farms in Latvia

Data source: MoA, 2008

In 2007 there were 4120 organic farms, or farms converting their production to organic farming, in comparison to 550 in 2003. Certified land and land in-conversion take up to 150 thousand ha of agricultural land in 2007, in comparison to 25 thousand ha in 2003 (see Figure 1). Currently already 7 % of the agricultural land is used for organic farming in Latvia, in comparison to 0.6 % in 2003. (MoA, 2008)

According to the product life-cycle concept organic farming in Latvia still progress within the growth stage, that is the period of rapid market acceptance and increasing profits.

Potential of organic production development involves increasing demand for organic products in Latvia, and that is the reason why producers still do not compete between themselves. Producers of all main production fields affirm that demand for organic products notably increased already in the period of first year promotion campaign, when intensive promotional campaign of organic products took place in Latvia. Production experts observed significant increase in demand right after thematic programs concerning food consumption on television, specialists demonstrations of farms' products to professional cooks or seminars organized on the farms, at schools and children gardens. Besides shops of organic products and canteen acquired many new clients during the fair trade in Riga city and international exhibition of foodstuff industry "Riga Food".

Positive indications observed also in the demand of public sector. Within the past year more often public institutions, schools and kindergartens, as well as embassies ordered organic products or prepared foodstuff to their operational activities.

Nevertheless several experts mentioned that large part of new clients had been attracted through word-of-mouth influence between friends, colleagues and relatives of existing clients – they spread out information about market places where are possible to buy organic products.

Demand increases not only in the internal market – foreign companies show up strong interest about export of organic products: seeds and stock to other EU countries. That is the factor which could negatively affect organic production in coming years because of limited availability of local resources of raw materials, seed and stock to enlarge national production.

2. Consumer Behavior in the Purchase of Organic Products

Consumers are the main agents in the development of organic agriculture. By experts' observation consumer groups of organic products according to their social, economic and demographic characteristics in Latvia are:

- Young families with children and pregnant women;
- People with certain illnesses – allergies, asthmas etc.;
- People with income above average living in the cities;
- More Latvians and foreigners, less – Russian speaking inhabitants of Latvia;
- Office staff of organizations placed near by retail places of organic products.

In the industrial market of organic products in Latvia demand mostly formed by procurement of vegetables, meet and poultry products for canteens and restaurants.

Part of the value which society places on organic farming might be estimated in terms of consumers' willingness to pay more for organically produced food.

Market surveys of consumer demand for organically produced food consistently overstate willingness to pay when compared with actual buying behavior. (Lampkin, et al., 1994)

When analyzing consumer willingness to pay in Latvia, it was found that under the probability of 95 % close to 72 % of consumers would definitely purchase organic products if the prices would be for the same prices as conventional products, and only 13 % of respondents are willing to pay more for organic products. Hereof could be assumed that in Latvia consumers who would buy organic products for higher prices than conventional in actual buying behavior are less than estimated 13 %.

That could be explained also by consumers' purpose of purchase - 57 % of consumers would like to buy products for everyday consumption and 6 % would buy organic products for special meals or celebrations.

Experts' observations reflect that also in actual behavior people mostly buy organic products for everyday consumption, and sometimes they are looking for some kind of eco-products buying such products as tea, honey, also imported products as coffee, supplements etc.

3. Recognition of Organic Brands in Latvia

Consumers build decisions depending on different food attributes and consumers desire to get trustful information about food. The products label is the most powerful mean of informing consumers about the attributes of products, and that attributes will come to mind when consumer think about a brand, for example, in response to marketing activity. Therefore strong consumers' knowledge on organic label must be built.

But almost all experts in the interview mentioned that consumers in Latvia do not know exactly which the right organic brand is; mostly they confuse it with other quality representing brands – more often with such conventional products' brands as “Qualitative Product – Latvia”, “Daugava” etc.

To organize effective communication target audience must be analyzed at first to assess the current image of the product. Image is the set of beliefs, ideas, and impressions a person holds regarding an object. People's attitudes and actions toward an object are highly conditioned by that object's image.

The first step is to measure the target audience's knowledge of the object, using the familiarity scale: never heard of, heard of only, know a little bit, know a fair amount, know very well. The respondents who are familiar with the product can be asked how they feel toward it, using

favorability scale: very unfavorable, somewhat unfavorable, indifferent, somewhat favorable, and very favorable. (Kotler, 2000)

Target audience of organic products in Latvia was asked about their familiarity with and attitudes toward brand established by Association of Latvian Organic Agriculture “Latvijas Ekoprodukts” and current EU organic farming brand “Organic Farming”. Their responses presented in the Figure 2. Organic brand “Latvijas Ekoprodukts” has quite positive image, but challenge is to build greater awareness of this brand. The EU brand “Organic Farming” is viewed positively by those who know it, but not too many people know it, and this brand must also attract the attention of more people. This is expected in both cases: if the design of EU organic brand will be changed or not at the end of year 2008.

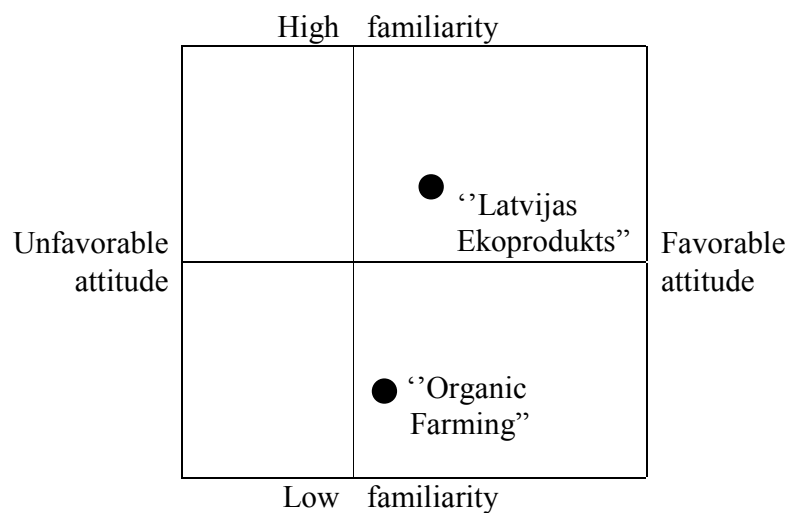


Figure 2. Familiarity – Favorability Analysis of Organic Brands in Latvia
Data source: Survey results

The former experience of the Western European countries testifies, that more popular are brands, which are financially supported by state. For example, national organic brand in Denmark "Statskontrolleret økologisk" is recognized by all consumers and this country shows the one of the highest sales rates per person in Europe. (Willer, et al., 2004)

4. Marketing Communication Relation to Consumers Attitude towards Organic Products

To make organic food more attractive to consumers, the communication policy must focus more strongly on quality related issues. An appropriate communication should firstly be based on informing consumers about the extra quality values of organic food. Secondly, it should focus on identified key quality attributes and thirdly it should use producers as multipliers or well-informed salesperson for authentic quality communication. In addition whenever stories and images showing

the life, the happiness and the problems of organic farmers and their production make the organic sector more visible, consumers feel mostly emotional loaded and therefore attracted to organic food. (Bodini A., et al., 2006)

Investigation of consumers' knowledge structures shows that main associations with organic products are those: healthy, pure, without chemicals, expensive and natural. In comparison with similar survey conducted by "Marketing House" Ltd. at 2004, association "expensive" became more actual within the last three years. Since the price level of organic products in comparison to conventional products has not been changed in a last years that is the result of positioning of organic products as high quality specialty products.

Modern society changes the understanding of luxury things, since more frequently time, attention, space, peacefulness, environment, safety and interest becomes a deficit in our lives. Products, which can satisfy these needs, become luxuries. (Imshineckaja, 2006)

Organic products and related services in this understanding will satisfy the need for safety (health concerns), provide the natural environment (furniture, clothes, cosmetics from natural materials), as well as interest – tourism and all unusual and curiosity causing things on farms or in retail places.

To evaluate if consumers in Latvia link organic products with luxury things, respondents were asked to agree or disagree with certain statements.

In the attitude to organic products between Latvian consumers dominate following opinions:

- Organic products are safe to people's health (in comparison, this opinion was not observed in the survey of "Marketing House" at 2004);
- Organic products embody philosophy of environmentally friendly lifestyle;
- Organic products have much higher nutritional value than other products;
- Organic products are especially healthy for children;

Hereof appear that in Latvia organic products have features of luxury goods in terms of products safety and environment. But there is also one negative trend in the attitude of consumers – many of them mentioned that they are not sure that organic products are strictly controlled by authority institutions. That means also that loyalty to organic products is not very high in Latvia.

Regarding trust to different distribution channels most of consumers pointed out supermarkets as most trustful place to buy organic products, followed by specialty shops, than open markets, but less trustful way to purchase organic products seems to be online ordering with direct deliveries of organic products to consumer households.

To analyze typical consumers purchase behavior, they were asked also to specify how often they obtained different kind of organic products within the last year. Answers to this question show that more often consumers bought organic vegetables, fruits, flour, honey and eggs, and rarer – organic meat. But in common consumers still obtain organic products quite seldom.

Besides consumers mentioned lack of organic food in catering companies as one of disadvantages in the distribution of organic products. At the same time experts in organic production indicated that growing demand from the shops and exporters primary reduces farmers' supply to few catering service companies, because of difficulties to carry regularly small amount of products to few canteens and restaurants.

5. Effectiveness of Organic Products Promotion

To evaluate which of the marketing communication activities were most effective within the promotion campaign consumers were asked to point out where they have faced with information about organic products within the first year of campaign.

Results of survey reveal that larger part of consumers get know about organic products on fair trade activities and watching television. Significant role in promotional campaign played information in newspapers and on exhibitions. Quite effective in communication were also online information and information in periodicals. Advertising and public relation activities on radio, posters, brochures and souvenirs mentioned as least effective communication. Some of consumers mentioned that they received information about organic products from their relatives or friends.

Results of consumers' survey are similar to the results of expert interview – most effective promotion campaign methods were fair trade and information on television, which actually are most appropriate channels to reflect foodstuff characteristics in the most favorable way.

Conclusions

1. Organic farming in Latvia still progress within the growth stage, but further development of market could be negatively affected by increasing demand for raw materials, seed and stock from external markets.
2. Consumers prefer shopping organic products in supermarkets rather than in specialty shops or open markets.
3. Consumers in Latvia do not recognize well national brand of organic products, but even less known is the EU organic brand, besides mostly consumers confuse these brands with other quality representing brands.

4. Organic products have features of luxury goods in terms of products safety and environment, but consumers in Latvia have low loyalty to organic products and obtain them quite seldom.
5. Demand for organic products notably increased within the last period when intensive promotion campaign took place in Latvia. Most effective marketing communication methods of organic products were presented on fair trade, advertising and public relation activities on television.

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MECHANISMS OF INVESTMENT PROCESSES REGULATION IN UKRAINIAN REGIONS AT CURRENT STAGE

МЕХАНІЗМИ РЕГУЛЮВАННЯ ІНВЕСТИЦІЙНИХ ПРОЦЕСІВ У РЕГІОНАХ УКРАЇНИ НА СУЧАСНОМУ ЕТАПІ

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Introduction

Market conditions management and the dynamics of Ukrainian economy in 1999-2007 determine the new requirements to investments in social and economic development. During economic recessions top-priority task was to increase the investment volume. It was necessary for restraining production decreases and providing minimal social assurances for the people. Present day economic conditions are strengthening through significant and quality investment activities. This research elaborates on the investment process regulation mechanisms in Ukraine and Ukrainian regions.

Methodology

The research is based upon the fundamental regulations of economic theory as proposed by national and international economists in identifying problems in modern regional management and investment policies. The investigation compares theoretical generalizations, analyses practice using statistical methods in order to understand the structural and territorial proportions within the investment sphere.

Results

In order to continue the structural transformations on innovative basis, it will be necessary to implement progressive forms of investment resource realization. The basic challenges for the providing the balanced development of the Ukrainian regions in the investment context were determined. The directions and tasks of investment process regulation mechanisms on regional level in Ukraine were discussed; it was decided that a transfer to the investment-innovative socially oriented model of economical development needs:

- to create the region's investment image promotion conception through information space;
- to accept the innovations as investment resources formation effectiveness and expediency criterion;
- to optimize the financial and legal' securing of investments;
- to stimulate investments in human resources development.

In the article were offered the measures directed to state investment effectiveness increase, through concentrating resources in highly developed technological projects in priority spheres of economy. "Contractual Culture" perspectives were suggested, to optimize investment resource allocation based on a bilateral agreement signed between the central/state authority and the regional/local authorities.

Conclusions

According to the peculiarities and contradictions of investment processes into Ukrainian regions, the following conclusions were made:

- it is necessary to interest social capital in the regions' financial problem solving,
- it is important to develop local authority imitative,
- private investor support should increase,
- valuable investment projects should encourage commercial banks and enterprises, and
- increased investment process regulation in Ukraine regions has to consider informational, social, financial, legal, and innovative aspects of investment resource formation.

Key words: Investment, region, investment development, strategy, mechanism.

Introduction

The fundamental condition of structural transformations continuation on innovative basis is to highlight a new quality of investment process, through development and use of an adequately resourced endowment investment processes regulation mechanisms in Ukrainian regions. Ukraine's state and local authority investment roles are currently being modified and developed. National economic marketable transformations are accompanied by a gradual removal of the state's direct investment activities, reducing the centralized government's investment in a region's economy. Modern economic management conditions dictate the local authority's role to schematic planning, administrative decisions, and providing communication between private investors and other interested parties. Thus direct state investments will be limited.

Authority and enterprise functions are interchangeable now in the investment process. Investment market development and institutional structure stability lies in a decentralization of the investment process and diversification of investment sources. Attracting private financial establishment resources is a strategic priority in national economic development.

According to Global Competitiveness Reports 2007-2008 and World Investment Report 2007, Ukraine has not been able to achieve an optimal investment climate; thus, it has seemingly lost its competitive edge and attractiveness to global investors.

Research methods

The methodological basis of the research is the fundamental regulations of economic theory, works of home and foreign scientists on economy problems, modern regional management, and investment policy on national, regional and local levels. In the process of scientific investigation the following methods are used: theoretical generalization and comparison; analysis and synthesis to study scientific and practical work concerning the research theme; system-structural and comparative analysis; statistical classification method to analyze dynamics and condition of structural and territorial investment proportions.

Results

It is absolutely necessary to consider strong regional development and choose optimum territorial development strategies, in order to influence state reform implementation and to guarantee transformation continuation.

Preliminary analysis of Ukraine's regional investment processes determined that inherent dangers and problems are hindering balanced regional economic development:

- Substantial disproportionate regional factors when attracting foreign investments, to wit: almost 32.4% of direct foreign investments are concentrated in the capital city Kyiv, where

there are higher consumer demands and higher economic activity levels (State Statistics Committee of Ukraine, 2008).

The greatest investment volumes were received by financial, credit, and insurance economic sectors. Foreign investors gave the advantage to larger projects, thus creating trading and hotel networks predominantly in the capital city Kyiv.

- Interregional and intraregional competitions are increasing and are evenly presented in all regions, namely in the food industries, trading, and financial sectors, because these three are very attractive to foreign investors. Foreign investment's overwhelming concentration in highly-profitable, speedy payback, and/or low-technological national economic sectors, may impede the existent industrial economic structure.
- Foreign investment inflow is involved with two constituents, namely returning Ukrainian capital from foreign areas and retrieving small-to-middle scale capital which is vested in personal partnerships and joint ventures. Capital restoration may be considered an indicator of Ukraine's economic investment attractiveness.
- High liquidity sectors are characterized as attractive to the investor. Sector interest rates which are connected with gross national product redistribution are greater than with industry or agriculture. Financial system instability and inflation are risks which could result from excessive consumer demands over existing supplies.
- Direct foreign investment to improve an economic technological structure is relatively insignificant, to wit: mechanical engineering investments diminished from 3.7% in 2006 to 1.2% in 2007. Additionally, in 2007, direct foreign industrial investments increased mainly in the extractive industry, increasing from 8.6% to 31.0% in total, from all direct foreign investment to the industrial sector (State Statistics Committee of Ukraine, 2008). Consequently, a low-technological economical orientation and raw materials' production orientation is strengthened by attracting direct foreign investments. Direct foreign investments make a country unattractive for hi-tech economic production investments.

Ukraine must consider investment needs and effective possibilities to use it. The balance depends on the influence of a comprehensive administrative system, in particular a system that is organizational, informational, and legal. The main task in investment regulation is to provide transition to a new economical development model, development of which will take place under a purposeful investment influence and innovations for positive perceptible structural changes. In our view, investment development directions and governance measures have to include informational

space, financial and legal support, and human capital for scientific and technological advancements (Figure 1).

One of the most effective steps for competitiveness in the international investment market is to provide good infrastructural services, mainly furnishing cost cutting measures for investors. This is something which is often not included in direct investment project expenses. Effective instruments for successful project realization can be state assistance to the investors about the investment process and regional investment strategies. Regardless of quality and augmentation, we think that only large-scale information support will produce good results.

In spite of advancements, providing investment activity information at the regional level still needs improvement. Informational infrastructure development should include: creation of data banks corresponding to investor's needs, permanent monitoring of foreign, national, and regional investment markets, and data processing along with information dissemination about legislative alterations. These directions can be given by special regional information centers.

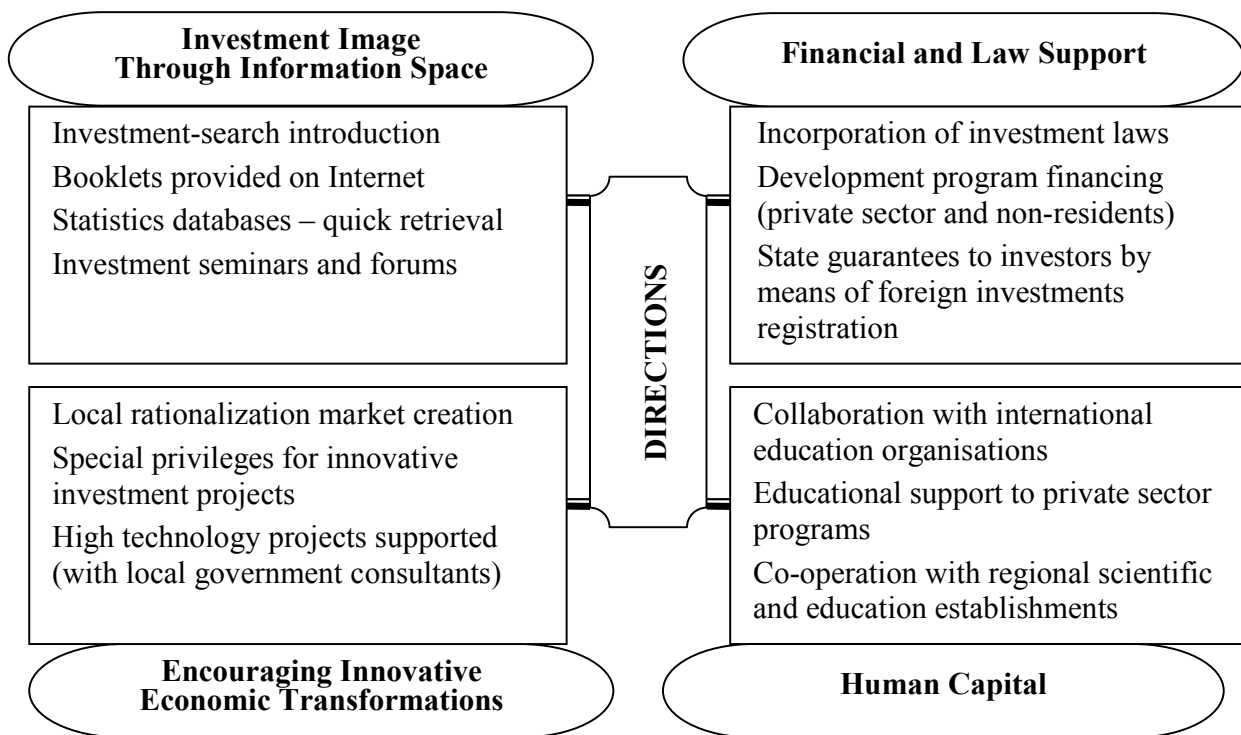


Figure 1. Cooperation and Partnership of Local Government, Business and Community

The existing information vacuum can be filled by forming and spreading promotional materials about registration procedure sequences and about legislative investment processes in the country and specific region, e.g. “Guide-Book of Investors” “Administrative Guide”.

Investment openness (transparency) may be achieved through: free access and specific information about the property proposed for privatization or concession, participation of leading regional enterprises in international exhibitions and fairs, drafting of catalogues about investment projects, and systematic periodic international publications about Ukrainian investment possibilities and Ukrainian economic development.

Discussions, about investment prospects and innovative regional developments among potentially interested investment process participants, are relevant to a realization of adequate information principles. In particular, the Ukrainian practice of conducting forums exists in: “Investment Possibilities of the Cherkasy Region” (Cherkasy Regional State Administration, 2008) – “International Fair of Investments and Real Estate, Ukraine-EU” (“Gal-EXPO” JSC, 2008) – “Investment Forum of the Mykolaiv Region” – “Investment Development of Regions through International Collaboration” (Mykolaiv Regional State Administration, 2008). These forums assist and attract investments to the regional economy by developing external economic links, by searching for new partners, and by forming an attractive regional investment image which is based on positive publicity and transparency principles.

Ukraine needs to maximize its managerial and legal support of investors and businesses by building and expanding a consulting network for investment planning and for project management, and by providing references to local authority’s infrastructure. This will demonstrate public interest to potential investors. Various regional statistical elements and investment infrastructures could be established, depending on the needs and unique attributes of each region or each organization.

In our view, the local authorities’ basic functions could include the following activities: conducting auctions and tenders, participating in exhibitions, investment project competitions, national goal-oriented programs, supporting export-oriented enterprises, placing orders with subsequent output redemptions, combining direct and indirect investments, supporting small-scale enterprises, granting tax rebates and credit facilities, financing low-percentage bond issues, and composing registers of active investors to aid in investment networking. It is also necessary to create regional clusters of bank and credit organizations because mobility and an effective use of the regional financial potential broadens all investment activities and balances financial flows.

“Contractual regional policy” efficiency is conditioned by a combination of local and central authority providing regions with resources for measures support that is directed toward balanced regional development. In this context, agreements about regional development should become the new instrument of regional policy. Ukrainian law “About Promotion of Regional Development” envisages these kinds of agreements (Laws of Ukraine, 2005).

“Contractual Culture” is a result of applying agreements to regional development; this would be instrumental in a central and local authority concentration of efforts and resources. Co-ordination of actions while forming investment resources will ensure investment-meaningful regional projects. “Contractual Regional Policy” efficiently may achieve an amalgamation of common financing measures as well as videlicet amalgamation of investment resources in state or local budgets and in other sources in accordance with existing legislation.

As an example, we cite private sector resources and international technical aid. Investment priorities about “contractual culture” give possibilities for freely unifying local budgets in territorial societies within the limits of one or more regions. Actually a “contractual culture” provides considerations for a central governmental authority, local authorities, territorial societies, and real partners/businessmen to achieve investments within a regional economy. Investments which apply an agreement and regulations system at the regional level will have the following positive consequences:

- State financial aid will be concentrated on the priorities in regional investment development, not on the existing sectorized distribution of budget resources. Regional priority investment projects will be the object of regional development agreements.
- Different executive powers and local authorities will co-operatively be strengthened by jointly determined measures which would use regional investment advantages.
- Pre-conditions for long-term budget planning (minimum three years) will be created, giving an opportunity to define and develop local budgets for the realizations of investment-meaningful regional projects.
- Information about “contractual culture” and “partnerships” will need manpower coverage. It will be necessary to raise the quality of professional training for regional and local management systems. This is important for strengthening local authorities’ role in regional and local development. A system of educational institutions and centers with special requirements must qualify administrative servants at local public service centers.

Conclusions

1. Regions are being transmuted from objects of management to subjects of management. At the current stage of Ukrainian economic development, policies that combine implementation and development of regional economies by attracting different investment resources is very significant.

2. Ukraine's regional peculiarities, investment formulations, and contradictions show the necessity to activate social capital introductions, showing the importance of and increasing local authorities' investment initiatives and private investor support. Ukraine must solve regional financial problems, shape necessary amortization factors, and finally, unify commercial banks and enterprises involved in regional investment projects.
3. Stimulating perspectives and setting directions (measures) of innovative-investment development mechanisms is necessary in order to secure new regional economic investment conditions. Directions (measures) must intensify regional informational, social, financial, legal and innovative aspects of investment resource formation.

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IMPACT OF CULTURAL TOURISM UPON REGIONAL CULTURE: COMMUNICATION PERSPECTIVE

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to discuss the impact of cultural tourism upon regional culture from the communication perspective. Experiencing cultural difference is one of the fundamental motivators for travel and for international tourists. Communication becomes a source of enrichment for both tourists and hosts. Different cultural backgrounds of tourists and hosts can hinder the flow of communication. Host communities' attempts to make the cultural experience tourist-friendly help to prevent some communication problems. On the other hand the way culture is communicated and services for tourists are organized condition unexpected changes in the regional culture. Research done on the exploration of Dzūkija national park in the field of cultural tourism has revealed the existence of an escalating conflict between the locals and the tourism marketers. The core of the conflict lies on two extremes. First, the locals urge to preserve the authentic culture not so easily assimilated by tourists. And second, the insistence of cultural tourism marketers on the presentation of culture in a tourist-friendly way. Thus, in some degree communication as a tool for understanding and enrichment becomes rather an obstacle than an aid.

Keywords: tourism, communication, culture, intercultural experience

The intensive development in the means of communication is bringing about a qualitative change modern communication, ranging from mediated to immediate or direct communication. And though communication means such as television, books and magazines enable us to know the world without even leaving our bedroom, people would still take the chance to travel and see the world with their own eyes thus experiencing variety by themselves. The ever improving communication means make travelling accessible practically to everyone. The mere statistical data about the increasing number of tourists and the greater variety of itineraries is more than an eloquent proof of how popular travelling is becoming nowadays. Tourism development is increasingly taking a prioritized position amongst other several items in most the agendas for regional development plans.

Entering a new environment and another culture, seeing and experiencing its otherness are some of the main stimuli that inspire tourists to travel to faraway destinations, or even to close but unexplored ones. C. J. Steiner's and Y. Reisinger's (2004) refer to this phenomenon by stating that tourists would set off seeking to experience something new, and the hosts would in due turn try their best to please the slightest wish and satisfy tourists' needs and desires, so that they discover and accept that novelty. The tourists' search for new experiences and the hosts' effort to help it succeed

thus become the basis of communication between these two agents. Evidently, the existence of such fundament on which communication is built makes the process much easier and it encourages mutual cooperation and adaptation to the each other's needs and expectations. This is essential if communication is understood not only as a mere exchange of information, but rather as process in which the participants create information and share it to reach mutual understanding (Rogers, Kincaid, 1981).

Such approach towards communication allows us to dismiss the arguable obstacle that each participant undergoes a specific experience, which could hinder successful communication. This kind of communication is rewarding for both sides. On the one hand, tourists do get to know something new. At the same time, the hosts have to prepare to render suitable service, which will in due course condition and influence changes in the communication process. Tourists are proving to be more and more keen on visiting places of historical interest, cultural landmarks, enjoying enticing scenery, getting acquainted with a different lifestyle and ancient customs of the local heritage. This is not only beneficial for the tourists meeting the locals, but for the latter as well. The ordinary life of the local community or host region undergoes a certain cultural revival, as the locals are encouraged to get involved in useful activities, to recreate and preserve the specific cultural heritage that ancestors have passed on and entrusted to them. This may serve as a means to revitalize or reinforce the cultural identity of the host community.

However, there seems to be at present a question that is increasingly being discussed: should local culture be adapted to tourism, or rather tourism is tailored according to what the local culture may offer? (Craik, 1997). In the context of intensifying communication processes, there are no grounds to state that tourism means an idyllic and carefree way to get acquainted with novelties. Tourists arriving in their scheduled destinations undergo quite a different cultural experience, which in fact may entail a real hindrance to the knowledge of the host culture. Thus, all kind of efforts are made in order to satisfy tourists' needs and desires, and make their cultural awareness as tourist friendly as possible. Tourists are temporary visitors; they spend too short a time to be able to plunge deeper into particular features of the local culture. On the other hand, Cohen (2004) states that the locals, may be so eager to attract tourists that they would willingly adapt to them demanding no adaptation from visitors. This undoubtedly influences the process of preparation for consumption in the most natural and ordinary spheres of life, which can be potentially attractive to tourists. The local culture then becomes an essential example for any other goods meant for tourists' consumption. For instance, national costumes, traditions, festivals and folk art are all turned into services rendered to tourists who would purchase or consume them as marketed goods. Such development in tourism

may do real harm to the local culture insofar as such transformations alter the very content of cultural products and cultural expressions, because by being turned into marketed goods, these cultural items lose their original content. Nevertheless, this is not the only negative outcome of the communication encouraged by tourism. Consumerism obliterates the authenticity of local culture, the interpersonal relations and well-being of people and cultural products. And, in the opinion of Cohen (2004), local culture is threatened by the danger of becoming meaningless to the locals to whom this authentic culture was up to then an inherent part of their everyday life.

The studies of intercultural communication in the field of tourism are so far more oriented towards the research on the effects of tourism on culture, and the problem of commodification is often stressed. However little attention is devoted to the potential conflict between the local population and tourism developers, bearing in mind that such conflict is conditioned by the different approach to cultural communication for tourists.

Using attempts to develop cultural tourism in Dzūkija national park as a case study the attempt to discuss the connection between culture commodification and the change of the role of local people in the communication process.

Ever since the times of the great wars, during and after them, the agricultural development in the Dzūkija region has been rather limited due to unfertile soil. That is why the agricultural sector here did not undergo significant collectivisation. Thus, nature remained virtually untouched, and so did the village unpaved ways and most particularly the inhabitants who still remember and cherish old time countryside traditions, arts and crafts. However, the villages of Dzūkija National Park, the same as all other Lithuanian villages, are going through difficult times now. Young people seek to move to towns and cities, so in most cases only the elderly would stay to live in the countryside. The oldest villages are rapidly disappearing due to this shortage of inhabitants. For example, the frequently visited village of Zervynai is still called the village of widows. Old villagers would tend to live till their last days in their home village, whereas most of their younger relatives (children and grandchildren) have already moved to live in towns. There is one more process taking place in Dzūkija National Park at the moment: the remaining homesteads are far from standing abandoned and empty. Many city dwellers and artists coming from other regions looking for the piece and quiet of the countryside would spot them and willingly buy these country houses to make of them their place of rest and holiday in a beautiful rural area.

Dzūkija National Park is one of the most attractive Lithuanian regions for the development of cultural tourism. It is unique because of its nature and the historical, ethnographic and cultural heritage. Besides, the conception for the expansion of this park is precisely related to the

development of cultural tourism, to building entertainment centres for visitors, enhancing local arts and crafts. The development of tourism in Dzūkija National Park is not so aggressive yet. For example, Musteika village, where theme seminars are held, is visited by an average of 300 tourists per year, whereas Marcinkoniai visitors centre received 4405 visitors in 2007, out of which 3294 were Lithuanian nationals and 1111 foreigners.

In order to develop cultural tourism, in 2006 the municipality of Varėna district in cooperation with Varėna information centre for tourism and business prepared and implemented a project called „Theme village: new possibilities for business, tourism and culture in the borderline regions“. Three of villages in this region, namely Dargužiai, Subartonys ir Senoji Varėna have already chosen a theme and begun to develop them. Dargužiai is little by little becoming a village known for its varieties of cheese, Subartonys is centring its activities in a classical figure of Lithuanian literature: Vincas Krėvė-Mickevičius by presenting his main works and his native town, while Senoji Varėna, the birthplace of composer and artist Konstantinas Mikalojus Čiurlionis is focusing on the dissemination of his music and plastic artistic pieces. Such theme specialization is not unusual, since traditionally, many villages in Dzūkija National Park are associated with old traditions and closely connected to certain topics. This is the case of such villages as Zakavoliai, Pakeliškė, Maksimoniai, whose locals are well-known black potters, or Zervynai, famous for its wooden architecture, Margionys for its Barn theater.

The emergence of theme villages, whether its conception is acceptable and in accordance with the mentioned region, is a clear reflection of the tendency to adapt the local culture to tourism. On the other hand, such specialization simplifies communication, as it facilitates the work of tourist information centres, the customized release of information sheets, promotional leaflets and booklets. Ultimately, it makes information more easily accessible and acceptable for the potential customers, as information is presented in a more comprehensible style that tries to meet the final users' expectations.

Making culture a marketed good subject to consumerism constitutes one of the most serious problems currently examined by scientists when they discuss the development of tourism and its influence on culture. Tourism is inseparable from the search and purchase of souvenirs. Amongst one of the reasons why tourists have a misconception of culture souvenirs must be mentioned, since these are usually a result of mass production and bear little or no resemblance with the real local culture. Dzūkija National Park is special precisely because there are many craftsmen still living there, so souvenirs in this case are the fruit of local craftsmen labour. Tourist information centres in this region would readily recommend that tourists visit local craftsmen's homesteads as places of

interest. However, villagers would thus refuse to produce and sell simple souvenirs (**kitsch**) to the unlearned tourists. Evidently, producing an authentic handmade craftwork would take much longer and a much more complicated process and such work would be far from what the ordinary tourists would be ready to pay.

There is still one more factor of tourism that has a certain impact on culture, and that is the increase in scenic culture. Local festivals and other events are specially organized for tourists. Local people then would play a role in them rather than simply be participants in such events, as they would do if such event were not meant for visitors. In the case of Dzūkija region, singing must be mentioned, as there are lots of ethnographic ensembles, and group singing is a very typical and still cherished feature, both while performing agricultural tasks, as well as on the special occasions and festivals. Of course the chance to witness the authentic singing culture is naturally not an easy pursuit that is why the singing heritage is presented through concerts where ethnographic ensembles perform for the occasion. There are several villages such as Marcinkonys, Dargužiai, Subartony, and Senoji Varėnos where local communities would agree to perform upon previous notice. When the ethnographic ensembles are hired to organize theatrical performances for tourists, they often feel forced to adapt their programme to the needs of spectators and the audience.

Another important aspect of tourism that influences local culture is the change of occupation of local people. As tourism develops, more and more local inhabitants get involved in this industry by rendering services to tourists. And instead of living their own usual lifestyle, they start presenting it to tourists as an attraction. By so doing, both the locals and their lifestyle suffer what Cohen (2004) calls an estrangement: from being the bearers and protagonists of their own way of life, villagers become its mere communicators. With such development of tourism in Dzūkija National Park, a conflict is escalating between natural lifestyle and its presentation to tourists. Locals who are not directly employed in the tourist service industry interact with visitors in a non-rehearsed way, as an inseparable part of their ordinary life and local culture. They do not get any benefit from this, and if they do, it is insignificant. After all, these villagers have been taken away from their daily occupations, their jobs and only source of income, that is why eventually some of them refuse to be included in the itinerary of visitors, as a way of protecting their right to privacy and their work.

Local people are still prone to lead their life as they usually did rather than be actively involved in the tourism industry, which they do not feel familiar with, nor would they get involved as performers of a show that is far from depicting their real lifestyle. They consider tourism as an opportunity to let tourists get acquainted with the local way of life without causing too much

disturbance to the natural rhythm of village life, rather than demanding from locals a radical change of lifestyle. Villagers would more willingly welcome individual visitors coming as guests to their homesteads, rather than a whole cohort of massive tourism. They would readily accept tourists who are interested in spending some time with them, with craftsmen who could teach them their trade, for instance, how to weave, to decorate Easter eggs with wax and dyes, etc. In their opinion, it would be a great idea to create a kind of cottage tourism, so that those who really care for the Dzūkija culture may come with their families and stay at a famous craftsman's, or at with any other local family, where visitors would have the chance to try homemade traditional Dzūkija dishes, then the host could take the guests to the forest and pick mushrooms or berries.

From the point of view of the local people, it is not right to force craftsmen to perform in the eyes of tourists just to please them, if their crafts are of no need to them. However, this is impossible to perform in one hour, though this is what the modern tourist expects: to see and experience it all in a short time and the most simple way possible. But then they would never see the live process, for which nobody seems to care anymore. The remaining able-bodied village population simply cannot make a living out of tourism, they have to work and not just perform for tourists. Otherwise they will not survive. Unfortunately, such slow pace lifestyle and access to local culture is not in accordance with the modern tourists' expectations and possibilities.

And as it has been already said, even though this development of tourism in Dzūkija National park is not so aggressive, it requires mutual cooperation and understanding from both sides, the locals, who are the bearers of the authentic local culture, and the tourists. And if communication is understood in broader terms than a process of information Exchange, then the following aspects about communication are to be considered: (1) mutual influence of the participants in the communication and (2) mutual consistency of the participants in the communication consideration of each other's expectations and possibilities.

Conclusions

1. Conflict between the local population and tourism developers takes place, bearing in mind that such conflict is conditioned by the different approach to cultural communication for tourists and to the role of local people in the communication process.
2. The preservation of rich and live local particularity on the one hand, and the simplified presentation of such treasure to a temporary visitor on the other, is tasks that prove quite hard to reconcile. The feasibility of such hardly reconcilable questions forces us to make a choice in favour of one of one of them: either to present the live and authentic culture, thus

requiring great efforts and time from the tourists or to offer a kind of ready-made and consumerist model of the local culture in an attractive, fast and easy way marketed as such just for the tourist.

3. When live and authentic culture is presented, the local population remains bearers of the authentic local culture. They stay apart from communication process and are part of the message about the local culture, whereas tourists are enforced to be active and prepared communicators, able to pick proper message and to understand it in a proper way. When consumerist model is chosen, local people become mere communicators, performing according to a scenario, a lifestyle that bears almost no resemblance with theirs.

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DEVELOPING OF SERVICES' AVAILABILITY IN RURAL AREAS OF LATVIA

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Abstract

The development of Latvia agriculture after accession to the European Union has imposed fundamental shift resulting in both positive tendencies in rural areas and ambiguity for farmers. Wider markets for Latvian agricultural products on the one hand are challenging for a number of ventures and enterprising producers, but on the other hand continuous changes in legislation regulating entrepreneurship and directives of the European Union discourage almost every farmer without regard to their scale of production, as it requires immediate reaction from their side and particular knowledge in areas, which often have very little in common with conventional agricultural production and farm management.

At present awareness and compliance with regulations regarding food quality, hygiene and animal welfare mainly depend on farmer's own initiative and financial potentialities. The main provider of advisory services and further education in Latvia is Latvian Rural Advisory and Training Centre (henceforth LAAC), which since its establishment is gradually moving from a "product driven" to a "market-led" approach.

The purpose of there research work was to perform analysis of LAAC services and detect the present existing gaps in services' provision; define the main reasons hindering efficient co-operation between farmers and advisory centres; as well as suggest the ways how to improve the delivery of LAAC services.

Key-words: access, availability, service provision.

Introduction

Important turning point for Latvia was its accession to the EU in 2004, which resulted in adopting the EU normative acts, inter alia requirements regulating agricultural activities. At the same time support mechanisms were changed with establishing single area payments' structural measures. One of the claimed basic benefits in the period before and after the accession to the EU was increasing support which would be donated to Latvian farmers and following growth of economics and prosperity. Consequently that was implemented according to the first programming period 2004-2006 main priorities: uptake support appropriations assigned by the EU and organize agricultural development to integrate successfully in the EU common agricultural policy. Now the second programming period requires continuing facilitation of rural development according to the country's rural development strategy. Therefore the Ministry of Agriculture has prepared middle term political planning document "Latvia Rural Development National Strategy Plan 2007-2013". If in the period from 2004-2006 the main strategic purpose was to acquire the EU financial support, then in the second programming period 2007-2013 rural development itself takes the central role in the Rural Development Strategy. Rural Development Strategy is focused on enhancing prosperity of rural population, promoting projects connected with social support, which of course are highly

important, however development of agriculture as industry of national economy, providing production of agricultural products and provision of its related services (Law “For Agriculture and Rural Development”, 2004) has become less important and less prior.

Therefore, creating a single understanding for future rural development of Latvia, the document highlights an objective “prosperous people in sustainably populated countryside of Latvia” – which is a rather vague concept. For the achievement of the objective the following four activity directions have been identified:

- Development of Capacities of Rural People;
- Enhancement of Labour Generated Income in Rural Territories;
- Sustainable Management of Rural Natural Resources;
- Development of Rural Living Environment.

However, it is difficult to detect why exactly these mentioned needs conform to the mentioned objective. Besides, several essential problems have not been included in the part of needs. For example, in the chapter regarding development of agricultural industry of Latvia, the increase of competitiveness of agricultural sector is mentioned as overall need. Assuredly the competitiveness of agricultural sector (ability to stand the competition with agricultural products) is important factor for the development of agricultural industry, however according to opinion of Experts’ group (Dr. Danute Jasjko, Dr. Lauri Kettunen, Dr. Vulfs Kozlinskis, Dr. Irina Pilvere, 2006), several sectors of agricultural industry at the moment are in such development stage that they do stand competition with their production and consequently it is important factor but not the one which at present hinders the development of agricultural industry. More hindering factor could be lack of knowledge about the latest production methods and technologies, management skills and limited access to the capital.

Access and availability are crucial factors in agricultural industry like in any other industry of today. Unlike geographical market of the last industrial period, which was formed by independent and autonomous traders and purchasers who were involved in discrete and independent deals, the age of access provides sophisticated, interdependent networks of communications, which provide entrepreneurs with possibilities to achieve their targets unitedly, joining their forces. Currently suppliers and consumers establish contacts in order to exchange both their material and intangible resources – information and experts’ opinions, since they recognize that joining forces will ensure greater opportunities for their enterprises to achieve their targets (Rifkin J., 2004). The sociologist

Manuel Castell from California university in Barclay considers that there will be five main networks in the future entrepreneurship:

- Suppliers' networks, where entrepreneurs will agree on accomplishment of a particular order or delivery of raw materials;
- Manufacturers' networks, where companies will unify their production capacities, financial resources and human resources in order to offer wider range of products and services, expand their geographical markets and reduce possible risks;
- Consumers' networks, which will connect manufacturers and distributors of goods with marketing channels;
- Standard coalitions, which will amalgamate as many one sphere enterprises, as possible;
- Technological cooperation networks, which will provide enterprises with possibilities to exchange with valuable knowledge and get acquainted with experts' opinions in order to analyze product lines and promote their development (Castells M., 1996).

As a serious drawback for Latvian entrepreneurs' opportunities to use these networks is lack of knowledge and inability to establish international contacts. Because of inability to communicate in the international network, entrepreneurs lack cooperation in information exchange and development of economic activities. Lack of technical expertise hinders Latvian entrepreneurs become equivalent and respectable partners in producers' coalitions.

Nowadays it is important that all entrepreneurs involved in agricultural activities are provided with possibility to improve their knowledge, master new skills, e.g. for re-orientation to qualitative production, which often is the only possibility to survive in the competitive conditions.

Lack of contemporary knowledge in business area, area of agriculture, production engineering and lately area of international communication has given a push for rural entrepreneurs to start up studies at Latvia University of Agriculture, become customers of LAAC, and attend different courses and studies available in their parishes, become members of organizations that represent interests of rural entrepreneurs, as well as look for other opportunities where they could acquire knowledge about topical issues.

Regulation No.1783/2003 of Council of Europe defines that all EU member states, including Latvia, have to establish their household advisory services' system. This is necessary to help the farmers to meet modern and high quality agricultural standards related to environment and animal protection, plant protection and food harmlessness, animal well-being and good agricultural and environment conditions (Regulation No.1783/2003 of Council of Europe).

On 9th May 2005 European Agriculture Guidance and Guarantee Fund approved National program „Establishment of rural advisory and farms' extension service” and its project „Establishment of rural farms advisory system” (furthermore -Project). In Latvia the recipient of the project finance was LAAC. The total amount of the project was Ls 2 151 756 (Latvia Rural Development Plan for Implementation of Rural Development program 2004-2006).

LAAC with its 26 regional offices is the largest provider of rural advisory services in Latvia countryside. Rural entrepreneurs can receive there help in problems connected with agricultural and non-agricultural entrepreneurship, including project development for receiving of support from the EU structural funds, applications for loans to be received from banks and compiling of business plans (LAAC website www.llkc.lv). The direct purpose of the Project was to increase capacity of LAAC in order to adjust agricultural activities to the standards of European Community related to environment protection, hygiene, animal well-being and good agricultural practice and to work out computer software for management of farms and agro environment planning and to provide availability of information for farmers in order to favour the development of economically viable farms. After the realization of the Project, the trained advisors of rural advisory offices are expected independently to provide consultations for the farmers about the standards demanded by the Council of Europe related to environment protection, hygiene and animals' well-being and good agricultural practice. Other purposes of the project were to favour the development of professional skills for those rural entrepreneurs who are involved in agricultural, forestry and other activities, which is provided by memorandum of European Parliament about the life long education. The significance of preparing the farmers for qualitative reorganization of the production was emphasized.

Methods

The descriptive method was applied to perform detailed research of LAAC services. Analytical method was applied to divide LAAC services in separate groups and perform analysis of each group. Methods for mathematic data processing were applied: the calculation of arithmetic mean and data graphic description. Experts' survey method was applied to find out rural advisors' opinion regarding existing gaps in their customer service. Logical construction method was applied in the conclusion part to present the author's conclusions about the results of the research.

Results and discussion

In order to evaluate the present availability of services the author has researched different sources of information. Firstly secondary data of marketing and public opinion research centre SKDS survey, which was organized by LAAC and SKDS in 2007 are discussed. Alongside with

many other issues about LAAC services, the question about identification of LAAC services was included in the opinion survey of Latvian farmers.

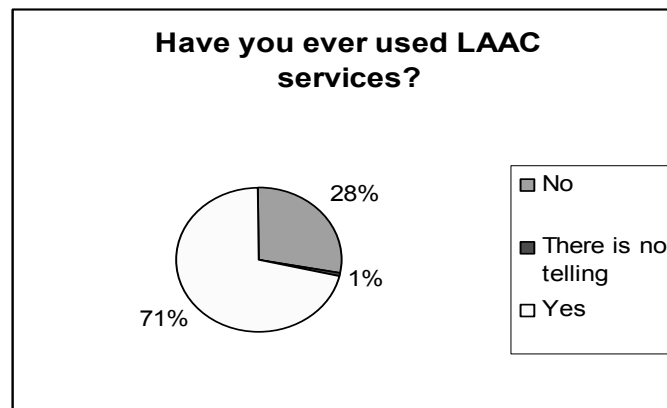


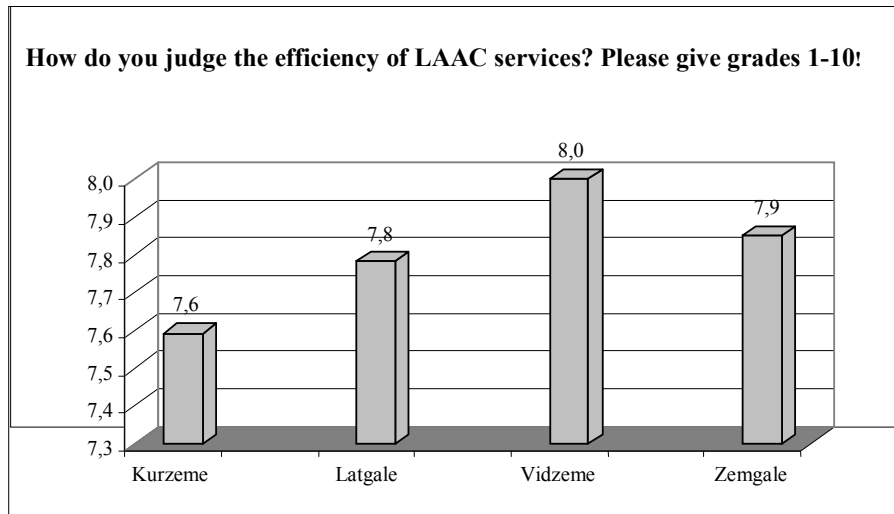
Figure 1. Survey of Latvian Producers of Agricultural Produce in 2007. Marketing and public opinion research centre SKDS data, presented by Kaktins A. in LAAC seminar “Mutual Conformity System in Latvia” on 6 November 2007

The survey results revealed that despite efforts made to promote availability of LAAC services and continuous dissatisfaction of farmers with lack of information, there is still a significant number of farmers who have never applied for advice in the nearest LAAC office. Moreover, in spite of the fact that Latvian farmers claim insufficient access to information regarding requirements defined by the EU normative acts and one of the most complicated problems has been claimed as lack of comprehension how these requirements could be met, farmers are not actively applying for a service especially elaborated for them “cross compliance”. The purpose of this service is to help farmers to evaluate their farms’ present compliance with the EU regulations regarding e.g. hygiene factors on the farm, animal breeding, organic farming etc.; and in case of discrepancy together work out a plan how to eliminate these discrepancies on the farm. It is self-evident that supervising institutions will more and more demand that these requirements are met and lack of knowledge does not release the responsibility. The main reasons of the farmers for so little initiative to co-operate with LAAC were mentioned discouraging bureaucracy procedures in these institutions or unacceptable prices for services.

The same survey revealed that the top three most often used LAAC services mentioned by the survey respondents were: training courses, accounting and preparing application for the EU support payments.

Further in the article the research data acquired in the survey organized by the author are analyzed. The sampling of respondents comprised a random choice of LAAC customers, who were economically and socially active. The research included the participants from all four planning

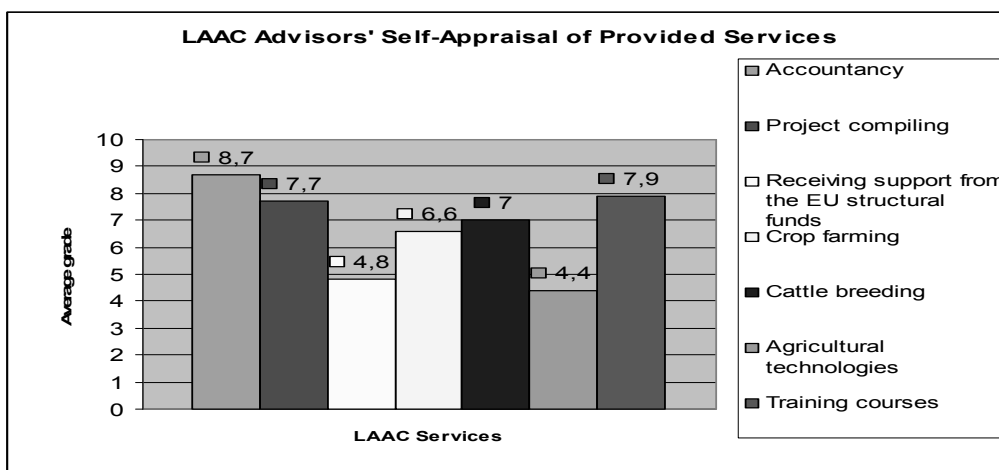
regions of Latvia – Kurzeme, (northwest), Zemgale (southern part), Vidzeme (northeast) and Latgale (southeast).



0 – none; 1 – almost useless, 2 – weak; 3 – insufficient; 4 – minimum; 5 – on average; 6 – almost good; 7 – good; 8 – very good; 9 – perfect; 10 – exceeded expectations

Figure 2. Customers' average assessment of LAAC services efficiency (grades 1-10). Source: author's research data

The average assessment of LAAC services is comparatively equal in all regions of Latvia. The assessment grades point out that there is still a lot of work to be done in order to improve the quality of the services. The most frequent reasons for customers' dissatisfaction were mentioned regarding service "Project development for receiving of support from the EU structural funds" – long queues for project compiling, which result in delays for project submission, as well as poor quality and inadequate price for project compiling.



0 – none; 1 – almost useless, 2 – weak; 3 – insufficient; 4 – minimum; 5 – on average; 6 – almost good; 7 – good; 8 – very good; 9 – perfect; 10 – exceeded expectations

Figure 3. LAAC Advisors' Self-Appraisal of provided Services (grades 1-10). Source: author's research data

Another survey to research the present availability and usefulness of LAAC services was organized involving regional LAAC advisors (specialists of different areas who have direct contact with customers).

The present experts' survey reveals that advisors themselves are less confident about their services in agricultural technology issues and issues connected with receiving support from the EU structural funds. In common with their customers, advisors are most satisfied with training courses they organize in their regional offices. However, despite of high assessment they still believe that there is a space to increase their knowledge. Most critical advisors are about the present procedure in provision of technical assistance services or advice services in agricultural technology issues. The most hindering factors mentioned by rural advisors were little possibilities to improve their qualification, lack of initiative, as well as lack of knowledge in foreign languages and marketing of services. Another interesting fact that experts' survey revealed was that 90% of respondents confirmed that the present order of service rendering must be substantially changed to a different one, putting emphasis on efficiency of customer service, information system, material and technical basis.

Conclusions

1. Despite Latvian farmers' insufficient knowledge of the requirements defined in the EU normative acts almost one third of surveyed farmers had never applied for LAAC advisory services. The main reasons hindering availability of services were claimed insufficient information and uncertainty of bureaucracy burden, as well as inability to pay the requested fee. Repeatedly informative intramural seminars, where farmers can on the site clarify all uncertainties with the representatives of LAAC and Ministry of Agriculture should be organized on regular basis.
2. The average customers' assessment of LAAC services was 7,8 grades. Almost all customers, who used agricultural profile services, gave high assessments, which points at a good forerun of these services. However, some business services like compiling of business plans and, especially project development for receiving of support from the EU structural funds, which are currently the most demanded services, are difficult to access. The main reasons of dissatisfaction were claimed long queues for project compiling, which results in delays for project submission. A transparent and efficient queue system is extremely necessary and should be provided by LAAC. Another problem, claimed by the respondents, was inconsistent quality of these services. Therefore, advisory centres should pay more attention

to the certification of their advisers and provide mechanisms how to minimize customers' risks offering them appropriate insurance services.

3. Surveyed advisors claimed their insufficient knowledge for giving advice in agricultural technology issues. Due to continuous development of quality standards and unavoidable modernization of farms, these services will be more and more promoted and demanded, therefore it is important to re-engineer the present system of this service provision in LAAC. Since it is still problematic to fill up vacancies of technical specialists in Latvia, present advisors occupying these vacancies should be regularly sent to training courses mastering IT, agricultural technology novelties and foreign languages in order to be further able unaided follow the latest trends defined by their customers' demands.
4. Since both LAAC customers and LAAC advisors claimed insufficient information access about LAAC services, deeper analysis of LAAC communication channels should be performed to find out proper ways to improve services promotion in the future. Consequently, LAAC should organize marketing research on regular basis to find out customers' needs and access to services.

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A ROLE OF CONSULTANCY IN THE RURAL SPACE DEVELOPMENT – PERCEPTION BY LOCAL PARTICIPANTS

ROLE PORADENSTVÍ V ROZVOJI VENKOVA – PŘEDSTAVY MÍSTNÍCH AKTÉRŮ

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Abstract: The main issue of this paper is problem of extension services for the Czech countryside and further on discussing the question, how and who should provide information or counselling (as extension services), which are necessary for the development of rural areas. The paper is based on two interviewed groups of respondents (as local participants/actors) by the technique of Focus Groups. The local actors are just those, who, according of principles of an endogenous approach in rural development; best understand the problems of their location. The results and conclusions of this article provide their opinions and perception of the discussed issues – the extension services and information for the Czech countryside.

Key words: extension services, information, rural areas, local actors, location

Introduction

What is a role of extension services in the Czech countryside and how „prospective” participants of rural space development perceive a role of consultancy and advisory services?

This is the central question of this paper. A theoretical determination of a conceptual framework of this paper determines first rural space, than deals with an endogenous approach, which is possible to choose for a rural space development and at the end connects to the rural space development the one, who is essential for the rural space development according to principles of an endogenous approach i.e. a participant active in a particular locality, an active participant for a development of this locality. An information (knowing), gained among others also through the medium of consultancy belongs undoubtedly among „know-how” of such a rural/local actors/participant.

There was used a qualitative approach in empirical research, accordingly with qualitative approach is this paper is based on two interviewed groups of respondents in two localities (Protivín – an area around Ceske Budejovice and Třebenice – an area around Liberec) by the technique of Focus groups.

Results and conclusions of this paper bring a basic mapping out of this problem, gained through the medium respondents’ opinions and seen by eyes of prospective participants of rural development.

A theoretical determination

RURAL SPACE includes a country as a geographical space and further a country as a social space including agriculture as an activity connected with nature, that is just typical of this space in contrast to urban space, typical rather of its activities connected with industry (HUDEČKOVÁ, LOŠŤÁK 2002).

A town and a country were at the beginning observed dichotomically by social conceptualization and terminology, by the way of polar typologies. This concept was spread at most in the 20's till the 30's especially thanks to works of F. TÖNNIESE⁷² from the end of the 19th century, but also in connection with comprehensive comparative material gathered by P. SOROKIN and C. ZIMMERMAN and other American rural sociologists of a country, who at the beginning of the 20th century examined rural communities in the USA. These and other authors for example (BECKER, DURKHEIM, WEBER and others) used dichotomic categories for societies marking of rural or urban type, in which a criterion of demographic-statistical location of population in space predominated (i.e. especially number indicators and population density in a territory), although authors used a number of further indicators, in order to line up every examined domicile to so called rural – urban continuum⁷³.

From the 70's of the 20th century the rural space begins to be accented by a perspective of a well-balanced environment (again physical and social) and also begins to be consciously respected individuality of rural space⁷⁴. It concerns an effort to perceive nature sensitively in consideration of both nature itself and recreational and medical function, further perception of socio-cultural context with regard to sustenance and development of rural subculture (personal social ties, respect towards traditions, life pace, that is not stressful and others) and at the end a perception of economic aspects, that evolve agricultural production in optimal interconnection with delivering of established services (VELKÝ SOCIOLOGICKÝ SLOVNÍK 1996). Country and its individual character (distinct from a town) is significant by its particularity, that is not distinguished exclusively by disparities and inequalities but also specialities occurring in rural space. Complicacy seen in an approach of issue solving RURAL

⁷² It is proper to mention the particular TÖNNIES'S work from the year 1887 „GEMEINSCHAFT UND GESELLSCHAFT“, for its connection with dichotomic concept, as one of the oldest concepts considering the relation town and country. Country is mentioned in comparison with town as a diverse way of social organisation in the concept.

⁷³ A principle for another of the used concepts about relation between town and country was put down this way (concept of rural – urban continuum that develops more from the 60's and dominates in the 70's) that served well to empiric research but does not overcome the starting point of opposite between town and country.

⁷⁴ The last from the concepts considering relation country and town begins to rise in this time, the most complicated from the used ones, a concept of convergence and divergence of town with country that does not suffer from simplicity and at the same time support neither country nor town. Country is in it mentioned as an equal partner and both of them have the right of independent existence. It does not deny that town dominates over country, but at the same time recognizes values of rural social space.

SPACE DEVELOPMENT must necessarily lead to interdisciplinary character of its insight. That is why this complicity is focused both as a theory of regional development (BLAŽEK, UHLÍŘ 2002), whose economic theories were and still are vital essence at the beginning (A. ZIEGLER, H. R. PETERS, H. SCHROERS a U. HAHNE in R. JEHLE 1998), and more recently (from the 70's of the 20th century) also sociological theories (P. ALLIÈS, J. P. BILLAUD, N. MATHIEU – J. MENGIN, B. KAYSER in H. HUDEČKOVÁ, R. JEHLE 1997). Two basic approaches for problems solving of regions development, the country and rural space or disadvantaged areas crystallized in the course of the time – ENDOGENOUS and EXOGENOUS. The basic principle of exogenous models is seen in possible development outgoing from environs OUTSIDE OF the location, while possible potentials for development are especially searched for WITHIN the location at endogenous models, because they dispose of specific (natural, cultural, human) resources that need to be mobilized for development.

If there was above mentioned, that the development of rural areas are complicated issues demanding an interdisciplinary approach and if there was stated, that a local development cannot otherwise function without external interventions, but also cannot originate and continue without local will and initiative (within endogenous model of development), it is necessary to focus theoretical part also on a PARTICIPANT, who plays a crucial role (just according to the endogenous approach towards the problems of rural development).

The term PARTICIPANT originates from French (acteur), that took it over from the Latin expression "actor" and means someone who is acting i.e. bearer, initiator or implementer of social activities. A participant (or person involved) can be in a narrower sense an individual, in broad sense a social group as a bearer of social activities. It is possible to divide participants moving in rural space into 3 categories. Countrymen themselves, whose abidance in rural space has a long-term character, are the first and the most important category. Those people, who expand to the country, create the second category and they use the rural space with an objective of personal and a short-term profit and it could be said they struggle for it. A state and its territorial organizations are the third and the last category. These as participants in the rural space do not have an own aim and are rather only intermediaries or performer of long-term interests of the state, eventually of other participants, who have their usually long-term interests in rural space (HUDEČKOVÁ, JEHLE 1997).

If this paper deals with the role of consultancy in rural development, and if an expression of the term "participant" was inserted into the theoretical determination as a potential⁷⁵ "provider and consumer" of an advisory activity (next to already determined rural space and its development), it

⁷⁵ Here is the word "potential" deliberately chosen because to struggle for development of rural areas where participants move depends always on their will.

remains to replenish the theoretical framework with terms dealing with the consultancy itself. Because the consultancy is sometimes connected with education or information, conclusion of the theoretical determination is focused just on these concepts.

It is possible in the most general conception to perceive CONSULTANCY as a professional providing of expert advice, precaution proposal formulated by one subject/participant in order to solve a problem of the other subject/participant. Both individuals and organisations or institutions can create both subjects, poles of this specific communication. Consultancy is seen from various visual angles from the sociological point of view. It is possible to see consultancy as a social interaction and information transfer with relatively same roles of both participated sides – advisor and client (it is possible in this case to say “participants”, who give advices and “participants”, who ask for an advice), but also as a specific activity, precisely to say, a complex of specific activities with exactly determined objectives and defined rules. Consultancy constitutes a form of help and opinion influencing and acting of particular participants at the same time, it is one of social institutions originated from practical need in society (VELKÝ SOCIOLOGICKÝ SLOVNÍK, 1996). Providers of consultancy can be financed from various sources. It is possible to divide them into 3 groups. These are partly subjects providing consultancy as a publicly available services to citizens that are established and financed by the state, state organs and institutions and partly private subjects providing advisory services that are paid. Various organisations, associations and institutions that provide mostly services out of charge and are established and financed by charitable organizations or foundations form the third group.

Consultancy is to certain extent a process of information transfer. INFORMATION is any form of statement or message that is countable. Information is in general understood in sociology as a statement about some reality (irrespective of an acquired contribution), in narrower sense it concerns a statement that exceeds a framework of present knowledge.

A methodical approach and a used technique of data gathering

A sociological laboratory (SOLA) has been working on a project “Consultancy for rural development” in the year 2006, whose provider was Department of Agriculture of the Czech Republic. A terrain examination was carried out in terms of this project that was implemented in several phases proceeding in the last three months of the year 2006. At the beginning a quantitative approach was chosen for a sociological empiric research and later was the quantitative approach combined with a qualitative approach for completion and specification of “quantitatively” gathered data. This is the reason why quantitative interview techniques were used at first for terrain

examination (questionnaire, semi-standardized interview), consequently were used qualitative techniques (non-standardized interview and Focus Groups). The paper was entirely focused on data gathering in terrain by Focus Groups technique in two localities – Protivín (an area around Ceske Budejovice) and Třebenice (an area around Liberec).

Both Focus Groups were implemented by an agency STEM, that on the basis of requirements dated up by workers of sociological laboratory of the Czech university of Life Sciences in Prague chose both the place of performance and its participants. The basic requirements were a location of above mentioned areas (around Ceske Budejovice and Liberec) and it was necessary to choose respondents in such a way, so that they could represent representatives of local participants or so they would be the participants themselves acting in these localities. The respondents were chosen among mayors, association representatives of municipalities or MAS, entrepreneurs (sole traders, self-employed farmers), significant personalities of local life (a school director, a teacher, a priest). Before the final choice was made, it had been many times consulted with workers of SOLA.

Group description of respondents

The final set up file of respondents for group interview was following:

Table Nr. 1

Composition of discussion groups (Třebenice a Protivín) – socio-demographical characteristics and a viewpoint of interest in rural development and development of municipalities and a position of a respondent

		T	P			T	P
Sex	man	7	7	Interest in rural development	Big	8	7
	woman	3	3		Middle	1	3
Age	30-44	2	3		Small	1	0
	45-59	5	4	Position Function Contract	Management of a municipality	4	2
	60+	3	3		Entrepreneurs	3	2
Education	Skilled	1	1		Micro-regions and MAS	3	2
	Secondary education	5	4		Activists of associations	4	6
	University education	4	5		Important occupation	2	2

Source: STEM, technical report from performed Focus Groups, arranged.

This table documents, that roles of local participants are often multiple, in that way, that a position and a function of some respondents enables an enlistment into several characteristics at

once (an entrepreneur was at the same time a mayor, a representative was an active member of a hunt club and so on.). If we evaluated these multiple roles of local participants, there was not any difference between the two observed locations. It is interesting to notice, that among active representatives of public life (at least in these two groups) are women represented always by one quarter in contrast to men, who are represented by two quarters. This fact does not play any essential role, because women (in discussion group in Protivín) were considerably stronger debaters, even though they were in numerical minority (see further). Both groups of respondents were represented pro rate in all three age categories. Nine tenth of respondents had secondary and university education.

It is possible to close the respondents' group description by evaluation of moderator activity, who directed both discussion groups, in that way, that he had to use twice more words in Protivín than he used in the group of Trebenice. The Trebenice group was lively and respondents were willing to discuss, the moderator did not have to explain so much and force people to talk.

Results – local participants' ideas about ...

...What is country at all...

...it is possible to cross it easily on foot, by bike...

It is possible to characterize a country by respondents' eyes of both groups rather by lifestyle, (environment, freedom, more peaceful way of life (*T₉: ...it is a question of choice, how you want to live, a country is a place, where I am in contact with nature, where I am not limited by architecture, I have a space for my interests and perceptions development...*) a mutual knowledge of people, but at the same time shyness, closeness, willingness to open themselves for the others, (*P₃: ...It seems to me, that here are people too reserved, they don't accept a new contact easily, they don't mix in...*), than by limitation of a country geographically or demographically⁷⁶.

Primarily, the respondents are satisfied with the life at the country. Later on, they object above all to transportation, infrastructure, lack of job possibilities, aging of population, little opportunities for young people, not a big chance to have own living, but also inconvenient redistributing of tax yield for smaller villages, problematic grant acquisition for agriculture (*...agriculture without donations is Utopia...*) and so on.

⁷⁶ P₆: ...where is the limit of the country. Do we take into account a priority of a country, i.e. a part or a little village, which has a nice countryside, with some water in it, is this a country? Is there a fresh air? Or...shall we broaden it here, shall we make here agglomerations, shall we make here an industry zone. When ...does the village get a town statute? It is created in suburb areas of big cities, a satellite towns emerge, I wouldn't like to be there personally. At a present time it is such a megalomania. It was a little village and now it is a part of a bigger town...

...Development of a country

...in contemporary time agriculture gains a new orientation, the original function changes and cycling, hiking or ecological agriculture tourism develop ... we try to create an area interesting for tourism, ensure all services, ...we know, we are only at the beginning...

Respondents connect rural development with business support, with better conditions for life (particularly of young families, entrepreneurs, generally of people, who would like to settle at the country). These conditions should be for example tax preferences, support for agriculture, improvement in transportation, reconstruction of houses and modernization of infrastructure.

Knowledge in projects, from which it is possible to obtain financial donation for rural development, is by educated persons (mayors, representatives of local operational groups, associations of villages etc.) at the very high level with a very good survey about existing programmes including familiarity about financing in the next financial period 2007-2013 (for example LEADER, POV, European Social Fund, cross-border cooperation and others.). A problem is, whether others know about these people and services, they offer. An information transfer stagnates somewhere (Protivin) towards citizens and potential applicants⁷⁷.

...A difficult support and donation accessibility for rural development

... An application processing for a project is for a common person very difficult, indeed.

Complicated and exacting administration rather from the Czech side than from the side of EU, inexplicit rules – different rules for different departments changing in the course of the year, bank credit inaccessibility – in contrast to the Czech foreign bank, domestic banks approach the cooperation with regions, municipalities and entrepreneurs hesitantly, a system of project advanced financing in general are criticized by respondents, who have knowledge in problems of acquiring financial resources from the above mentioned programmes. There is also a problem at project documentations cofinancing, data listing of particular rounds of application forms are inexplicit (it is not clear a long time, if the round is going to be put up or not), short deadlines for applications processing and their submission, long time limits for their evaluation, an approach of the Czech republic is criticized, local participants feel rather endangered for their inability to exhaust offered resources.

Respondents of both groups expressed for example a term „project” by a great number of expressions and attributions in the course of the whole discussion. In general, it is possible to state

⁷⁷ P₃: ...I don't know why aren't the people informed, we try. We have founded the association the fish of Vodnany...so that we could help farmers, entrepreneurs and nobody comes, nobody knows about it. Why don't the mayors inform about it? We cannot manage it....

that the respondents from Protivin thought of the term „projects” and their creation in a more sceptical or critical way. They rather searched for problems and complained of difficulties that projects creation normally brings. Respondents from the Trebenice group seemed to appear more optimistically, they knew it is not easy to create a project, with regard to contemporary minimal certainty it will be successful. They also understood it is necessary to overcome difficulties, so that new projects⁷⁸ could be prepared according to the already accepted ones.

A support from the side of the region was by different participants of local life evaluated in a different way – a development of a region is not a priority for North Bohemian region, on the contrary South Bohemian region offered a „bridge” support for the activity (operation) of MAS. What both regions have in common is that there is no possibility for municipalities and independent mayors to influence happening on region scale.

...Information and a need of consultancy – a necessary help

M: ...If you want to get some information, where do you go?

P₄: Internet... P₅: from some friends... P₇: Recommendation from friends. Personal contacts.

P₇: A municipality is a last place, where you go, if you need something... You get little information at the municipality. ...P₃: the association is responsible for it ...

That is the place, where can people get the information and they are exhausting.

Both groups expressed themselves there are enough information. However, it is necessary to create a functioning, reliable and simple system, whereon could potential applicants approach, if they have intention to. This system should also involve services from an information about a project processing (from an idea to a project documentation resulting in planning permission or towards other stage necessary for submitting an application for grant), application processing at a professional level, monitoring, administration connected with evaluation and account with grant subsidies.

⁷⁸ The Protivin's respondents gave to the term „project“ following attributes: absolutely functionless, insufficient, technically functioning, too much legislation, many things are needed for it, important is the way of its implementation, project can lie a long time on the table (till half a year), it can concern a set of municipalities, project must be made in a way, so that it functions, so that it can get over authorities and pass legislation. Projects are also limited partly by financial resources and partly by ability to compile a project, further by a difficult preparation, bad cooperation or functionless information system.

Respondents from Trebenice saw „project“ as complicated to compile for an ordinary person but it is possible to get donation for it (for example from SROP), interesting (for example LEADER), each must have a cooperation (projects also with a foreign participation – INTERREG, made with participation of Saxony), another prepared is one with the name „The Czech entrepreneur in Germany“, „A German entrepreneur in the Czech Republic“, in the course there is a project a road construction to entrepreneurial objects from MMR, there is a project of bio-power station for a municipality. The main objective is to create together the projects, compile and look for them (by means of Serviso, o.p.s.), Workers of implementing agencies are sometimes interviewed about hadning in the projects.

Is such a system created (for example a local operational group or association of villages in connection with „a service firm“, that manages these operations professionally, for example Serviso o.p.s. in the area of Třebenice), than rural areas are able to make use of offered donations.

Is the system not created, information transfer doesn't function. People are waiting for help from above („...someone from a department should come and inform people which possibilities they have ...or the same as you came today...“), they become passive („if there are no results, activity weakens“) they blame each other, information about a possibility, how to get some money is blocked (mayors, region, departments don't know about an existence of regional groups etc.)⁷⁹.

The way towards creation of efficacious information system is partly in possible supporting of professional MAS activities and their background, that does not perform a function not only in the projects of LEADER types, but also in the whole spectrum of provided donations. For example a good activity of authorities as well as a thorough activity of clerks from particular departments in regions and municipalities with extended field of action that targets the exhaustion of direct donations is taken for granted. The better the systems will function, the less will be their activity substituted by other subjects (for instance Economic Chambers and others.)

Conclusions

1. A basic mapping out of problems of consultancy in two different localities (South Bohemian and North Bohemian region) was an objective of this paper. A central question asked in this paper was: *What is a role of extension services in the Czech countryside and how „prospective“ participants of rural space development perceive a role of consultancy and advisory services?* An answer to this question was searched for in respondents' testimonies, carried out in two group discussions in Protivin and Třebenice. Before we approach the very empiric part, there was limited its theoretical and conceptual framework in the chapter. It dealt with determination of a country, rural space and its possible potential sources of development, whereas the emphasis is placed on endogenous approach, in which local participants, a local will and initiative towards development play an essential role, because in this way the local needs are best understood. At the same time it is impossible to do without necessary information, that can local participants get among others thanks to possible net of advisory services.
2. Local participants confirm a non-simplicity of rural development in group discussions in terms of a difficult orientation in the problems of projects (rather Protivin) and possibilities to

⁷⁹ Not only inhabitants living in the area feel the help but also the particular local participants do.

get grants for their localities both financed from the state budget and foreign resources (resources of EU). Trebenice confirms easier navigation: if we already have some programmes „checked out“ and if we at least partially know its functional mechanism and at the same time are there institutions created, that make their management easier and suggest „how to proceed“ (for example local authorities, that are engaged in a net of service organisations, association of villages, MAS and so on.), than a management of how to get resources for a local localities development for now functions. Respondents confirm that a creation of an informative or advisory system is almost an essential condition for creation of activities connected with the locality development and its role at data acquisition is crucial. In case of absence of an informative/advisory centre, extensive passivity and disinterest can happen. *How to create a functioning and effective informative/advisory net for needs of rural development?* It is a subject of further research.

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NEW APPROACHES TO RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND CULTURAL HERITAGE PRESERVATION

VISITOR CENTRE AS A VIABLE TOOL OF CULTURAL HERITAGE PRESENTATION AND MICROCLUSTER IN PERIPHERAL AREAS

NOVÉ PŘÍSTUPY V ROZVOJI VENKOVA A OCHRANĚ KULTURNÍHO DĚDICTVÍ

NÁVŠTĚVNICKÉ CENTRUM JAKO ŽIVOTASCHOPNÝ NÁSTROJ OCHRANY KULTURNÍHO DĚDICTVÍ A MIKROKLASTR V OKRAJOVÝCH OBLASTECH

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Abstract

Tourism is an important factor of the economic and of course rural development of the Czech Republic. Its share in GDP is growing steadily and the same applies to overall income from rural tourism. At present, a whole range of new forms of tourism more and more frequently comes to attention. These new forms have in common their consideration for destinations and cultural and historical heritage as a whole, as well as friendliness to the environment.

One of the main segments of rural tourism is focused mainly on cultural and historical heritage. To attract potential tourists it is necessary to use new methods and approaches. The main of them are interactive interpretation and networking of choice. Use of basic principles of experience economy is necessary.

We based our theory on the idea that if tourists stay up to three hours they will spend money at least for meal, and if they stay more than six hours they will most likely stay overnight. That was the main reason why we drew up Visitor Centre as a multifunctional building. This Visitor Centre should serve to attract tourists in microdestination (e.g. small village) analogous to a lantern attracts night moths. Exemplary Visitor Centre consists of interactive exhibition sometimes connected with craft workshop, shop offering local products, accommodation in category of guest house and small refreshment. This model represents networking of choice under one roof, concentrated on a place.

Presently there operate two Visitor Centre's in the Sumava region in the south-western part of the Czech Republic. The first one is focused on textile manufacturing, the other one on traditional timbering and woodcutting.

It is necessary to see rural tourism as a tool that helps with solving some of the issues in rural areas, such as unemployment, retention of the cultural function of landscape and last but not least migration of population in rural areas.

Key words: rural development, cultural and historical heritage, experience tourism, interactivity, interactive exposition, visitor's centre.

Introduction

Tourism is an important factor of the economic development of the Czech Republic. Its share in GDP is growing steadily and the same applies to overall income from out-of-country tourism.

At present, a whole range of new forms of tourism more and more frequently comes to attention. These new forms have in common their consideration for destinations, friendliness to the

nature and the environment as a whole, as well as consideration for cultural and historical heritage and interpersonal relations.

Rural tourism in a broad sense is not new to the Czech Republic. Visits to the rural country in form of “summer lodging” were an important part of pre-war tourism in the Czech Republic. After World War II though, the ties between the urban and rural areas were broken and rural tourism in its true form disappeared for a long time. The regular use of cottages and country houses began developing, nevertheless without a direct relation to typical rural environment.

After so called „Velvet Revolution” in 1989, rural country went through significant changes. Agricultural production was restructured and agricultural undertakings were transformed. As a result of these processes, the number of people employed in the industry decreased substantially. To sustain land-based prosperity and permanent population outside urban centres, it was necessary to look for new tools of economic revitalization. Development of rural tourism is therefore very important for those regions that had been affected by the restructuring and transformation most. It does not only introduce new businesses but also encourages the creation of new jobs and subsequently, the stabilization of population in rural areas. Another cause of the development of rural tourism is the worldwide trend of returning to the nature and living in its proximity in harmony.

What is the difference between today’s rural country and that which existed in our country several decades ago? There are several of them. A principal change is the decrease in employment in agriculture. While agricultural production was always on the first place in job vacancies available in the country, today, the numbers of employees in this national economic sector are lower and lower. There is a whole range of reasons why people are not interested in agricultural production any more. They are not able to make their living on it, they wish to find jobs with better conditions (in a town or city) and, last but not least, collectivization also played its part in lesser numbers of land workers. A new, compelling issue is the aging and gradual desolation of rural country. Young people do not find opportunities or the possibility to live their lives fully and leave.

A favourable change for overturning this trend is the development of entrepreneurial opportunities in rural country. These primarily involve businesses associated with rural tourism. Unfortunately, this form of tourism has not had a long tradition here and many people are uncertain as to starting a business there. The main reason why rural tourism is not as developed in our country as well as in other European states is that land-workers could not participate in the development of rural tourism in 1970’s when this form of tourism started developing dynamically in other countries of Western Europe. This form of tourism is therefore not so well established. People lack experience

and many people actually have relatives or own a weekend cottage or a weekend house in the country.

To change this situation is to necessary to reinforce the countryside's role as a site of consumption rather than of production; and further develop the process of rural commodification (Roberts & Hall, 2003). There are many new forms of tourism which is possible to use and further develop in the rural areas. The main new rural tourism products are farm tourism, ecotourism, cultural tourism, adventure tourism and activity tourism. In this paper we focus on cultural tourism which is mainly based on historical and cultural attractivities. European Centre for Traditional and Regional Cultures worked out a list of sites that might attract cultural tourists: archaeological sites and museums, architecture, art, sculpture, crafts, galleries, festivals, events, music and dance, drama, language and literature study, religious festivals and pilgrimages, and complete cultures and sub-cultures. Further village museums and expositions are discussed.

Objective, approaches and research methods

There are almost two hundred museums available to preserve the cultural and historical heritage in the Czech Republic. Unfortunately most of them are not visitor-friendly. They often look like places where research is taken seriously, perhaps too seriously. Visitors are only allowed to see the exhibits, but any attempt at touching them is prohibited. Unfortunately, this policy is likely to discourage any potential museum-goers. Children and young people are inclined to perceive a trip to such museum as a duty, an unpleasant task, in fact. Tourists are prone to skip such museums. These museums are still lacking elements which can make learning an attractive activity.

Modern museum or exposition is not only to collect new exhibits, but it should present the cultural and historical heritage using inventive interpretation and personal experience. If so, the visitor will leave the premises instructed, happy, and eager to come again. Interpretation is about communicating. New museums and expositions must be based on the triad I-C-E imperative. It means interpretation, communication and explanation. It is also about communicating more than just information. Information simply gives facts, but interpretation aims to give new insights, ideas and ways of looking at, or appreciating, a place. Interpretation is also about sharing enthusiasm about sites so that audience will find them fascinating too (Tabraham, 2006).

New visitors analogous to new tourists are being creative while spending their leisure time. They are educated, culturally mature, curious and analytical, self-knowledge, active and participative (Krippendorf, 1999).

Museums have to seek new methods of presentation, methods making contacts with the real things as a common part of experience that the visitors are offered. Such possibility will attract a more varied crowd and the museums may even become competitors to the show business. A touch of a real exhibit will broaden the visitors' experience and involve all their senses, a fact of particular importance to families and the disabled visitors. In the near future museums will stand or fall not only by their competence to care for collections but also by their ability to care for people. They will need to be market-oriented if they are to survive (Cossons, 1997).

Major management implications facing cultural heritage managers are a) educating visitors through entertainment, b) commodification of cultural heritage, and c) use of interpretation to improve learning amongst visitors (Ritchie, 2003).

An available solution rests in the application of principles known as the "experience tourism". A visitor of today is motivated mainly by craving for experiences, and the experiences may be important beyond the character of the visited place itself. Such a visitor will seek experiences out of the ordinary. He or she will search for excitement and variety through direct contact with nature, cultural milieu, or attractivities possibly represented by a museum exposition of an appealing concept. Experience tourism could be a powerful tool used to strengthen the bond between visitors and museums. In an increasingly competitive environment, such relationships are vital to visitor retention efforts (Mitchell & Mitchell, 2000). If the potential of experience tourism is used to the full, it will certainly help preserve, among other things, the memory of country life in general public.

A) Visitor Centre model

To meet all of above mentioned we inspired with the network of ECONOMUSEUMS – ÉCONOMUSÉE® (www.economusees.com) in Canada (Quebec and Atlantic region). We designed model of Visitor Centre. Visitor Centre is a business that uses e. g. heritage craft techniques and showcases its knowledge by providing an interpretation area and by opening its workshop to the public. Visitor Centre, which is self financing through the sale of its products and services, makes an innovative contribution to the cultural tourism. History and culture – these are the names for accompanying programs, which may among others also include: local sightseeing (castles, manors, convents and monasteries) and demonstrations of traditional crafts (mills, smitheries, glass-works, laceworks). We supposed that if visitors stay up to three hours they will spent money at least for meal, and if they stay more than six hours they will most likely stay overnight and they turn into the real tourists. That was the main reason why we drew up Visitor Centre as a multifunctional building. This Visitor Centre should serve to attract tourists in microdestination (e.g. small village) analogous

to a lantern attracts night moths. Exemplary Visitor Centre consists of interactive exhibition sometimes connected with craft workshop, shop offering local products, accommodation in category of guest house and small refreshment. This model represents networking of choice under one roof, concentrated on a place (see Figure 1).

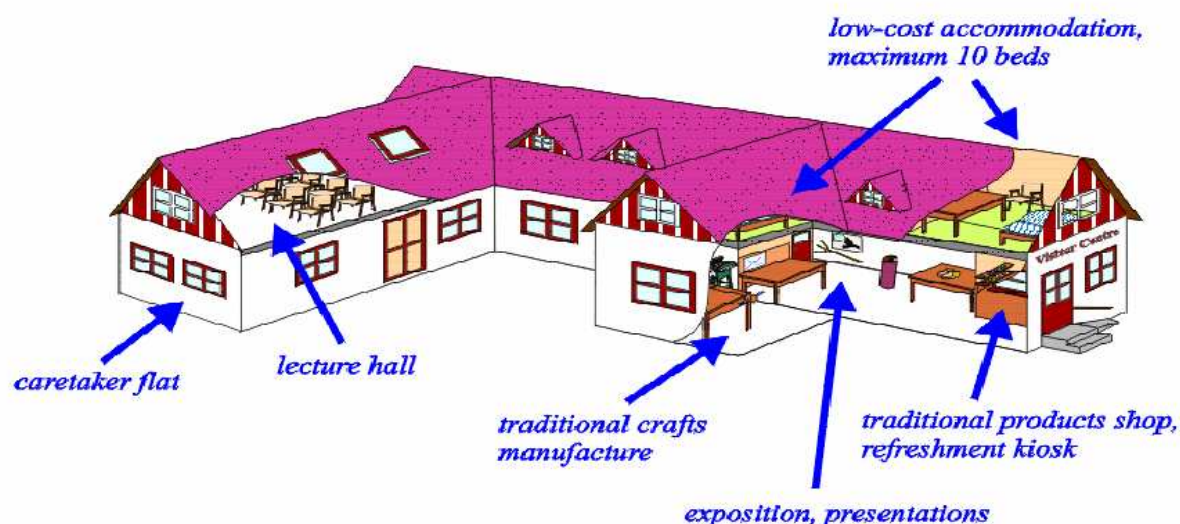


Figure 1 Visitor Centre design.

B) Analysis of the interpretational methods

To analyze the form in which some selected attractivities are presented, we relied on what is called the level of interpretation. Regarded as the lowest physical level of interpretation were the labels, since these allow the visitors no freedom in making their own or mediated interpretations. They simply present the straightforward facts.

The manner of exhibit arrangement gives the visitors a chance of interpreting the object through their other senses – that is why we characterize this level as sensual. On the sensual level a person is engaged in the object being presented without developing any deeper arguments or opinions. The interpretation alternates only between appealing and unappealing or well-chosen and ill-chosen example (as seen from the viewpoint of cultural and historical heritage interpretation).

The form of explanation offered for an exhibit permits the visitors to accept the interpretation but also to reject it - they may refuse to simply believe the presented explanation. This stage of the interpretation assessment leans on facts and arguments – therefore we designate this level as rational.

The fourth level of interpretation is emotional. By presenting a story the visitors are encouraged to conjure up their own perceptions, observations and experiences in interpreting the

presented reality, and thus to establish a personal relation with the exhibits. It is a level where emotions come into the picture. Hence the designation emotional level.

The fifth level of interpretation, the top one, is occupied by experiment through which the visitors are encouraged to arrive at their own interpretations. They are offered hands-on experience and allowed to verify in person what is asserted to be a fact. We believe that this top level of interpretation combines personal experience with scientifically accurate explanation delivered in a generally understandable manner. If proper tools are used, the visitors undergo a sort of mental transformation, and they may even feel proud of their achievement. The visitors will thus become aware of the wider context, and their previous attitudes will be modified. This is what we call mental level. To describe indicators, techniques and other tools used to analyze the interpretations of local cultural and historical heritage, we transformed the "experience pyramid" (Tarssanen, 2005) into the "interpretation level pyramid" (see Figure 2).

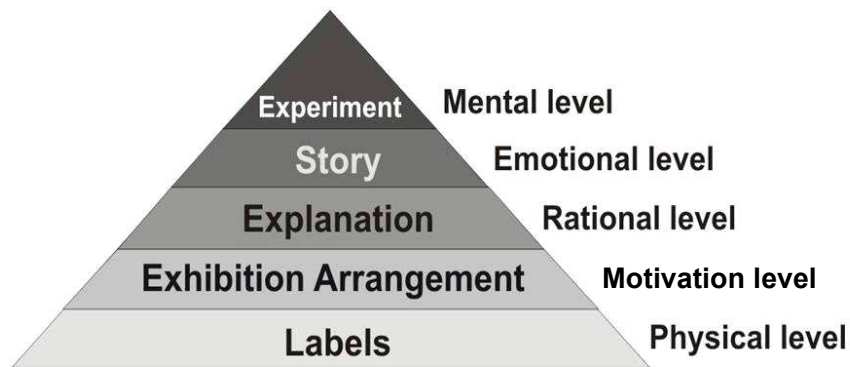


Figure 2 Visualization chart of analysed parameters.

Results and discussion

Presently there operate two Visitor Centres in the Sumava region in the south-western part of the Czech Republic. The first one which is focused on textile manufacturing is located in the village of Laziste. There is an interactive exposition interpreting the history and present of the textile manufacturing and processing. Visitor Centre also provides accommodation in eight two-bed rooms and sells some local products. In the future workshops based on textile processing will be prepared for visitors and tourists. The other Visitor Centre which was opened in the late summer 2007 is placed in the heart of the Sumava National Park in the village of Modrava. Visitor centre is focused on the traditional timbering and woodcutting. It draws tourists on an up-to-date interactive exposition and sale of wooden toys, brain teasers and souvenirs. Visitors can pass the night in two four-bed rooms. Experience workshops aimed at wood carving are being prepared. Both Visitor

Centres contribute to increase of supply for tourists and visitors, and are the stimulus for tourists to stay even in a case of bad weather conditions. Owners of local accommodation facilities can offer Visitor Centres as one of the main attractions of a place.

From analysis of the interpretational methods used in local museums and expositions we learnt that the thematic attractivities make much more use of the interpretational tools than general expositions, irrespective of the size of community and the volume of funds invested to the exposition. Moreover, general expositions found at different places bear a strong resemblance to each other. To support tourism, particularly the "experience" kind of tourism, this relation should be reversed. The less appeal the attractivity has, the more inventive and tempting methods of its interpretation have to be applied, because "the gems will find their way to the visitors much easier, i.e. with much less effort needed to be spent". Each exhibit has its own story to relate. To make it tell the story, the exhibit only needs to be offered suitable circumstances. Should it so happen, the artifact would tell us about how it originated, what purpose it served, in which way its owner used it, and how its features or production varied in different times and different regions of origin. The task of displaying e. g. objects of daily use, farming tools or craft instruments entails no special material or technical obstacles. Such an exposition can be completed using borrowed original items, replicas, or just photographs with the related sketches. The onset of information technologies, however, and their rapid advancement experienced today, offer also new presentational and instructional techniques, increasingly affordable. Besides, the new forms of presentation will motivate particularly the young generation to learn about how our ancestors lived, which would be probably a stiff job without the high-tech devices (Figure 3).

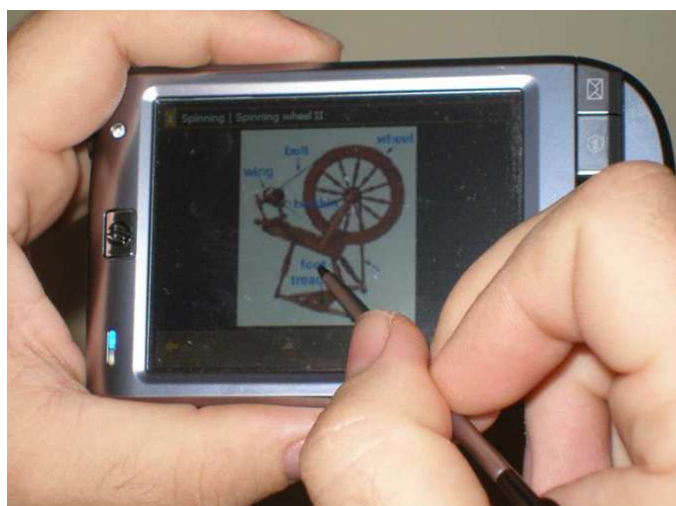


Figure 3 SmartGuide as a source of additional information and juicy visualization in village museums and exhibitions.

Conclusions

Many people leave holidays in busy coastal towns or cities and start to orientate more on restful holidays offering better relaxation from everyday stress and noise of the city. Apart from that, this kind of holiday is also interesting from financial point of view, which is to be greatly appreciated especially by families with children that make the biggest customer segment. It is necessary to see cultural tourism as a tool that helps with solving some of the issues in rural areas, such as unemployment, retention of the cultural function of landscape or lower migration of rural population. Cultural tourism can be a meaningful instrument in the development of not only the particular village but the entire microregion or region. It does not only bring additional income sources but can encourage the revitalization of whole regions. This is important primarily for regions affected by agricultural basic industry restructuring and transformation, and estate restitution processes.

Where to go? What is necessary to do that the local population and host destinations will benefit from the cultural tourism? Answer is obvious: 1) more and more cooperation is needed on the local, regional and national level; 2) more effective management and neatly targeted research on the cultural tourism; and 3) stronger market orientation.

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CHANCES AND RISKS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF A TRADITIONAL COUNTRYSIDE REGION OF THE CZECH REPUBLIC

ŠANCE A RIZIKA ROZVOJE TRADIČNÍHO VENKOVSKÉHO REGIONU V ČESKÉ REPUBLICE

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Abstract

Regional policies are targeted at a successful development of the communities. The impact of these can be assessed by the citizens through their representatives. Vysočina Region (Highlands) was delimitate to the NUTS 3 system in the year 2000 and there are five districts on its area. Actual number of communities in Vysočina Region is 704. The municipal offices got the questionnaire for description and evaluation of conditions of inhabitant's life in the year 2007. Very important was excellent attitude of municipal representatives towards the research. They sent back 412 total or particular filling questionnaires. The magistrates were expressive of community facilities, of public finance, of community possibilities in the economic development and also of the social and human capital, of the environment and chances for another development concrete village or town.

The paper aims at quantifying chances and risks of the future development and raising duality of living in Vysočina Region. Sources of data and information on the countryside problems are the researches that have a nature of qualitative surveys. Representativity of the sample was verified as concerns the community size and regional representation. Based on conjuncture research, the changes in citizens' approaches to basic aspects of civic life were assessed. Areas were reported by the community representatives in employment chances, neighbourhood relations and transport offers. Therefore, relationships between the aspects selected and community size were looked for, by means of construction and statistical assessment of two-dimensional contingency and association tables. Statistical significant relationships are analysed by means of sign test and indicators of risks and chances.

The main problems for development of countryside communities are employment opportunities, public transport availability and neighbourhood relations. By means of the risks and chances analysis it has been discovered that, the subdivision of the smallest villages into two groups is useful. The villages up to 199 head stand in the most complex situation within the regional development. Deterioration of employment opportunities happens there and bad problems of transport are felt. The ratio of further deterioration chances is high and the probability of improvement is low. If the availability of transport for the villages up to 199 head does not improve, depopulation will likely follow in Vysočina. The villages of size 200 - 499 head represent perhaps the optimal size of the "smallest" villages, where most of the civic life aspects studied have improved. These villages have reported high values of the ratio of chances for further improvement in transport availability as well as in neighbourhood relations. The analysis carried out demonstrated further chances of application of statistical methods in the assessment of results of empirical research and offered ways of their possible use.

Key words: Regional development, countryside region, community, empirical research, chance, risk, statistical analysis

Introduction

Vysočina is the region with the highest number of the villages up to 200 head and up to 500 head in the Czech Republic. Region Vysočina was delimitate to the NUTS 3 system in the year 2000 and there are five districts on its area: Havlíčkův Brod, Jihlava, Pelhřimov, Třebíč and Žďár nad Sázavou. Actual number of communities in Vysočina Region is 704. The municipal offices got the questionnaire for description and evaluation of conditions of inhabitant's life in the year 2007. Very important was excellent attitude of municipal representatives towards the research. They sent

back 412 total or particular filling questionnaires. The magistrates were expressive of community facilities, of public finance, of community possibilities in the economic development and also of the social and human capital, of the environment and chances for another development concrete village or town. The survey was interesting in historical connections, roots and traditions. Survey results were compiled by unusual statistical techniques and with the help of probability aimed at negative trends of basic needs in civil life in the Vysočina communities.⁸⁰

Research methods

The paper aims at quantifying chances and risks of the future development and raising quality of living in Vysočina Region. Sources of data and information on the countryside problems are the researches that have a nature of qualitative surveys. Many authors (Disman, 1993 and Mišo vič, 2001) define the qualitative research as a non-numerical survey and interpretation of the social reality aimed at discovering the importance of information responded. Principles of the empirical research and its problems are presented in papers of Majerová, Majer (2007).

The empirical research was subdivided in the following problem areas (Prášilová, Kába, Svatošová et al., 2007):

- the community equipment as concern living of its citizen,
- the infrastructure situation of community and transport accessibility,
- economic potential of the community,
- situation and dynamics of social structure,
- conditions of social life, recuperation and culture,
- development of the conditions of living and its further stimulation.

Representativity of the sample was verified as concerns the community size and regional representation. To this end the one-sample test of hypothesis on the alternative distribution parameter was employed. Based on conjuncture research, the changes in citizens' approaches to basic aspects of civic life were assessed. Areas (compared with the past), were reported by the community representatives in employment chances, neighbourhood relations and transport offers. Therefore, relationships between the aspects selected and community size were looked for, by means of construction and statistical assessment of two-dimensional contingency and association

⁸⁰ Basic data have been collected during the solution of QG60030 project with financial support of the National Agency for Agricultural Research (MZe ČR). Pieses of knowledge introduced in this paper resulted from solution of a research intention MSM 6046070906 "Economics of resources of Czech agriculture and their effectient use in frame of multifunctional agri-food systems".

tables. For the statistically significant contingency relationships, detailed assessment was carried out by means of the sign test. The database was prepared in MS Excel and processed in STATISTICA 7.

The statistically significant relationships were also analyzed by means of the risk and chance measures. For selected relationships, a 2x2 table for two alternative variables was made (Table 1, Řezanková et al., 2007 and Hendl, 2006):

Table 1

Contingency table 2x2.

Category of variable 1	Category of variable 2	
	v_{1s}	v_{2s}
v_{r1}	a	b
v_{r2}	c	d

The indicators applied to risk and chance assessment in this paper are as follows (Hebák, 2005, Hendl, 2006 and Řezanková et al., 2007):

Relative risk

$$RR_1 = \frac{\frac{a}{a+b}}{\frac{c}{c+d}} = \frac{a(c+d)}{c(a+b)} \quad (1)$$

The numerator for RR_1 $a/(a+b)$ shows what probability corresponds to the category v_{r1} appearing in the v_{1s} variates (field "a"). The complement to 1 of this probability can be obtained expressing the ratio $b/(a+b)$. If the category of the 2nd variable is not contingent upon the category of the 1st variable, is the value of $RR_1 = 1$. Values higher than 1 signal that a higher proportion of the total v_{r1} frequency will appear in the "a" field than in the "b" field. At the same time, a higher proportion of the total frequency of the v_{r2} variable will appear in the "d" field than in the "c" field. If the RR_1 value is less than 1, then for the v_{r1} variable a higher proportion of the total number for this variable will be in the "b" field and for the v_{r2} variable a higher proportion will be in the "c" field. The relative risk can be found also as concerns the appearance of the v_{2s} category in the 1st variable (RR_2):

$$RR_2 = \frac{\frac{b}{a+b}}{\frac{d}{c+d}} = \frac{b(c+d)}{d(a+b)} \quad (2)$$

Odds ratio

$$OR = \frac{RR_1}{RR_2} = \frac{ad}{bc} \quad (3)$$

By the ratio of two varieties of the relative risk outcome (ie., RR_1 and RR_2) the ratio of chances can be found. It is situated within $(0 ; \infty)$, in the case of independence of the variables it attains the value of 1. Values close to zero signal a strong contingency.

Attributive risk

$$AR = \frac{a}{a+b} - \frac{c}{c+d} \quad (4)$$

Attributive risk expresses the difference of probabilities of v_{1s} category appearance in both the 1st variable categories - v_{r1} and v_{r2} . It attains values within $\langle -1 ; 1 \rangle$

Relative attributive risk

$$RAR = \frac{\frac{a}{a+b} - \frac{c}{c+d}}{\frac{a}{a+b}} \cdot 100 \quad (5)$$

Relative attributive risk starts from the attributive risk and it expresses the percentage of probability change of the v_{1s} category appearance in both the categories of the 1st variable - v_{r1} and v_{r2} . The basis of all considerations and evaluations is the ratio of appearance of the frequencies in the “a” field at the marginal frequency of v_{r1} category [ie., the $a/(a+b)$ ratio]. Relative attributive risk is based on attributive risk and it is percentage change of probability of incidence v_{1s} for both categories – v_{r1} and v_{r2} . Basis for computing is share of frequency incidence in the cell „a” in relation to marginal frequency of category v_{r1} (share $a/(a+b)$).

Results and discussion

1. Verification of representativity

In spite of the high number of responses, representativity of the sample had to be verified. Representativity was verified according to village size groups by the number of inhabitants and also according to representation of villages in separate districts of the region.

Except the villages over 10 thousand of inhabitants, of which there are 1,14 % only in the entire list of communities, structure of the sample corresponds to the structure of the total population ($\alpha = 0.01$). Similar conclusion can be expressed as concerns the distribution of villages by districts.

2. Civic life in the region

Conjuncture research has been arranged in order to assess changes in the approaches of people to basic aspects of civic life (Table 2).

The village representatives appreciate positively the improvement in levels of living, in the environment, and sports and recreational activities. Negatively they assess the insufficient employment opportunities and the transport problems. The survey discovered deterioration of neighbourhood relationships within the villages. The "open" questionnaire questions completed the survey results by further explanations. Important reasons for people's remaining to live in the Vysočina villages are given by improvement and facilitation of life for the young families. Care for the elderly is insufficient. Three variables have been selected from the civic life problems, where a higher proportion of unsatisfied citizens has been recorded: employment opportunities, neighbourhood relations and transport problems. A detailed analysis has been carried out of the impact of the tendencies recorded upon the most threatened communities group, ie., the smallest villages up to 200 and to 500 inhabitants.

Table 2

Structure of survey respondents in communities

Aspect	Part of answers (%)		
	Improvement	The same level	Upset
Labour chances	17,3	31,3	51,4
Neighbour's relationships	4,3	59,9	35,8
Recreational chances	37,7	55,8	6,5
Transportation chances	16,8	31,8	51,4
Cultural chances	24,1	58,0	17,8
Sports chances	44,4	48,2	7,3
Environment	50,9	42,9	6,3
Safety of inhabitants	8,8	62,6	28,5
Level of living	51,1	36,0	12,8
Criminality	5,1	64,8	30,1

3. Risks and chances of changes in the perception of communities development aspects

The most important indicator felt as the decisive one for maintenance and improvement of the inhabitants' levels of living and stability of the communities is that of employment opportunities. The Vysočina region is one of the regions having an above average proportion of farming on the region's GDP. In spite of the downfall of numbers of those employed in farming and forestry in the nineties, Vysočina belongs to the regions with the highest employment in these primary sectors. The problem of employment opportunities is given very high attention in Vysočina. The sign test

signalled a significant feeling of worsened chances of employment especially in the smallest villages up to 200 inhabitants but in those up to 500 as well. The table 3 quantifies the facts recorded by means of probabilities. The probability for a citizen from a small village to assess real chances of employment as worsened ones as against the previous period, is 1,257times, or 1,316times higher than for the larger communities' citizens. The chance for the smaller villages citizens to assess the situation of employment opportunities as a better one is 0,378times (0,396times) lower, while the chance that people from the smallest villages will express themselves negatively to the employment opportunities is 2,645times (2,527times) higher. The probability of a negative assessment of current situation in employment opportunities is by 0,1727 higher as against the communities above 200 head, ie., by 20,47 %. Since, in the smallest villages up to 200 head a large proportion of the elderly live, this difference is much higher than in the villages up to 499 head. The difference between the probabilities of deterioration in the group up to 499 head and the group over 500 head makes it 0,1904, ie., 144,69 %.

Table 3

Risks and chances of labour chances by village size

Size of village (number of the population)	Labour chances are		Chances and risk indicators			
	worse	better	RR ₁	OR	AR	RAR
Up to 199	97	18	1,257	2,645	0,1727	20,47%
200 and more	108	53				
Size of village (number of the population)	Labour chances are		Chances and risk indicators			
	better	worse	RR ₁	OR	AR	RAR
Up to 199	18	97	0,475	0,378	-0,1727	-110,32%
200 and more	53	108				
Size of village (number of the population)	Labour chances are		Chances and risk indicators			
	worse	better	RR ₁	OR	AR	RAR
Up to 499	161	42	1,316	2,527	0,1904	144,69%
500 and more	44	29				
Size of village (number of the population)	Labour chances are		Chances and risk indicators			
	better	worse	RR ₁	OR	AR	RAR
Up to 499	42	161	0,521	0,396	-0,1904	-92,03%
500 and more	29	44				

The condition sine qua non of high quality village life is a regular public transport facility. The sign test results show many a common tendency with the employment opportunities variable. The feeling of deterioration is recorded by the smallest villages up to 199 head, and improvement of transport facilities has been stated by the respondents from communities over 500 head. The probability of transport deterioration (Table 4) towards the smallest villages below 200 head as against larger communities is 1,143times higher, while in the villages up to 499 head is the probability of negative assessment 0,552times lower. This fact shows some further problems of the smallest villages. The difference of the probability of deterioration in the villages up to 199 head as against the larger ones is positive and it makes it 12,51 %, while the transport situation in the villages up to 499 head got improved according to the respondents, and the chance that these citizens will assess the transport towards their village as an improved one is 2,292times higher than the opposite opinion.

Table 4

Risks and chances of transportation chances by village size

Size of village (number of the population)	Transportation chances are		Chances and risk indicators			
	worse	better	RR ₁	OR	AR	RAR
Up to 199	94	22	1,143	1,754	0,1014	12,51%
200 and more	112	46				
Size of village (number of the population)	Transportation chances are		Chances and risk indicators			
	better	worse	RR ₁	OR	AR	RAR
Up to 199	22	94	0,657	0,57	-0,1014	-53,45%
200 and more	46	112				
Size of village (number of the population)	Transportation chances are		Chances and risk indicators			
	worse	better	RR ₁	OR	AR	RAR
Up to 499	41	160	0,552	0,437	-0,1659	-81,22%
500 and more	27	46				
Size of village (number of the population)	Transportation chances are		Chances and risk indicators			
	better	worse	RR ₁	OR	AR	RAR
Up to 499	160	41	1,263	2,291	0,1659	20,84%
500 and more	46	27				

Solid neighbourhood relations are typical for the countryside. Historically, mutual collaboration was necessary, strengthened moreover by kinship connections.

Table 5

Risks and chances of neighbour's relationships by village size

Size of village (number of the population)	Neighbour's relationships are		Chances and risk indicators			
	better	worse	RR ₁	OR	AR	RAR
Up to 199	10	49	2,494	2,799	0,1015	59,88%
200 and more	7	96				
Size of village (number of the population)	Neighbour's relationships are		Chances and risk indicators			
	worse	better	RR ₁	OR	AR	RAR
Up to 199	49	10	0,891	0,357	-0,1015	-12,22%
200 and more	96	7				
Size of village (number of the population)	Neighbour's relationships are		Chances and risk indicators			
	better	worse	RR ₁	OR	AR	RAR
Up to 499	16	100	6,355	7,211	0,1162	84,26%
500 and more	1	45				
Size of village (number of the population)	Neighbour's relationships are		Chances and risk indicators			
	worse	better	RR ₁	OR	AR	RAR
Up to 499	100	16	0,881	0,139	-0,1162	-13,48%
500 and more	45	1				

Nowadays, the neighbourhood relations got loosened, but the survey has shown that, they are perceived as important. In spite of the growing level of living and independence upon the help of the others it shows that, neighbourhood links are maintained by the inhabitants of the smallest villages up to 199 head; it is understood that, the nature of the links has not been changed. Research has shown favourable findings in the population of villages up to 499 head, where an improvement has been recorded. On the contrary, an expected improvement of neighbourhood relations has not materialized in the villages over 500 head. The evaluation of chances and risks (Table 5) shows a favourable situation in the smallest villages up to 199 head and especially, the ratio of chances of the proportion of inhabitants in the village up to 500 head with positive feeling of neighbourhood atmosphere as against the large communities is an encouraging finding for the village representatives' work, too.

Conclusions

1. Maintenance and favourable development of small villages is a fundamental task of the State policies. Inhabitants of the small villages naturally wish to live a life of the same quality as the town people. In 2007 an extensive questionnaire survey was finished in all the communities of the Vysočina region, having a high 58,5% return rate. Contingency tables showed the links between responses and the village size. It is just the village size that in the Vysočina region presents an important factor since Vysočina reports the largest proportion of smallest villages. The solution offered distinguishes villages up to 199 head and up to 499 head within the "smallest villages" category.
2. By means of the risks and chances analysis it has been discovered that, the subdivision of the smallest villages into two groups is useful. The villages up to 199 head stand in the most complex situation within the regional development. Deterioration of employment opportunities happens there and bad problems of transport are felt. The ratio of further deterioration chances is high and the probability of improvement is low. If the availability of transport for the villages up to 199 head does not improve, depopulation will likely follow in Vysočina. The villages of size 200 - 499 head represent perhaps the optimal size of the "smallest" villages, where most of the civic life aspects studied have improved. These villages have reported high values of the ratio of chances for further improvement in transport availability as well as in neighbourhood relations.
3. The analysis carried out demonstrated further chances of application of statistical methods in the assessment of results of empirical research and offered ways of their possible use.

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PROSPECTS OF LOCAL DEVELOPMENT FOR EXAMPLE OF WARMIŃSKO-MAZURSKIE PROVINCE

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Abstract

Apart from many positive changes the time of system transformation in Poland started after 1989 has not caused immediate improvement of social and economic situation of many regions. It is possible to say about development progress in case of region, great city agglomerations are situated in which (e.g. Warsaw, Cracow). These regions spread out economically well and characterized high dynamics human capital, good technical infrastructure and communication. It allows to refer and keep very good contacts inside of country and with foreign countries. Unfortunately, it does not belong province this type of Warmia and Mazury region. It is fourth largest surface located in the north-east of Poland. This region is characterized by the highest rate of unemployment among all polish provinces, low level of human capital and low level of industrialization.

Keywords: development, regional development, self-government, human capital, the regional development strategy

Introduction

In current market conditions strengthening the regional identity plays a very important role. Regions play more and more important role in the processes of social and economical development. At the same time the regionalization becomes a carrier of tendencies not only to unificate but also to differentiate. In Poland the conceptions of regional development are subjects of greater interests in aspect of economical transformation and access of Poland to European structures , but also in aspect of recent reform of territorial division. According to naming practice in Italy, France and Spain there are regions, in Austria and Germany – lands and in Poland – provinces.

I. Theoretical aspects of regional development

1.1. Region and regional development – conceptualization of the notions

Region is a territorial unit characterized by relative cultural, economical and social uniformity. Region is an objectively isolated part, which has its inner structure and is capable of having specific relations with the surroundings. The basis of a region's constitution is often administrative separated, what gives it some legislative and executive competencies. The understanding of a notion "region" is written in "Community Regionalization Card" according to which "region" is a "Territory, which from geographical point of view is a distinct part or a uniform complex of territories, which create a whole and its population is characterized by defined common features which should be strengthened and developed in order to stimulate cultural and economical development..." (Zawadzka, 1993). The name "region" can relate to geography (space and nature), history (past events integrating the inhabitants), culture (expressed by traditions and customs),

nationality (common language, faith, culture), social capital (expressed by the position of human resources of the region, defined by education structure and occupational qualification of the inhabitants and the level of integration of local societies), economy (natural resources, economical structure, local markets, economical base) and administration (defined borders) and space (spatial development plan). Regional development is a multidimensional process of a social character, mobilization of local potential, which aims at permanent dynamical development. "It is treated as actions taken by local subjects with using local resources and considering specific character of the territory..." (Turnowiecki, 2007). Regional development is mainly region's economical development, the pace and the character of economical changes are the condition of realizing and initiating processes of regional development, also in different dimensions. It's a long-time process, consisting of quantitative changes, concerning such indexes as production, employment, investment, resources, income etc. and quality changes, related to technical and technological development, growth of quality of human resources etc. The most wanted form of regional development is balanced development – so called permanent or suspension, occurring as a result of positive changes in economical and social development's level, changes which affect the environmental quality only in neutral or positive way (Strzelecki, 2008). Regional development is usually and implication of simultaneous influence of inner and external factors. The endogenous development is stimulated by local needs, using their own regional resources, with active participation and mobilization of its inhabitants. The exogenous development is inspired by authorities by introducing so called intraregional politics. The base of exogenous development is an assumption, that market mechanisms are not sufficient for reaching proper level of development and that is why it is advised for the authorities to intervene. This type of development emphasizes the dependence of a region on the country. It is worth to emphasize that both endogenous and exogenous factors of development are complementary and both influence the condition of regional development.

1.2. Polish regionalism – the role of self-government province

In Poland the competencies and qualifications of provincial authorities are defined by normal legislation and have limited origins in constitution (Constitution Republic of Poland, 1997). Our country is not actually a regional country, so Polish self-government regions do not have the same rights as for instance regions of Italy, Spain, Germany or Great Britain. According to the constitution Polish local authorities have no power, even to supervise local authorities, it gains only some political, economical and administrative independence. "The public mission, the inner structure of the self-government and its borders are also a normal legislation..." (Jewtuchowicz,

2001). The activity of provincial self-government bases on realization of so called own tasks, which differ into to groups: firstly they are tasks from administration, which means they are directly bound with keeping units of public utility (communication, health care, education, culture), secondly they are tasks connected with the regions development, which means all kinds of regional politics, formulating detailed conceptions, plans and strategies of development for the region. The document of exceptional importance is the strategy of development, being some kind of a plan, defining main directions of the voivodship's development, taking into account its best features, biggest chances and minimizing local weaknesses and external dangers.

II. Regional development of Warmińsko-Mazurskie Province – socio-economic practice

2. 1. Socio-economic potential of Warmia and Mazury region

The Warmińsko-Mazurskie Province is located in the north-east of Poland. The region covers areas with outstanding natural amenities, unique on the European scale, featuring varied topographic profile, numerous lakes, extensive wooded areas of a primeval forest type and rich fauna and flora.

Table 1

Demografic data (in 2005) and the rate of unemployment (in June 2008) – country and regional data

PROVINCES	Population (in%)	Population per 1 km	Population in productive age	Population in non-productive age per 100 people in productive age	Unemployment rate (in %)	Total balance of migration per 1000 people
POLAND	100	122	24405,0	56	9,6	-0,3
Dolnośląskie	7,6	145	1894,7	52	10,1	-0,6
Kujawsko-pomorskie	5,4	115	1329,3	56	13,3	-1,0
Lubelskie	5,7	87	1348,6	62	11,0	-2,2
Lubuskie	2,6	72	659,8	53	11,7	-0,6
Łódzkie	6,8	141	1646,4	57	9,8	-0,7
Małopolskie	8,6	215	2046,6	60	7,4	1,0
Mazowieckie	13,5	145	3274,6	58	7,8	2,9
Opolskie	2,7	111	677,4	55	9,6	-3,0
Podkarpackie	5,5	118	1301,5	61	12,8	-1,1
Podlaskie	3,1	59	740,4	62	9,3	-1,6
Pomorskie	5,8	120	1414,9	55	8,9	-0,5
Śląskie	12,3	380	3063,1	53	7,4	-1,9
Świętokrzyskie	3,4	110	802,4	60	13,5	-1,7
Warmińsko-mazurskie	3,7	59	915,2	56	15,9	-2,2

Wielkopolskie	8,8	113	2179,2	55	6,3	0,7
Zachodniopomorskie	4,4	74	1110,9	53	13,4	-1,0

Source: Urząd Statystyczny w Olsztynie, Ludność, ruch naturalny i migracje w województwie warmińsko-mazurskim w 2005 r, Olsztyn 2006, s. 34-37; www.stat.gov.pl

It is the fourth largest in the country (24.20,3 km² that is 7,7% of Poland's area). The province comprises 116 gminas (communes), 19 land poviats (counties) and two cities with a poviat status (Olsztyn with 172.000 inhabitants and Elbląg – 130.000 inhabitants). The province is among the least populated regions despite the highest natural growth rate. This region ranks twelfth among polish provinces according to population (3,7% of Poland's population)-see table 1. 440 people per 1 km lived in cities in 2005 and only 24 persons in rural areas.

The Warmińsko-Mazurskie Province is one of the least economically-developed regions in Poland. This results from many factors, but first of all closure on early 90's of Former State Farms which used to manage over 50% of arable land resulted in the elimination of many jobs in agriculture and associated sectors. This brought long-term unemployment to the region (currently the unemployment rate in the province is 15,9%). Low industrialization of the region prior to the economic transformation did not allow for the creation of new jobs through 1990's while inflowing foreign investments were targeted at already-existing establishments and did not establish new start-up businesses. The characteristic features is that prevailing climatic and environmental conditions in comparison with other regions in Poland and Europe are not conducive to the development of agriculture and the climatic conditions have a negative impact on the development of traditional tourism. The region is characterized by poorly-developed infrastructure. In addition to problems relating to road transportoration (bad technical condition of roads, the province is situated off major international communication routes, the problem is lack of airport.

The province is ranked fourteenth among 16 regions according to economic potential. As the data GUS show participation of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita produced in the region is insignificant (2,8%). The participation of Warmia and Mazury region of Gross Value Added (GVA) is differentiated in individual sectors. The biggest producers are agricultural with forestry and fishery sectors (4%). The high position has also unmarket services (education, public health, public administration and national defense) – 3,7%. Industry concentrate 3% national employment merely and it supplies general value of production of sell industry 2,6%. The warmińsko-mazurskie province ranks among regions leading in the production of machines for plastic metalworking (46 % production national – the first place in Poland). The agricultural character of the region contributes

to the development of agri-food processing. The entire economy of region is characterized by low volumes of industrial sales and capital expenditure.

Private sector predominates among economic units (94,2%). The units of public sectors present 5,8%. Small and medium-sized companies predominate in structure of enterprises distinctly. Despite of this the region is characterized low ratio of companies per 1000 inhabitants. The average employment in sector of enterprises of province has amounted to 142,6 thousand persons and it has grown about 4,4% (the growth in country about 4,7% in 2006). The employment has fallen in public sector about 0,7%, however, it has grown about 5,0% private. The increase of number of workers has noticeable among majority sector, especially in hotels and restaurants (about 17,5%).

The high unemployment ratio in region and agricultural character of Warmia and Mazury caused outflow of population. Balance of migration is negative (in total both: local and foreign migrations). From 2000 to 2005 year it has deepened negative value from -2461 persons to -3098. Number of emigrant has grown within 5 year for 41,7% (Statistical Department, 2006). Despite of growth of number well-educated people (the percentage of people with higher education increased by over 14%) the development of human capital is slow so. As the data of reports of the Market economy research institutes in range of demographic conversion describing dynamics development the province is ranked fourteenth among 16 regions according to human capital. Dynamics of development of capital of human province included demographic conversions, level of knowledge, condition of health, range of social exclusion, enterprises of social activity and delinquency (Kalinowski, 2006).

Scientific and research potential is situated in the University of Warmia and Mazury in Olsztyn – the capital of region, however, edition on investigative activity in relation to GDP, total amount to below 0,5%.

2.2. The main objectives of the Strategy of Development of Warmińsko-Mazurskie Province

It is possible to define strategy of development of region as economic concept and social changes. It indicate from one part on purposes of development indicate, but from second on instrument of realization too.

The main objective of Strategy of Development of Warmińsko-Mazurskie Province is correction of economic cohesion of region (participation of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita at the level of 3%). It is also important to correct of space cohesion (regional inclusion to network of transport infrastructure in Poland and to trans-European network of transport) and social cohesion of region (creation of work-place for decrease of unemployment in region, increasing of

condition of life of population). Realization of main purpose base on realization correlated purpose: supporting of enterprises, education, technical infrastructure, restructuring of country area, development of tourism, attractiveness of residing, natural environment, heritage and culture.

The Regional Innovation Strategy of Innovative of province is processed one of aspect of regional strategy of development on year 2004-2013. The strategy aims to effectively stimulate regional resources in order to increase competitiveness of Warmia and Mazury. Because of people are the most valuable asset of each region, human capital is treat as a fundamental factor of regional development. Condition of this capital allows to realize following aspects of innovation: promoting high quality in range of production and offered services, promotion of co-operation between institutions equal and in national local dimension companies of provinces, as well as international; construction of innovative potential for enterprise of innovation meaning liquidation barrier and competition.

2.3. The role of human factor in the Regional Development Strategy for Warmia and Mazury Region

Problems of regional development are unusually important from the point of view of widely comprehended development including following aspect economic, social, ecological, spatial and culturally -historic. However, there is affirmation most important, that process of development is dependent from human factor (Potoczek, 2000). Human capital means stocks of knowledge, abilities, health and personal vital energy, defining human ability for self-development and development of social environment (Domański, 1991). It can be diagnosed by four basic criteria: education, professional activity and employment; analysis has revealed them in discussed region between individual administrative districts distinct disparities. Highest level of asset of human capital identify in administrative poviats: iławski, mrągowski and giżycki, then in Elbląg lowest, kętrzyński, nidzicki, szczycieński, and piski and elcki.

Average level of this index get to administrative poviats of regions remaining. Index of asset of human capital has accepted highest level with reference to cities for Elbląg and Olsztyn. Presented level of index of asset of human capital in warmińsko-mazurskie province is ranked this region on one of last place in Poland, therefore, realization regional measures for growth of level of human capital are very important task for support regional development (Waśniewska, 2007). It bets, that economic growth can not be treated in instrument of achievement only general possible social welfare, have decrease of scarcity on purpose by education start-up of operation, creation of productive work-place, social integration and renovations of natural environments, corrections of

social interactions and growth of sense of safety (Domański, 1991; Świątkiewicz, 2000). It does not lean human capital in effect strategy of development but it can generate completely. And so strategy of regional development formulated for the years 2004-2013 forecasts of growth of qualification in process of construction of economic potential of region. It is one of the strategic objectives, which includes increasing the level and quality of education in the population, creating jobs in high-tech sectors, creating “distant work” jobs in the region, retaining young educated people in the region, changing the attitude of region’s inhabitants to be more innovative. Valuable and unique human capital is factor stipulating not only development and also competitiveness of region.

Conclusions

Dynamics of regional development is important index provide position of region. It is distinctly scarce with reference to warmińsko-mazurskie province and it requires correction. As it is showed, the Warmińsko-Mazurskie Province is one of the least economically-developed regions in Poland. This results from many factors, among others, it is related with low of industrialization, slightly developed sector of market services, limited communication availability, low density of population and the highest unemployment ratio (closure of State Farms is the key determinants of this ratio). Considerable scale of intraregional disparity is additional load. Realization of regional development is composite process this type conditionality, long-range and not easy. Progress in social and economic activation of region requires liquidating of barrier, as well as taking of operation and in range programs restructuring and development of country area, creation of high levels of human capitals, advancements of educational initiatives, elevation of subjectivity, enterprise and innovative of inhabitant, corrections of social integrations and creation of productive work-places with taking into consideration natural environmental protection.

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RURAL BENCHMARKING – RAISING REGIONS MANAGEMENT AS A TOOL FOR REGIONAL DISPARITY SOLUTION

BENCHMARKING VENKOVA – ZKVALITŇOVÁNÍ MANAGEMENTU MIKROREGIONŮ JAKO NÁSTROJE PRO ŘEŠENÍ REGIONÁLNÍCH DISPARIT

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Abstract

Microregions are voluntary associations of municipalities with a different legal form of subjectivity. The common development of the area defined by cadastre area of municipalities involved in microregion. Microregions have elected bodies that are involved in strategic planning and implementation of single activities and projects. The cooperation is made by functional structure and regions specifics. The goal of cooperation is mainly aspiring for political and economical advantages implementation, initiation of positive growth trend or minimization of privations in rural regions progress. On the present there are functioning according the definition mentioned above circa 500 microregions and about 150 Local Action Groups in The Czech Republic.

Ideal and well functioning microregion and LAG development management fulfills coordinative, initiative, strategic and executive functions. The point of these associations is before all to pursue realization of political consensus and economic advantages, initiation of positive growth tendencies or minimization of negative impacts in development of rural regions. Therefore, it is necessary to perceive “professional“ development management not only as part of the microregion and LAG organizational structure, but also as a method through which activities/projects are initiated and realized in a particular region and as a system for evaluation of activities of microregions and LAGs from the point of view of their effect on development of areas in question.

Key words: Microregion, Local Action Group, benchmarking, management effectivity, sustainable development evaluation

Methods: Questionnaire, document analysis and in-depth analysis.

During the project the following activities are proceeded:

1. Strategic document of Microregions analysis, in light of principles of LA21 implementation;
2. Progress and implementation of sets of indicators for Microregions management and sustainable development evaluation – quantitative tools;
3. Microregions management efficiency analysis;
4. Progress and implementation of tools for microregional development self evaluating – qualitative tools;

Research in the Microregions and Local Action Groups in the Czech Republic

The research in microregions and LAGs in three cohesion regions (NUTS II) – Central Moravia, Central Bohemia and North-West – was carried out under the project RURAL BENCHMARKING – RAISING REGIONS MANAGEMENT AS A TOOL FOR REGIONAL DISPARITY SOLUTION. In 2007, we have collected data from 170 microregions and LAGs (from the total of 292 existing subjects in these regions). The aim was to obtain information for finding

typology of development management in microregions and LAGs and collecting basic data on functioning of these microregions and LAGs from the point of view of their strategic planning, project preparation, funding and performance evaluation. The research helped to reveal important aspects leading to description of ways of securing joint activities for development of the shared area and to describe functional relations between individual components as well as methods, procedures and styles of work these managements (microregions/LAGs) usually exploit and the results they accomplish.

Principles of Functioning of Municipality Associations:

Microregions and LAGs arise mainly as associations of municipalities surrounding a natural centre. They are, in a broader sense, a type of catchment areas. Although the size of microregions varies, more than a half of the studied areas consist of regions up to 10,000 inhabitants and 10 municipalities (only about 8.5% consist of more than 30 municipalities). Most of them were founded in 1999 – 2001 in connection with the amended Act No. 128/2000 Coll. on municipalities. In the following years the tendency to found microregions decreased, or there have been transformations of microregions into voluntary municipal associations in accord with the Act on municipalities.

Establishment, size and characteristics of LAG areas were clearly determined by the Leader Programme. In the studied regions most of them were founded in 2005 – 2007, especially due to popularization of the Leader Programme in rural areas and increasing amount of finance they could obtain for their purposes. The research results have shown that the average population is 33,500 in 11 – 20 municipalities (total of 38%), but these variables as well as LAG areas differ greatly. We can find large LAGs with more than 50 municipalities and 50,000 inhabitants. Compared to microregions, LAGs have a slightly lower density of population (92 inhabitants/km²), which reflects principles and methods of the Leader Programme oriented primarily on rural areas with low density of population. Generally speaking, as for the number of inhabitants, the size ratio of microregions and LAGs is about 2.5 x higher in favour of LAGs. It is necessary to point out, however, that LAGs and microregions are subjects which often exist in the same area, and sometimes they are even interconnected by common organization and functional structure of development management.

Reasons for Establishment:

It is mainly the joint interest of general development of their area that joins municipalities into microregions and LAGs (almost half of the questioned microregions and LAGs). Also, they are sometimes founded with a single aim, for example building a sewerage water treatment plant,

sewerage, or gas pipeline. This is, however, true of ever smaller part of these subjects which either finish their cooperation when the joint task is concluded or build their further cooperation on this basis. The responders mentioned reasons like cooperation of mayors, sharing information and experience, realization of the Renewal of Countryside Programme, and other areas (tourism, infrastructure and public transport, education) and realization of common development strategy, of course.

On the other hand, the answers show that some associations may arise out of expediency. The most common reason here is to increase the absorption capacity of an area by acquiring external finance through microregion and LAG management. In the extreme point of view we can see that as an effort to “get hold of money” which are being offered or may be offered in future.

Functioning of Development Management:

Generally speaking, in this area we can see personal experience of responders as well as dependence on financial situation of individual subjects. In one third of the studied subjects development management is secured by employees in labour-law relation, mostly accountants, chairmen, managers, coordinators and other administrative staff. One fifth of microregions have no employees at all and there is no remuneration for work. On the other hand, the majority of LAGs have “professional development management” which 60% of answers described as internal employees. Thus, comparing LAGs and microregions, the proportion of internal managerial staff is about 2:1. Their functions and roles consist especially in preparation of project documentation, securing day-to-day operation, public relations, promotion and coordination of activities with local businesses, non-profit organizations and other associations.

The results have also shown that external consulting is quite common although it is apparently more often used by microregions than LAGs (most often in areas of elaboration of project applications and strategic documentation). From the point of view of development management and especially of human resource capacity, we can not consider these results satisfactory if we see microregions and LAGs as one of basic means of development of rural areas. To eliminate these drawbacks it is necessary to secure well trained and informed “professional staff”, so called managers for rural areas, that would be committed to a particular region, react in time to its development needs, and engage beyond the processes of preparation and realization of particular projects (i.e. further than the research results have shown).

Process of Strategic Development Planning:

An overwhelming majority of microregions and LAGs have had development strategies elaborated with long-term plans, priorities, measures and sometimes even concrete development projects (only 20% of the studied subjects gave negative answers here). Almost half of all subjects have had a medium-term strategy elaborated (3 – 7 years), which corresponds to the EU programming term for drawing on structural funds of 2007 – 2013. The strategic plans were predominantly elaborated by external consulting companies (45% of all answers), only 18 subjects (10 microregions and 8 LAGs) stated that their plans had been elaborated by their internal professionals.

It is, however, difficult to interpret to what extent the individual strategies are “alive“ or “dead“ documents, or, in other words, how much they are really used in practice. Estimating roughly, about a third of plans could be labelled as “alive“ documents, i.e. such documents which are regularly updated or their fulfillment is evaluated through indicators or other means.

Public involvement in the strategy development process is rather half-hearted. Ironically, the largest group – unorganized general public – participates the least. When comparing organizing discussions with general public, the differences between microregions (12%) and LAGs (14%) are negligible. The hard core participants involve mayors of the associated municipalities (a quarter of all microregions and LAGs) and other local representatives. Another group, which is not always present, is formed by businessmen, farmers, or representatives of non-profit organizations.

Generally, most of the studied strategic plans focus on “hard“ investment goals like reconstruction, building of water mains or sewerage; “soft“, or non-investment, measures are less common. The answers frequently mentioned the area of tourism which can be seen as potentially the easiest for reaching agreement and establishing deeper cooperation of microregion and LAG members. From the answers, however, we can not conclude what exactly the responders mean by tourism and whether the proposed forms are in accord with sustainable development. Some understand tourism as building new cycle tracks, others mean reconstructing and building new sports facilities or material for promotion of tourism.

Funding for Microregion and LAG Activities:

These organizations are funded from both internal and external sources. As for internal sources, the research focused mainly on fees that microregions and LAGs collect from their members. Membership fees are more often used as funding source by microregions than LAGs. Nevertheless, more than 80% of all subjects use this kind of funding (and more than 60% of LAGs).

Where LAGs collect membership fees they are usually lower than those set by microregions. This is especially due to different ways of functioning of these organizations as well as slightly different types of funding of their development intentions. LAGs have wider options for obtaining finance from various programmes, including finance for day-to-day running and functioning of their organization.

Microregions most often derive fee amounts from the number of inhabitants in member municipalities. LAGs more often use a combination of the number of inhabitants per municipality and a determined amount according to type of subject (e.g. CZK 500 per natural person, CZK 1,000 per municipality + CZK 3 per inhabitant). Still, the membership fees form but a minor part of total receipt and expenditure figures in most of the studied subjects (they amount only up to 25% of total receipt and expenditure figures). Speaking about total receipt and expenditure figures, we can confirm that most subjects showed higher receipts than expenditures in 2006 (56:44 in favour of subjects with higher receipts than expenditures).

Experience with drawing upon external funding sources for development (subsidies, grants) varies greatly in individual subjects. However, it is apparent that experience with drawing upon regional sources (related especially to the Renewal of Countryside Programme) is generally the most common.

Common Activities:

The most frequent form of microregion and LAG assistance to their “members“ consists of providing information on grant titles. It was interesting to see concrete forms of assistance from microregion and LAG management to municipalities, businesses and non-profit organizations in the area of subsequent elaboration of projects. These projects were more often mentioned by LAGs than microregions, a fact probably related to different extent of securing professional development management.

Evaluation of microregions

In 2007 we realized also the study focuses on analyses of selected tools used for evaluation of microregion management and usage of sustainable development indicators in public administration in The Czech Republic and abroad. This applies mainly to municipal and community levels where some evaluation tools have already come into practical usage. To a certain extent, some of these tools can also be used on the microregion level. The study is complemented by some indicator sets used for evaluation of management performance and efficiency in private sector.

Tools for evaluation of development management:

Although using indicators on local and regional level is not very common in the CR, it is important to evaluate microregions. Indicators are measurable criteria which – if chosen correctly – facilitate transforming complicated facts into simpler but still meaningful information. They enable comparison with recommended figures, legislative regulations, comparison between towns and regions or measuring of cost effectiveness in relation to the set goals. Such information, especially of a quantitative character, is a reliable measure of progress in the set direction. It also enables us to see whether the taken steps are in accord with sustainability concepts. The information may be useful in decision making not only on the public administration level but also for the public itself and other actors. As for the management of microregions, it is useful to compare the performance and quality (effectiveness) parameters in individual areas under public administration and from these derive and apply measures for a change. This is what benchmarking serves for.

There are two possible perspectives for evaluation of microregions from which two basic groups of indicators can be derived. The first focuses on management functioning and performance (management indicators), the second is concerned with state and development (sustainability indicators). These two groups complement each other and overlap as it is generally assumed that effective management enhances sustainability and quality of life.

Theoretically, the criteria for development and usage of indicators for evaluating local sustainable development are well-known. With experience from these sets of indicators we can draw some general recommendations for development of “new” indicators. They can be produced by various methods – monitoring, statistic surveys, calculations, simulations, etc. – but they must be scientifically well-grounded and result from a clearly defined methodology. They should meet criteria like significance, credibility, representativeness, cost effectiveness, transparency and clarity. It is always necessary to consider the options for data collection and choose between programme (performance) indicators and normative ones. The first type – also known as ex ante indicators – set the target levels for monitored issues (e.g. a target limit for pollution concentration). The second type, also known as ex post indicators, enable us to establish time-series (e.g. a description of development of pollution concentration in the last few years).

Other techniques and methods, examined in the study for the purpose of future development of an indicator set for microregions, focus more on the management itself. One of the possible sources is Agenda 21. Local Agendas 21 stand for voluntary programmes for sustainable development in particular municipalities and regions attempting to initiate processes of sustainable

development and improve quality of life and practical policies of environmental protection. The programmes are based on co-operation of a wide range of actors – i.e. citizens, public administration, profit-making and non-profit organizations. Although the Agenda 21 criteria do not assure a successful MA 21 process, they provide microregions with guidance to ensure this Agenda within their administration. For realization of activities based on the principle of partnership, it is necessary to have enough political support, to create some organizational background, and to follow certain management and organization procedures for public involvement in planning, decision making and realization of activities. Regular meetings, strategic planning and management are also of high importance for these procedures.

For the methodology of evaluation of microregion management, it is also possible to apply the Balanced Scorecard method which is often used for assessment of company performance or in those sectors of public administration managed in a similar way. This method can reveal to what extent all different activities arising from particular strategic documents on various levels lead in the same direction or, in other words, how different strategic goals are harmonized.

The CAF method (Common Assessment Framework) is another example of a similar and relevant existing evaluation tool. It consists in a simple procedure that helps public administration exploit methods of quality management through self-evaluation of office employees. The employees from different levels of management identify strong and weak points and suggest areas for improvement according to defined perspectives which compare assumptions and actual outcomes (e.g. impacts of management and control on client-oriented results). Similarly, the CAG method is designed for non-profit organizations.

Current utilization of evaluation tools on microregional level in the Czech Republic:

The analysis also looks into utilization of evaluation tools (evaluation indicators especially) in strategic planning. According to surveys carried out under this research project, indicators on the micro-region level are only seldom used in practice in the CR. Out of 38 studied development strategic documents and action plans only 8 micro-regions have been using evaluation indicators. At the same time, the emphasis on importance and processing of these indicators in documentation differs considerably. In the better cases the indicators are assigned exact monitoring units, data sources and descriptions of monitoring methodology. In other cases it is more like recording trends instead of actual benefits, or the indicators are not actually measured or they are, in fact, unmeasurable. Usually, the monitoring results concerning the observed strategies are published in annual reports. Most strategies, which do not use indicators, develop set goals and priorities through

concrete measures, other complement them by subjects responsible for their realization and deadlines.

Conclusion

The following phase of the project will consist in an in-depth analysis of 18 selected microregions and LAGs, which will serve as a basis for professionalization and improvement of their development management. Analysing microregions should contribute to development of a methodology for evaluation of microregions from the point of view of management efficiency and accordance with sustainable development principles. In other words, the research is a source for further development, testing and implementation new methods on the microregion level. The project funded by Ministry for Regional Development is realized by Centre for Community Organizing and the Institute for Environmental Policy.

RURAL DEVELOPMENT, LANDSCAPE AND EFFECT OF COMMON AGRICULTURAL POLICY

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Abstract

Our study was focused on territory of the Upper river basin Morava river. We tested introduction of new measures to the rural area. We evaluated some instruments of implementation measures to reality and looked for answer – “Which indicators are crucial for rural development?” The results can be very important for the National Network of Rural Development, which is going to be established this year. The sustainable rural development is based on three pillars that are connected by many relations. The possibility determines the share of risks to facilitate the application of appropriate land-use methods in harmony with the natural potential of landscape. The aim was to prepare a quality material for the decision and planning process in the landscape, with precise and technically usable outputs in the area of territorial planning and investment planning within regional development. Whole process involves a discussion of multi sectors linked to landscape and rural and regional development. Concepts for “Landscape projects” need to solve conflicts and require increasing acceptance the acceptance of rural population. The Czech study is Research intention MZE0002725101 in the sphere of rural development like separate part n. 9. In section “New methodology equipments development” UZEI [1]

Key words: Water management, indicators of sustainable rural development, policy instruments, factor analyses.

Introduction

The rural development and agricultural sector goes hand in hand with economical impulse, environmental requirements, measure of knowledge and habits. These environmental requirements come from the Rural development plan like condition of direct payments or like Pillar 2 aiming at applying environmentally friendly farming practices. There are other obligations e.g. Natura 2000, Kyoto protocol, European or National standards. From point of view is necessary preserve to protect environment and natural resources. The aim of the study “Review of Rural Development Instruments” (DG Agri project 2006-G4-10) was doing assessment of the targeting and effectiveness of existing rural development instruments. The main aims were review existing rural development intervention rationales and instruments and assess whether and how these should be adapted to deliver rural development more effectively, considering:

- targeting and effectiveness of existing rural development instruments
- correspondence - the extent to which existing policy instruments correspond to policy objectives
- how new or improved policy instruments and delivery mechanisms could improve policy effectiveness. [2]

Very similar target had our projects ILUP Pomoraví on local level. We tried to detect “gaps” in rural areas and solution focus on this three points of view (targeting, corresponding and advice).

The vision of the project ILUP Pomoravi was implementation of integrated land-use planning in the river basin Moravia river according to principles of sustainable rural development.

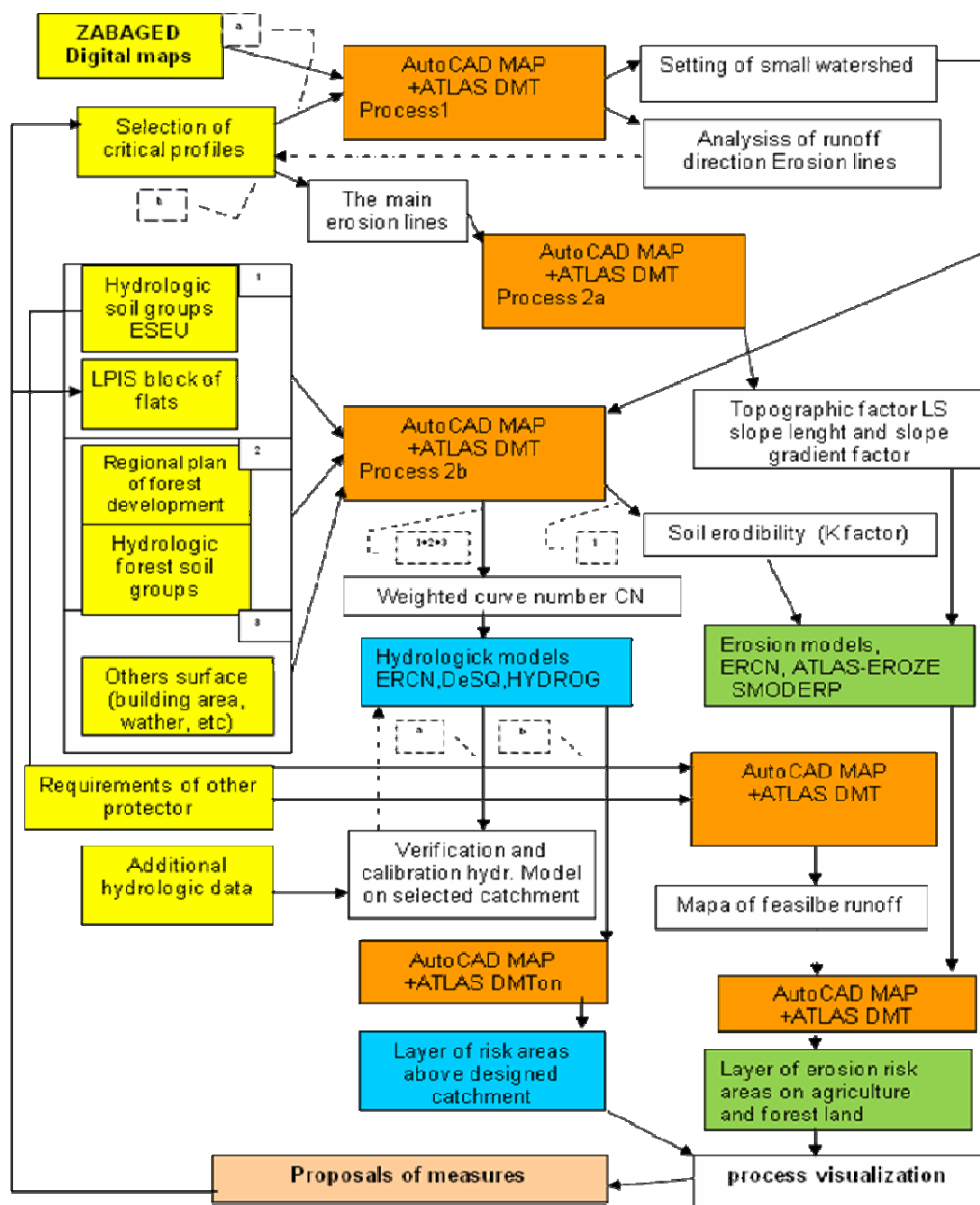
The aims of the project were to improve flood prevention and decrease negative soil erosion caused by rainfalls, to propose concrete landscape arrangements in the area including economical aspects of these proposals. Implementation the project outputs into an “area information system” allows an effective managing of obtained data and their practice using for all users. [3]

Methods

Original methodology was developed in the project. Integrated river basin management as a new efficient planning tool might have become a useful base for the strategy. Common proposals of measures in landscape come from water, forest and agricultural management. The first step is elaboration of the “Landscape project” with the expert’s team. The team respects nature prevention demands and development of rural enterprise activities. The second step was the development of the methods for practical implementation of the measures mainly according to the Rural Development Plan 2007 – 2013. All process involves a discussion of multi branches linked to landscape and rural and regional development. Concepts for the “Landscape projects” need to solve conflicts and require the increasing of the acceptance of rural population. Among project users belong municipality mayors; enterprises, agricultural and forest subjects, LAGs, regional authorities and others.

Typically, the key environmental resources of most concern in respect of rural development activities and aims would include biodiversity, landscapes, water, soils and air. Important characteristics would thus include the state and trends in these resources (quantity and quality) in recent years. Also of interest are indicators which illustrate how specifically rural activities, such as agriculture, are influencing these trends. [3]

GIS methods for evaluation of erosion and runoff characteristic in given watershed is on the picture no. 1. Outputs of the analyses and proposals were created for all upper river basin Moravia river (3600 km²). [3]



Picture no. 1 Flowchart: GIS methods for evaluation of erosion and runoff characteristic [3]

The project outputs assess background for planning, evaluation of urgency for solution. Next step was examination of proposal measures with possibility to realize them. This approach extended overview on sustainable rural development.

A group of experts in Czech Republic via participation methods chose and approved a set of indicators for sustainable rural development for three pillars (environmental, socio- demographic, economic). The set was filled from different sources like statistics, adaption data from website, interviews, and outputs of project ILUP Pomoraví.

The following evaluation results in project used a rich database. The paper deals with multicriterial analysis of the countryside. Factor Analysis (FA) contributes to the analysis. Wide set of the data's both socio-demographic and envi of 64 villages in the Pomoraví region as well as opinions of 1084 inhabitants of region served as the object of analysis. The matrices of the sustainable development of the country (MSDC) were compiled from both of them. Interpretation of the results and the next possibilities of FA were described in five steps. [4] The large amount of the results was derived from the systematization of indicators and few segments of them were expressed in the paper, namely the specification and numeration of the multiple regression of the indicators and the evaluation of the villages. This evaluation was derived from the simultaneous use of the system weighs, detected by FA, and the subjective exogenous weighs entering by the experts.

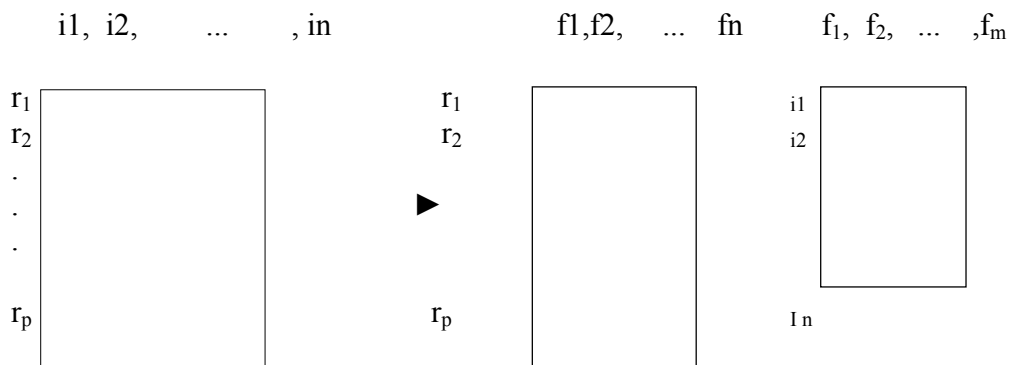
Scheme FA appeared from indicators data matrix [4]

Number evaluated indicators $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$;

Number of informants $r = 1, 2, \dots, p$;

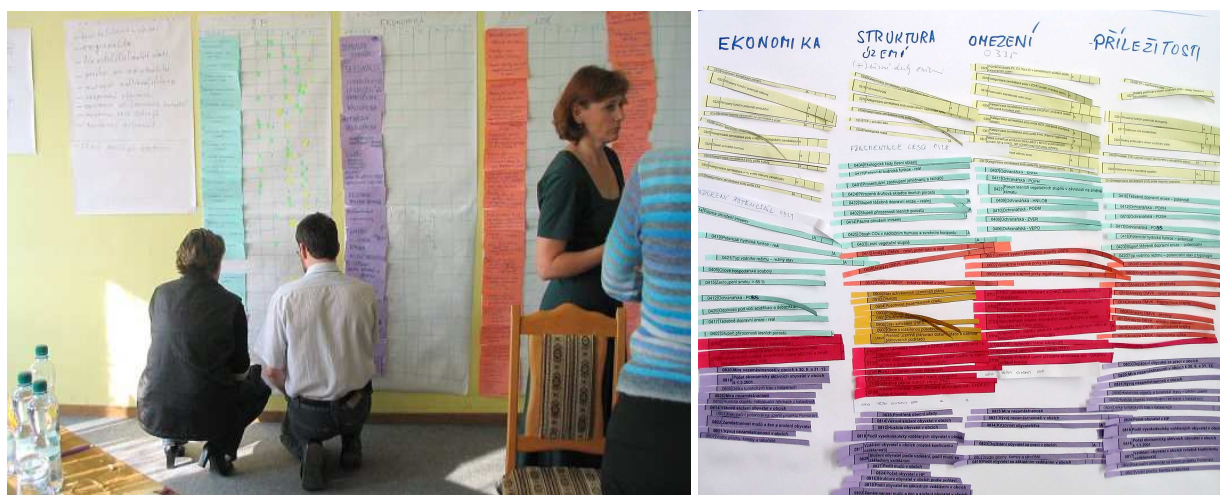
Number of factors (new generalized indicators) $f = 1, 2, \dots, m$; $(n > m), (p \gg n)$.

The first step was evaluation from n indicators for p informants m new factors. Every of them has grid line.



There was computed m new generalized indicators for every informants. Second step was computed correlation among beginning and new indicators. The correlation are simultaneously regression coefficient and every beginning indicators from i_1 to i_n we can imply like weighted sum of factors from f_1 to f_m . There is weighted calculated correlation. Following step is calculation stress of factors. The stress is valid for incremental system and we can call them as systematic.

Very important is interpretation of results FA, which is created via participation methods.



Picture no. 2. The illustration of selecting indicators via participation process.

Results

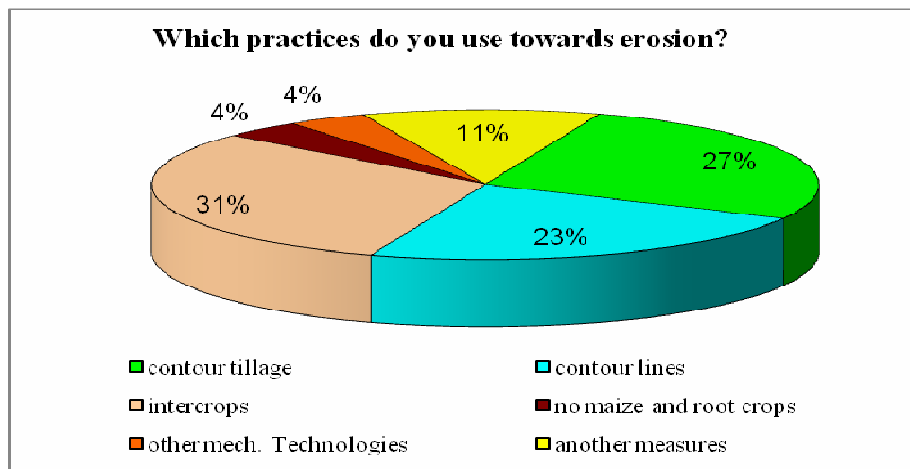
Assessments appear from analysing the complexity of elements, factors and interactions presented in rural territories and to understand the key variables in their current. The multicriterial access of Factor Analysis with following interpretation can help to describe a system identifying influence relations among the different existing elements, through a collective reflection process.

An obtained data about rural life and development were used like coordinate vectors of variables – 1084 columns. Indicators were separated to two pillars (socio-demographic S-D and environmental ENVI). The interpretation quality and quantity all coefficients create significant potential for other analyses. The economic pillar was evaluated separately and next year will be involved in the complex assessment.

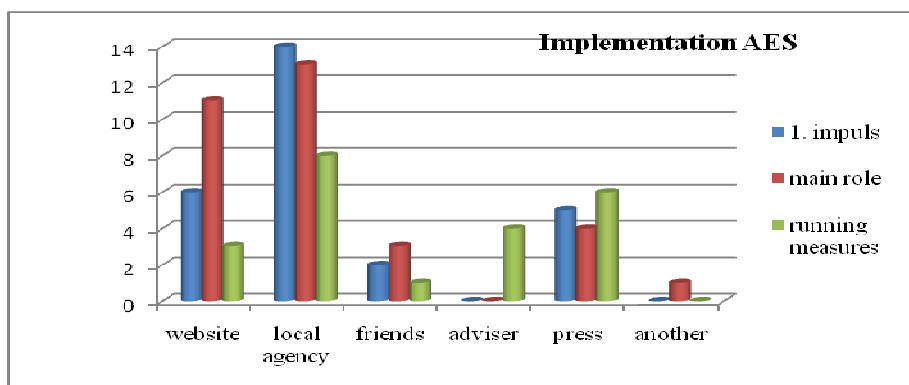
Illustration of few results from the economic pillar

Testing by mathematics model in particular farms was the preparation of the economic data. This tool enables to search optimal farm structure in connection to maximizing profit or other possible solution for precise management of farms. Implementation of agro-environmental schemas brings higher profit (20%) and some change structure in farm with keeping the main products. Optimisation of farm structure with deep change can bring higher profit (110%), but there is not count cost of investments on new technology. There were special questionnaires addressed to 20 selected farms. We examined farmer's opinion on natural and soil protection, water erosion, requirements and opportunities of agriculture policy. The most farmers know environmental

situation in their area, etc. , arosion problem on arable land, but willingness to implement certain measures is very small.



Graph no. 1 Question from survey in farmers in ILUP Pomoraví 2005



Graph no. 2 Result of interview with farmers in ILUP Pomoraví 2006, There were question:
 Who delivered first information about agro-envi schems?
 Which information sources have for you the key role?
 Who provided you the main help during the realisation of measures?

Illustration of few results from the socio-dem. pillar (SD)

The (FA) Corresponding indicator with the highest correlation can be a factor to interpret with high accuracy. This indicator is possible to consider as a representative of the factor. New computed independent factors/vectors create system perpendiculars which can qualify all original indicators. It makes possible to monitor only some indicators (30, 50%) and reproduce more (70 - 90%) original indicators. FA assists to find existence or no existence of statistical significant correlation and to quantify multiple linear regressions. The highest value of indicator SD belongs to the population (0,98). Its weight is extremely high (18,59) and involves variability of more then 18 indicators. Other very significant factors were the total accession of inhabitants, average age

survival, number of applications for community, quality of services, number of present individual recreation and others.

Illustration of few results from the environmental pillar (ENVI)

The highest value of the indicator ENVI land use is the proportion permanent grassland, arable land, forest (11,04), altitude, price of land, water regime, air pollution - emission levels, total length of roads according to categories, index stability landscape, coefficient soil quality, index scattered vegetation incident water course or roads.

Conclusions

1. Data analyses from the project ILUP Pomoraví involve 300 000 pieces of information which were evaluated from many points of view. It involved measurable and immeasurable (inhabitant's position) indicators.
2. Multicriterial assessment e. g. Factor Analysis and following interpretation by participation methods can create a view on rural area on the whole.
3. FA can reduce costs of monitoring and evaluation indicators to sustainable development.
4. Multiple regress disclosed many statistical relationships among measurable or immeasurable indicators, objects or municipalities.
5. Further research needs to gather long-term comparable information on implementation costs of different measures, hard and soft results and impacts of RD actions, and the best approaches for recording and evaluation. Further research needs to examine the relationship between RD funding and the funding from the EU-regional and national sources, in more detail. [2]
6. The working group of project recommends some simplification to improve coherent application. Some measures represent variations on a common theme which could be combined (e.g. training and advice).

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FURTHER EDUCATION OF TEACHERS IN THE SYSTEM OF LIFE-LONG EDUCATION

PEDAGOGU TĀLĀKIZGLĪTĪBA MŪŽIZGLĪTĪBAS SISTĒMĀ

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Abstract

The twenty first century is characterized by changes in the life of society caused by the process of globalization, development of science and technology, especially information technologies. With this, today the importance of education increases and becomes topical.

The aim – to develop scientifically founded, sustainable and corresponding to the today's requirements proposals, principles and structure for further education of teachers and the methodical support system that ensures co-ordinated and corresponding to every teacher's needs further education possibilities and kinds in the system of life-long education. Participation of Latvia in the global processes of the today's world requires essential reevaluation of aims and tasks of the educational system – to ensure modernization of the system of education, to introduce new content and methods of education. The mentioned activities are related to training of new teachers and further education possibilities, development of new study programs that would provide the development of competitive and flexible labor force. Therefore, maximal attention is devoted to the development of teacher education and professional competency, improvement of their social status.

The aim of the research – to analyze theoretically and to test practically and to substantiate the necessity of further education in compliance with the changing requirements in the professional competency of teachers. To understand the necessity for further education as a new reality.

Key words: further education, life-long education, life-wide education, programs of teacher education.

Ievads

Cilvēka pamatkapitāls ir izglītība. Latvija ir valsts ar samērā nelielu iedzīvotāju skaitu, tāpēc tai savs intelektuālais potenciāls jāizmanto pārdomāti. Izglītībai ir fundamentāla loma personības attīstībā un valsts ekonomiskam uzplaukumam nākotnē.

Pedagogu kvalifikācijas pilnveide ir aktuāls jautājums, jo tā aptver izglītības un tālākizglītības procesu un kopumā ir viens no izglītības sistēmas attīstības un modernizācijas nozīmīgākajiem faktoriem. Tas nozīmē, ka izglītības sistēmas darbības efektivitāte un atdeve vispirms ir atkarīga no pedagogu sagatavotības līmeņa, viņu atbilstības darbam.

Prasme papildināt savas zināšanas ir viens no būtiskākajiem priekšnoteikumiem mūžizglītības idejas īstenošanai. Mūsdienās arvien biežāk tiek lietots jēdziens „sabiedrība, kas mācās”, “zinību sabiedrība”, akcentējot mācīšanās nepārtrauktību visa cilvēka mūža garumā. Informācijas un tehnoloģiju straujā attīstība prasa sevis mobilizāciju jaunu zināšanu, iemaņu un prasmju apguvi visa mūža garumā. Mūžizglītība ir izglītības process cilvēka dzīves garumā, ko rosina sabiedrības mainīgās vajadzības un nepieciešamība iegūt zināšanas, prasmes un pieredzi personības izaugsmes kontekstā. Izglītība veicina izpratni par procesiem mūsdienu sabiedrībā.

Latvijas Izglītības koncepcijā izglītība tiek definēta sekojoši „Izglītība ir mērķtiecīgs personības attīstības process un rezultāts. Tā ir cilvēka mūža laikā notiekošā izglītošanās un izglītošana, kā rezultātā veidojas cilvēka garīgā un fiziskā kvalitāte – izglītība. Izglītība ir personiska, sabiedriska un vispārcilvēciska pamatvērtība” (Latvijas izglītības koncepcija, 1997). Atvērtas izglītības koncepcija un mūžizglītība (life-long education, life-long learning) kļūst par vienu no svarīgākajām un vadošajām nostādnēm 20.gs.otrajā pusē.

Rakstā analizēta un apkopota pedagogu tālākizglītības pieredze Latvijas Lauksaimniecības universitātē (LLU) un skaidrots, kā šī problēma risināta Izglītības un mājsaimniecības institūtā (IMI). Analizēti mūžizglītības politikas mērķi, pamata principi un īstenošanas iespējas, virzieni un veidi mūžizglītības sistēmā.

Problēma

21. gadsimtā mūžizglītība ir kļuvusi par sabiedriski nozīmīgu problēmu ne tikai Latvijā, bet arī globālā mērogā. Tas ir daudzveidīgs izglītošanās process, kas izriet no indivīda un sabiedrības vajadzībām. Zināšanas ir izvirzījušās cilvēka darbības, attīstības un sociālo pārmaiņu centrā. Tās nodrošina personības attīstību, pašrealizācijas iespējas un konkurētspēju darba tirgū.

Visos vēstures posmos lielā mērā tieši no pedagogu profesionalitātes ir atkarīgs tautas izglītības un kultūras līmenis. Pedagogi ir tā sabiedrības daļa, kuriem vienmēr ir bijis svarīgi būt informētiem par aktuālo, tāpēc zināšanu pilnveidei ir pievērsta liela uzmanība.

Latvijas iekļaušanās mūsdienu pasaules globālajos procesos liek būtiski pārvērtēt izglītības sistēmas mērķus un uzdevumus – nodrošināt izglītības sistēmas modernizāciju, panākt jauna izglītības satura un metodikas ieviešanu. Minētie pasākumi saistīti ar topošo pedagogu sagatavošanu un tālākizglītības iespējām, jaunu studiju programmu izstrādi, kas nodrošinātu konkurētspējīga un elastīga darbaspēka attīstību un palīdzētu novērst sociālo nevienlīdzību. Tādēļ maksimāla uzmanība tiek veltīta pedagogu izglītības un profesionālās meistarības pilnveides sistēmas attīstībai, viņu sociālā statusa paaugstināšanai.

Latvijā tiek veikti vairāki pasākumi mūžizglītības sistēmas attīstībai, tai skaitā, arī nacionālās mūžizglītības stratēģijas izstrāde, kuras galvenais mērķis ir radīt vienotas pamatnostādnes mūžizglītības principu attīstībai.

Iespēja iegūt kvalitatīvu izglītību un to regulāri pilnveidot lielā mērā ir saistīta ar valsts izglītības politiku, ko tā realizē ar atbilstošu dokumentu izstrādi un, galvenais, īstenošanu dzīvē. Latvijā pastāv mūžizglītības normatīvā un institucionālā bāze, taču tā netiek pienācīgi koordinēta. Pētījumā no visu izglītības sistēmu reglamentējošo dokumentu klāsta tika atlasīti tie, kas attiecas uz mūžizglītību un pedagogu tālākizglītības programmu izstrādi un realizāciju.

Viens no problēmu risinājuma veidiem, ko īsteno LLU IMI, ir piedāvāt pedagogiem iesaistīties Eiropas sociālā fonda (ESF) finansētos projektos un LLU Mūzikizglītības centra organizētos pedagogu tālākizglītības kursus, lai sekmētu pedagoģiskās meistarības pilnveidi, jo modernās tehnoloģijas attīstās ļoti strauji, tāpēc svarīgi attīstīt tālākizglītību kā mūzikizglītības sastāvdaļu. Raksta autore lielāku uzmanību pievēršusi to pedagogu darba analīzei, kuri iesaistīti pedagogu tālākizglītībasursos, lai pilnveidotu savu profesionālo kompetenci, un tam, kā kursu dalībnieki vērtē tālākizglītības programmu satura apguvi.

Materiāli un metodes

Izglītības attīstība ir vērsta uz sabiedrības ilgtspējīgu attīstību, ar to saprotot saskaņotu, sistemātiski plānotu, uz pašizpēti balstītu personības pilnveidi orientētu procesu. Izglītības paradigmas maiņa raksturīgas ar izmaiņām izglītības filozofijā, ar jaunu domāšanas modeli, zinātnisku pasaules redzējumu, pasaules izglītības attīstības kopainu, vērtību izpratni un to apzināšanos (Šmite A., 2006.)

Pētījums veikts ilgākā laika posmā (no 2002.g.), bet rakstā analizēti jaunākie pētījumu rezultāti par 2007. – 2008. gadu. Tajā tika iesaistīti Latvijas vispārizglītojošo skolu 227 pedagogi no Alūksnes, Cēsu, Daugavpils, Jelgavas, Rēzeknes un Rīgas skolām.

Pētījuma mērķis – teorētiski izanalizēt, praktiski pārbaudīt un pamatot kvalitatīvas tālākizglītības piedāvājumu pedagogiem, kas nodrošina kompetences darbam, pilsoniskai līdzdalībai un sekmē uz zināšanām balstītas sabiedrības izveidi.

Rakstā veikti teorētiski pētījumi saistībā ar mūzikizglītības jēdziena izpratnes skaidrojumiem zinātniskajā literatūrā, izstrādāta un aprobēta pedagogu tālākizglītības programma – Inovācijas pedagoģijā. Aptaujas rezultātā noskaidrots pedagogu viedoklis par profesionālās kompetences pilnveides nepieciešamību, analizēta tālākizglītības piedāvājuma un kvalitātes atbilstība sabiedrības vajadzībām un personības iespējām. Apkopota personiskās pieredzes refleksija. Pētniecības metožu izvēlē tika respektētas kognitīvās mācīšanās teorijas atziņas, apkopojot iepriekšējo pētnieku (Lanstrupa, 2002; Koķes, 1999; Lieģenieces, 2002; Preta, 2000 u.c.) pieredzi šajā jomā. Pedagogu tālākizglītības stratēģijas pētīšanai un kompetences pilnveides noskaidrošanai tika izmantota aptaujas anketa. Datu apstrādē un analīzē izmantotas MS Excel statistikas funkcijas.

Autore uzskata, ka cilvēkam jāpilnveidojas visa mūža garumā un plašumā, jo savādāk viņš nespēs pielāgoties straujajām pārmaiņām, ar kurām viņam nāktos saskarties dzīves laikā.

Pētījuma metodoloģisko pamatu veido:

1. tālākizglītība mūžizglītības kontekstā – Blūma D.(1997), Broks A.(2000), Jarvis P.(1999), Koķe T.(2005), Kravele M.(2006), Lieģeniece D.(2002), Šmite A.(2004) Tuijnman A.C.(1996);
2. andragoģijas teorijas – Delors Ž.(2001), Koķe T.(1999), Lieģeniece D.(2002), Svence G.(2003);
3. izglītības vadības jaunākās nostādnes – Beļickis I.(1995), Broks A.(2000), Fulans M.(1999), Gudjons H.(1998), Šmite A.(2004);
4. tālākizglītības programmu raksturīgākās iezīmes un metodes darbā ar pieaugušajiem – Lonstrupa B.(2002), Koķe T.(1999), Prets D.(2000), Rogers A.(1996), u.c.

Mūžizglītības izpratnes un redzējuma skaidrojums

Darbs izglītībā prasa nepārtrauktu pamatzināšanu papildināšanu, paplašināšanu un pamatprasmju pilnveidi, patstāvīgu to attīstīšanu, izglītošanos vienmēr un visur. M.Fulans (1999) īpaši uzsver pedagoga lomu izglītības konceptuālās attīstības īstenošanai. Pedagoģi savā būtībā ir izglītības rosinātāji un īstenotāji. To viņš veic ar apzinātu mērķi, ar savām zināšanām un spēju virzīt un ietekmēt dzīvi, ar izpratni par mūsdienu sabiedrību un tās pretrunām. Visvairāk uzmanības ir jāvelta tieši pedagoga personības pilnveidei, jo no tā ir atkarīga izglītības mērķu sasniegšana.

Aktuāla problēma ir pedagoģiskās izglītības kvalitāte. Pedagoģiem ir jāmaina sava domāšana, jāpilnveido kompetence, lai audzinātu atbildīgu, radošu, mācīties spējīgu jauno paaudzi. Nevar pastāvēt mācīties spējīga sabiedrība bez mācīties spējīga skolotāja (Fulans, 1999, 15-17). Doma, ka izglītības procesam ir jāturpinās visu mūžu, nav jauna. Sabiedrības attīstības vērieni liek arvien nopietnāk pievērsties tālākizglītības jautājumam un meklēt optimālākos risinājumus, kā organizēt un nodrošināt mūžizglītības iespējas visplašākam cilvēku lokam (Koķe, 2000, 7-11). Tāpēc ikvienam ir nepieciešams iegūt jaunas zināšanas. Izglītība vairs nav attiecināma uz kādu konkrētu vecuma posmu. Pieaug cilvēka vajadzība bagātināt sevi. Tas ir pamats personības pašrealizācijai. Informācijas un jaunu tehnoloģiju laikmetā strauji mainās arī pedagoga profesionālās darbības specifika un profesionalitāte. Arvien vairāk pedagoģi sastopas ar situāciju, kad iegūtā izglītība ir nepietiekama, lai pilnvērtīgi iekļautos mūsdienu dzīves aprītē. Lai pilnvērtīgi dzīvotu, jāmacās visu mūžu (Delors, 2001, 91).

Mūžizglītība ir viena no aktualitātēm izglītības politikā. Tās mērķis ir nodrošināt katram iedzīvotājam izglītības pieejamību jebkurā dzīves posmā un jomā, neatkarīgi no viņa vecuma, iepriekšējās izglītības, dzīves vietas un ienākumu līmeņa (Koķe, 2006).

„Mūžizglītības memorandā” tiek uzsvērts, ka termins „mūžizglītība” (life-long learning, life-long education) ir izglītība mūža garumā. Minēto terminu bagātina izglītība mūža plašumā (life-

wide education). Mūžizglītības izpratne saistīta ne tikai ar profesionālās kompetences paaugstināšanu, bet arī ar personības attīstību, jo katram cilvēkam ir neierobežots iespēju potenciāls.

Valsts dokumentos un normatīvajos aktos ir uzsvērtā izglītības nozīme kā garants zinātņu ietilpīgas tautsaimniecības attīstībai (Mūžizglītības memorands, Mūžizglītības politikas pamatnostādnes 2000. – 2013.gadam, Nacionālās attīstības plāns 2007. – 2013.gadam). Cilvēkresursi ir lielākā valsts bagātība. Dokumentos formulēta arī nepieciešamība attīstīt izglītības sistēmu, kas veicinātu uz zināšanām balstītas, demokrātiskas un sociāli integrētas sabiedrības attīstību.

A.C.Tuijnman (Tuijnman, 1996) mūžizglītības jēdzienu skaidro kā visu izglītības potenciālu, ko cilvēks kā sabiedrības loceklis un arī kā indivīds var iegūt visa mūža garumā, paredzot daudzveidīgu izglītības satura tematisko, ieguves veidu un līdzekļu spektru, kas atrodas ārpus tradicionālās izglītības sistēmas.

Mūžizglītības procesā var izdalīt trīs pamata kategorijas: formālā izglītība, neformālā izglītība un informālā izglītība jeb ikdienas dzīves zināšanu papildinājums, kas var būt gan apzināts, gan neapzināts.

Tālākizglītībai kā mūžizglītības sistēmas sastāvdaļai nozīme ar katru gadu pieaug. LR Izglītības likumā (1998) un Pedagoģijas terminu skaidrojošā vārdnīcā (2000) tālākizglītība tiek definēta kā iepriekšējās izglītības turpināšana un profesionālās meistarības pilnveide atbilstoši konkrētās profesijas prasībām. Tālākizglītības jēdziens apzīmē izglītības turpināšanu un profesionālās meistarības pilnveidošanu pēc formālās izglītības ieguves un darba gaitu uzsākšanas. Tās mērķis ir profesionālo zināšanu, prasmju un kompetences pilnveidošana formālajā vai neformālajā izglītības sistēmā.

Pozitīvi vērtējamas ir LLU Mūžizglītības centra piedāvātās profesionālās pilnveides programmas pedagogiem. Jāņem vērā, ka programmas ir ar dažādu stundu skaitu un mācību ilgumu. Pedagogs ir reglamentēta profesija valstī, un valsts nosaka prasības izglītībai, kvalifikācijai, profesionālajai meistarībai, tās pilnveidei.

Īstenojot tālākizglītības programmas, mūžizglītības sistēmā ir vairākas priekšrocības, piemēram, mācību elastīgums un dažādība, laika un vietas izvēle atbilstoši programmas apguves dalībnieku vēlmēm u.c.

Rezultātu analīze un diskusija

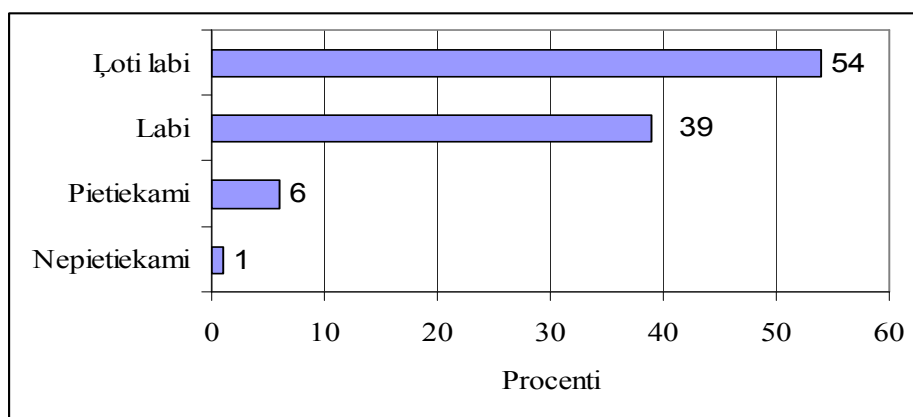
Programmu veidošana nav viegla nodarbošanās. Tā prasa pārzināt attiecīgo zinātņu nozaru attīstību, izpētīt sabiedrības vajadzības un brīvi orientēties mērķgrupas īpatnībās, attīstībā, kā arī pārzināt laikmeta pārmaiņas. Izglītības programma ir dokuments, kas atbilstoši izglītības pakāpei,

veidam, mērķgrupai un valsts izglītības standartam un attiecīgajiem normatīviem nosaka izglītības iestādes piedāvāto izglītības saturu, tās apguves procesa nosacījumus un nodrošinājumu, pamatojoties uz vietējo vajadzību un apstākļu izpēti un to maiņas iespējām (Andersone, 2007).

LLU Mūzikizglītības centra piedāvāto tālākizglītības programmu izstrādes atbilst izglītības normatīvo dokumentu prasībām un ir orientētas uz noteiktu mērķauditoriju. Tām raksturīga humānpedagoģiska pieeja – galvenais ir cilvēka personības attīstības veicināšana. Programmas realizācijas mērķis ir radīt zinātniski pamatotu, ilgtspējīgu, mūsdienu prasībām atbilstošu pedagogu tālākizglītības un metodiskā atbalsta sistēmu.

Izglītības paradigmas maiņas apstākļos nepieciešams izvērst un aktivizēt tālākizglītības darbu. Šajā sakarā tiek izstrādātas jaunas programmas, darbojas dažādi kursi, semināri, nodarbību cikli. Mūsdienās izglītības programmu izstrāde ir ļoti dinamiska un spēj dot pedagogiem praktiskus un efektīvus padomus, jo iepazīstina ar pieredzi, kas mācīšanas un mācīšanās procesā ir uzkrāta pēdējos gados. Tā ir diskusija par teorētisko un metodisko priekšmetu samēru studiju un pedagogu tālākizglītības programmās.

Tālākizglītības programmas dalībniekiem vajadzēja atbildēt uz anketas 11 jautājumiem, lai izvērtētu kursu saturu, iegūtās zināšanas, izdales materiālu atbilstību saturam, kā arī mācībspēku darba kvalitāti. Izvērtējuma rezultātu analīze rāda, ka tālākizglītības programmas dalībnieki ļoti labi un labi (93%) vērtē zināšanu apguvi un darba organizāciju tālākizglītībā. Rezultātu apkopojums redzams 1.att.



1.att. Programmas dalībnieku vērtējuma kopsavilkums par kursu programmas norisi

Programmas dalībniekiem izvērtēšanas kritēriji bija jāvērtē četrās kategorijās – ļoti labi, labi, pietiekami, nepietiekami. Ļoti augstu vērtējumu klausītāji deva – līdzsvaram starp teoriju un praksi,

mikroklīmatam kursu norises laikā, izdales materiālu atbilstībai saturam, ko saņēma visi dalībnieki, laika izmantošanas efektivitātei u.c.

Pēc pētījuma autores domām aptauja palīdzēja:

- izvērtēt tālākizglītības programmu lietderību;
- uzlabot darba formas un metodes;
- dod iespēju mācībspēkiem izdarīt sava darba analīzi un salīdzināt to ar tālākizglītības kursu dalībnieku vērtējumu.

Secinājumi

1. Pētījuma rezultāti liecina, ka Latvijas Lauksaimniecības universitātes mācībspēki aktīvi iesaistās tālākizglītības programmu izstrādē.
2. Sabiedrībai kopumā un katram cilvēkam atsevišķi ir nepieciešams pilnveidoties mūža garumā un plašumā.
3. Tālākizglītības programmu apguve sekmē dalībnieku izpratni par mūžizglītību kā vērtību un sabiedrības bagātību.
4. Tālākizglītības programmas dalībnieki ļoti labi un labi (93%) vērtē zināšanu apguvi un darba organizāciju tālākizglītībā LLU.
5. Kvalitātes jautājums izvirzās kā galvenais pedagogu sagatavošanā, tā arī tālākizglītības programmu izveidē.
6. Universitāte ir tā institūcija, kurai jāradā stabili mūžizglītības pamati, kas sekmētu un nodrošinātu ilgtspējīgu izglītību.

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ACADEMIC PRACTICE AND DEVELOPMENT OF PROFESSIONAL AND PERSONAL VALUES

STUDIJU PROCESS UN PERSONĪBAS UN PROFESIONĀLO VĒRTĪBU PILNVEIDE

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Abstract

Associate professor is the degree of the development, achievement, suggesting several professional values : high degree of different scale reflection, application of learning outcomes approach to curriculum design, modelling of student learning on current teaching strategy, creation of teaching-related virtual learning environment, dissemination of scientific research through publication, attraction of external research funding, application of innovative assessment methods, supervision of research students, and others. Not much attention has been paid to lecturer's personal values – what are they? Are they in harmony with professional ones?

Self-assessment /self-evaluation applying constructivist approach being nowadays one of the most advanced suggesting its conscious application by the associate professor: focusing on knowledge construction, not reproduction; presenting authentic tasks; providing real- world, case-based learning environments; supporting collaborative construction of knowledge in social interaction and communication. Is the approach affected by personal values?

Self-assessment /self-evaluation is one of the general principles of constructivist learning and teaching nowadays. Self-assessment and self-evaluation concerns personal values as well. Therefore they are regarded as basic issues for the following research.

One of the obligations of the associate professor is to organize workgroup to share the acquired experience with younger colleagues to assist postgraduates and colleagues better understand professional and personal values and development of working relationships to build a successful academic career. Reflective practitioner having highly developed values increasingly informs the world of scholars about professional developments in several sectors.

Key words: academic practice, professional values, personal values, professor, self-assessment

Psychology of a man develops in the processes of activities. Positive and negative personal traits can be developed. The mission of a lecturer is to manage the student through the aimful, purposeful study process, forming the most needed, the most necessary for the student characteristic features or personal traits and professional competences. The **aim** of the paper is to draw educators' attention to the development of the lecturer's personal and professional values in academic practice.

Periodically, responding the fluctuations at the labour market, the question about the aims of Higher education arises. Time by time trials of application of the latest theories of management, systems analysis and other approaches in higher education appear to satisfy the students' needs to assist to acquire skills and become competent to complete jobs and to take high positions. Rarely even educators nowadays speak about the development of student's personality, about the formation of personal traits.

Personality forms personality – that is a universal truth. To become a reflective practitioner having highly developed personal and professional values increasingly informing the world of scholars about professional developments in several sectors, the lecturer needs a special rational

thinking structure and well developed, necessary for the lecturer skills structure or academic competence.

Former research on lecturer's self-development, self-education "Perceptions of Changes in Lecturers' Lifelong Education" carried out by S. Bremze and J. Hobrough in 2006 and 2007 (Bremze, Hobrough, 2006,2007) showed that pedagogical system of higher education reflects, models and tries to satisfy personal needs concerning knowledge and skills to be provided to students of higher educational establishments. Knowledge, knowing, intellectual skills form the basis of thinking for lecturers, for professors as well.

Optimum thinking structure for the lecturer, professor supposes a well developed intellectual ability (Kuzmina, Sokolova, 1971) of:

- a) analysis of the situation; establishment of the goal;
- b) choice of the rational method to achieve the aim and to accomplish the task; c) development of the plan;
- d) visualization of the result;
- e) selection and modelling of the activities;
- f) analysis of the result.

The way of thinking of the successful lecturer depends on the lecturer's skills structure:

- 1) constructional skills mean the lecturer's ability to construct, to develop the system of tasks;
- 2) organizational skills – ability to organize cognitive activities , to teach analysis of the situation;
- 3) communicative – ability to motivate;
- 4) gnoseological – abilities and skills to carry out research of the task, its conditions and solvation or results.

Carried out research "Perceptions of Changes in Lecturers' Lifelong Education" results were testifying about the following:

- 1) Index of satisfaction with ones own work for the lecturer goes down with the growth of the number of years of work in higher education and pedagogical experience;
- 2) The second reason of dissatisfaction of the experienced lecturer is , that he/she sees many difficulties in pedagogical work, analyses it, and becomes convinced, that overcoming of difficulties is the basis, the beginning for new difficulties of further growth, of the development.

Dissatisfaction with pedagogical work/practice arises from the fact that it is time and energy consuming, allotting little time for scientific work. Satisfaction with pedagogical work the professor receives only having equal amount of both – pedagogical and scientific work, when on the basis of successfully completed scientific work, it is possible to carry out better pedagogical one. For successful pedagogical work for the professor it is important to be aware of the overall goals to have positive motivation, interests or attraction/appeal and the need for action, but also the conditions and the environment for pedagogical activities.

Communication with the staff of the department substantially affects pedagogical work of the professors. Values having impact on professors' professional career are: pedagogical work, scientific work, traveling or mobility, free time, health, age, experience, satisfaction with relationships with their peers and freedom.

Method of polar profiles was used to clarify the factors and opinions disturbing pedagogical work of professors. Personal value system, personal culture is regarded by the professors themselves being the basis and the reflection of lecturer's professional style. Values having impact on professors' professional career are: pedagogical work, scientific work, traveling or mobility, free time, health, age or experience, satisfaction with relationships and freedom. (Table 1)

Table 1

Factors influencing pedagogical practice of professors

Factors	<u>Professors – MEN</u>	<u>Professors WOMEN</u>
Personal & Professional		
Mobility/traveling	<i>High</i>	<i>Low</i>
Free Time	<i>More important</i>	<i>Less important</i>
Health	<i>More complains</i>	<i>Less complains</i>
Age and Experience	<i>Less influence</i>	<i>More influence</i>
Freedom (academic)	<i>More</i>	<i>Less</i>
Pedagogical work	<i>Less important</i>	<i>More important</i>
Satisfaction with relationships	<i>Less important</i>	<i>More important</i>
Scientific work	<i>Greater interest</i>	<i>Smaller interest</i>

Success of the development of professional values is highly dependent on lecturer's personal value system, the basic components, the most connected with the professional, are: health, age and experience, mobility or traveling. These are regarded as the most important factors and

regarded as values. Personal value system's development finds its every day reflection in lecturer's professional style and personal culture.

For professors the most disturbing factor is absence of the group activities for the development/improvement of pedagogical work at the department.

None of the professors do recognize negative effect of the age on the results of pedagogical practice, but men use more words and expressions in their language indicating their age. Age mainly influences pedagogical work, more than scientific of the professors-women.

There were no uniformity in the statements about some personal values stressed/pointed out by professors when examining perceptions and attitudes towards lecturer's further education considering life-long education.

Still there are varieties, there is no uniform understanding in recognition of the importance of several values such as health, age, travelling.

Different statements about professors concerning "health" are:

Professors – men complain about their health problems three times more than professors- women.

For all positions the factors are important which are connected with the organization and realization of pedagogical process, - communication within the pedagogical process, existence of good qualitative teaching – learning materials and rational timetable.

Professors – men are more interested in scientific work than into pedagogical work.

For the majority of professors - women health is more important than scientific work.

For the majority of women – professors more important is pedagogical work than scientific.

The problem is in the condition that professor has gone through lifelong process of self-development, but a first year student makes the first steps of it. Difference also lies in the experience acquired by both. Therefore the lecturer cannot simply give the students his/her own understanding and knowledge in the area, the lecturer has to construct conditions involving students into their own building of understanding things. *Social constructivism* argues that in building complex understandings, an essential role can be played by peer collaboration to promote reflective development. Can the professor be the peer of the first year student? What does the lecturer – professor need to become the peer of the first year student? What has the lecturer do in such a case? Schon (Schon, 1983) has developed notion of reflective practitioner and he suggests identification of two sorts of professional reflection – *reflection-on-action* that occurs after the event, and *reflection-in-action*: "the idea that professionals engage in reflective conversations with practical situations, where they constantly frame and reframe a problem as they work on it, testing out their interpretations and solutions" (Calderhead & Gates, 1993).

Since reflection in popular usage often signifies a somewhat fuzzy and self-indulgent dreaminess, it is important to note that reflection in professional development may be defined as 'systematic enquiry into one's own practice to improve that practice and to deepen one's understanding of it' (Lucas, 1991).

Disciplined reflection with a peer has been shown to provide a critically constructive opportunity for developing one's own thinking (Hatton & Smith, 1995), while learning to facilitate another's reflective processes may promote learning 'just as much as learning to reflect itself' (Moon, 2002). From a range of previous research (Bremze, Hobrough, 2006) to provide a disciplined, interpersonally mediated and scholarly approach to professional and personal development, where reflection is a key value, for the lecturers it is necessary to engage in reflective enquiry that connects practice with research on student learning (Ramsden, 2003). Professional educators need to be able to explicate how they have made student learning possible (Martin, 1998), thus demonstrating a scholarly approach to teaching. These are core principles to be extended to other areas of academic practice that engages with the scholarship of teaching, of research and of leadership (Shulman, 2000).

Learning for professional development from the other lecturers, constructively engaging to build one's own understanding in in-service upgrading, is the best possibility to understand first year students. New teaching staff is expected to share their understanding of first year students with more experienced lecturers – professors. Cooperation, collaboration with colleagues can provide the environment in which to interrogate practice for communication with students.

Conclusions

1. Reflective practitioner having highly developed personal values increasingly informs the world of scholars, colleagues educators, about professional developments in several sectors, including academic practice.
2. One of the obligations of the associate professor is to organize workgroup, similar to in-service practice, to acquire and to share the acquired experience with colleagues, to involve younger colleagues into *reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action*
3. to assist oneself and colleagues to become the facilitator of the most advanced experience of academic practice.
4. Success of the development of professional values is highly dependent on lecturer's personal value system's development which find their every day reflection in lecturer's professional style and personal culture.

5. Dynamic reflecting practice, integration of teaching, research and effective use of peer learning environment provides the development of academic practice.

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ENGLISH IN „PROJECT MANAGEMENT” IN THE LATVIA UNIVERSITY OF AGRICULTURE

ANĢĻU VALODA „PROJEKTU VADĪBĀ” LATVIJAS LAUKSAIMNIECĪBAS UNIVERSITĀTĒ

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Introduction. High level English competence is necessary for managers studying at the Latvia University of Agriculture to develop projects successfully. Managers' English development has to be included into the area of Project management competence development. Selected teaching and learning methods are advisable in adult education for Project managers. One of the most appropriate in Project management terminology acquisition is the Project Management Method. Some of the methods reflected in the publication are: „Brainstorm”, Management effort planning, Projected management process, Documentation and quality assurance, Evaluation of the effort. Framing; specifying; evaluating. In the area of competence development the authors would like to agree with the scientists point of view who distinguish between four levels: **unconscious incompetence; conscious incompetence; conscious competence and unconscious competence**. For both local and international Project management highly developed unconscious English competence is of great importance.

Systematic planning and evaluation of teaching and learning effort incorporates/includes/interchanges with the process of focusing on the most meaningful and significant planning and management efforts and points. Such an overall plan for English studies as Project management is often a question about the aim, the methods and means of their achievement.

Key words: Project management, Project start-up, control, evaluation, close-down, the project management method, English competence.

Use this time wisely and it will save you much more time in the future...

There are four stages on the road to decision: First, the **acceptance of the need** to move to a better place. Second, to **see attractive** solutions. Third, to decide and **act**. Fourth, to implement, to hold on or to **react resolute**. When project managers participate in the journey they **empower the team** and the **team will be trusted** (info@prodevo.dk).

For opinion influencers and decision makers always it is better that they participate in certain stages of the processes and in a meeting or see a video take from the meeting hearing the manager to tell the conclusions from the meeting, therefore since specialists in Project management are necessary but also it is necessary to assist them to understand other disciplines and to communicate. To communicate Project managers need to have the appropriate language competence. It is often a question of both – of self-esteem and mutual respect for them. In majority of situations, such as seminars, workshops where communication mainly is informal, conscious incompetence of foreign language is also good enough, for unconscious is the blind angle to remember. It is useful to

wonder, to express doubts, to play the devil's advocate – and to discuss easily, freely the issues all the parties are interested in.

Taking into account that master students of the study programme „ProjectManagement” are adults, having some experience and practice in the field, in the area of their foreign language competence development, it is possible to distinguish between four levels in managers English competence: **unconscious incompetence; conscious incompetence; conscious competence** and **unconscious competence**. Sometimes it also might be felt as a constraint – having to fit ones own intuition into a method. Practice shows, that the best is to try to consciously plan English acquisition as a Project to be managed for the students, to go through all the stages of the Project and to communicate them, not as alternative but as support for the development of intuition and solid judgement and acquisition of foreign language skills.

The aim of the English course is to promote acquisition of the project terminology by the students, developing their project communication ability, enabling them to read, recognize and undersand professional literature in English, to develop their own project proposals in English, as well as to communicate with foreign specialists on project development, monitoring, control, management and assesment.

Morten Fangelsen's and Hans Mikkelsen's ideas are developed further by the authors of the article to make the Project Management Method work for project management terminology acquisition in foreign language studies.

There are several reasons for investing more effort in conscious planning of the management of study effort in projects:

1. Project management is utilised for broader variances of tasks, which implies that experience and guidelines from one situation should not automatically, but consciously be transferred to another situation.
2. Clients are requesting documentation and quality assurance, including the Project management activities and results.
3. Documented management planning makes it easier to involve the Project participants in the management effort also of their study process itself.
4. Conscious planning and evaluation or assessment of the effort is a powerful vehicle for learning and for transfer of Project management knowledge.
5. Finally – a well documented projected management process and English competence are great help where the Project management function has to be transferred to a new object or subject.

It should be noted that, planning the management effort as well as planning teaching and learning efforts should take place at the critical points of Project preparation, Project start-up, the Project evaluation and assessment and Project close-down. It is also relevant during Project co-ordination to make conscious planning and evaluation of the management effort. Only few cases of the whole process of application of Project Method in foreign language studies and more can be illuminated in the given article.

Methods for Planning English as Project Management (PM) Effort.

The essence of planning foreign language study as PM effort is to consciously realise the managerial problem or challenge during the period in question.

To clarify the challenges, a simple method is to „brainstorm” possible management initiatives, activities, for example, to visualize English as Project’s common aims and to arrange classroom hours like a Project start-up meeting and the following hours like meetings as constituent parts of the both – management and study process. As Fangelsen puts it, systematic method is to divide planning and evaluation into nine-to-ten steps (Mikkelsen, 2008):

Framing/structuring:

1. Project English and its location/area/stage- Where
2. Characterising management/teaching and learning complexity via aims/goals/purpose- Why
3. Challenges/risks of the PM process-What
4. Special initiatives to cope with the challenges/risks-How

Specifying steps:

5. PM activities- What and When
6. PM roles- Who
7. PM methods/forms- How

Evaluating and assessing:

8. Documentation/description of performed activities- What and When
9. Documentation/description of management roles – Who
10. Evaluation/assessment of the PM performance- How

The first four steps can be regarded as a simplified agenda for the discussion and „brainstorming”. All the items should be accomplished step-by-step having thorough reflection in communication, but rather used as framework and inspiration for letting considerations develop from one step to another.

Based on the creative talk at the meeting, it is advisable for everybody prepare activity plan as self-study plan to cover steps 4,5 and 6.

For further implementation of the method, joint registers and estimates of the actual management activities by the lecturer in the same document as the activity plan should be included.

Accordingly foreign language competence is proposed to be developed by **the themes for discussion and competence to acquire:**

1. Definition of a Project, Project management context, Project methodologies and knowledge areas:

Introduction, training on recognition and application of terminology, categories, phenomena
- ability to recognize, apply correct terminology in communication: reading, writing.

2. Project description. Projects for branch development. Developing the project charter:

Project description studies in different fields, branches; development of ability to prepare charter
- ability to recognize and communicate project description and charter; ability to develop Project charter in written.

3. Strategic project planning. Needs assessment and analysis. Priorities assessment:

Group work: introduction of formulation of aims, needs statement, forms of assessment
- ability to formulate needs, short term aims and long term aims, to assess needs, to set priorities and to communicate them to others.

4. Project monitoring and analysis. Scope, time and budget:

Development of listening, observation, comprehension skills and communication skills via reading, discussions and written tests about monitoring and analysis; introduction and discussion of the categories of scope, time and budget and communication of their relationships
- ability to communicate project monitoring, analysis, scope, time and budget of project.

5. Procedure charts and methodologies, scheduling software:

Introduction of terminology on procedure charts and methodologies and information about scheduling software, training on application through reading, listening to dialogues developed by students themselves; introduction of selfdevelopment skills, introduction of regulations of independent work: home reading, listening
- developed communication skills on procedure charts and scheduling software and scheduling of master students independent work.

6. Budgeting / costing: resource planning, estimating techniques, life cycle costs, direct / indirect costs. Project resources:

Pair work introducing terminology, dialogs concerning resource planning and operating project resources, written tests
- ability to recognize, comprehend, be able to communicate – speak and write applying categories concerning budgeting.

7. Project implementation: project organisation and team selection, developing a communication strategy:

Group work introducing terminology on Project implementation and communication team selection; skills for the development of communication of Project development strategy

- ability to communicate Project implementation; Project organisation ; team selection; communication strategy within the Project.

8. Communication planning: project leadership and roles, managing customer and project team expectations:

Role play on planning project leadership and roles, managing customer and project team expectations

-ability to apply categories and terms communicating planning project leadership and roles, managing customer and project team expectations.

9. Conflict management and negotiations:

Dialogues on Project management; simulations of negotiations

- ability to communicate in conflict situations, ability to take sides; acquired negotiation skills.

10. Improving Estimating Capability.Updates and reports:

Role play: communication of selfassessment of individually developed Project proposals; development of Project actors communication skills on Project estimating capability

-ability to communicate selfassessment of individually developed Project proposals.

11. Risk strategies and risk analysis, qualitative and quantitative risk management:

Introduction of terminology and development of communication skills on risk analysis qualitative and quantitative risk management

-ability to communicate risk strategies and risk analysis, qualitative and quantitative risk management.

12. Managing and controlling scope, schedules and costs:

Development of written skills on managing and controlling scope, schedules and costs, development of communication skills on calculation of results

-ability to communicate calculations of results and costs.

13. Project quality assurance and controlling:

Development of reading, writing, auditing and speaking skills on project quality assurance and controlling

-ability to communicate Project quality assurance and controlling.

14. Contract closures. Contracting work, evaluation.

Role play: communication of selfassessment elaborating contract closure; acquiring Project terminology on contracting and Project evaluation

- ability to communicate Project terminology on contracting and Project evaluation.

15. Project completion reports. Project presentation language:

Development of written presentation skills, test in writing on Project presentation language skills

- ability to recognize specifics of foreign language of written presentation and to write presentation about the Project.

16. Project team closure issues, project performance review:

Development of oral presentation skills delivering closure issues and Project performance review

- ability to communicate Project issues (As sources were used :1 : 2004.,2:2000., 3: 2005., Lewis:2007.,7 :2007.,8 :2000 .,9 :1997.,10 : 2002.,11 : 1997.).

The most evident advantage of the PM (doing step-by-step) method is that the main stress is put on communication of planning and evaluation and assessment of management of the project. It avoids solvation of management tasks, it doesn't accomplish Project tasks.

But experiece shows that extra effort is necessary both to keep the planning of the management effort on the agenda and to keep the planning focus on the topic until the effect has been achieved – far beyond a spontaneous attitude to the PM during the period in question and that has been discussed in English several times to acquire English skills.

Three types of means have proven ability to promote both conscious planning and evaluation of Project management (Morten, 2008) in English:

a) Dedicated PM Planning Meetings in English

Some classroom hours as planning meetings should be dedicated to evaluation of the ongoing PM and to planning of the PM for the next period. Steps 0.1,2,3 make an appropriate agenda for such a meeting.

b) Documented in English PM Effort

- Initial exploration has to be documented in English under the title „Exploring plan for PM”. Exploration is concluded in an „Overall plan for PM” to promote focus on the most important English terms, and this can be arranged according to the first four steps of the method.

- Activity plan in English for the PM converts the overall plan into detail plans, including deadlines, discussion of distribution of tasks and method proposals – according to steps 4,5 and 6.

c) Sparring/dispute (fight verbally) to Promote Creativity

A perfect solution is for the English student to develop his ability together with Project owner/sponsor to act as a sparring partner for the PM concerning M of the P. Another possibility is to use colleagues for sparring or dispute, either ad hoc or in a more formalized network. A third possibility is to involve an internal or external consultant. Planning meetings should be held at the beginning of phases that imply important M effort, Such as the Project preparation, Project start-up, Project evaluation or assessment and Project close – down.

Natural participants are the Project owner or sponsor, the Project manager and other key persons. The meeting can be considered as a planning meeting but in English.

The following sections specify each step of conscious planning of English as Project Management and assessment of it.

The plan should be elaborated for a specific period of the Project – because if the plan is extended to cover the whole Project, the content might be too general and will not promote a suitable effort.

Framing the plan for the English study as Project management

Planning the PM should be initiated by capturing information through „ brainstorming,.. This utilises the student`s, participant`s intuition and experiences and gives them an opportunity to unfold their creativity. The following scheme can be used to prepare PM planning in English for a coming period – typically one to two months.

1. The Project and its location/stage

Explanation of the Project aim, process and /or organisation. It is recommended, that it could be supplemented by a review in English of the logbook for PM from the previous period (steps 7, 8 and 9).

2. Characteristics of complexity of management.

Description of conditions which are determining the management effort in the Project of English studies. Examples are about the scope, complexity, environment, cross organisation, etc.

3. Challenges/risks of Project management.

The managerial challenges or problems and risks descriptions. Real contribution to the project of the Project manager is to achieve in communication, f.ex., a common view or more positive assessment.

4. Special initiatives for coping with challenges/risks.

Communication management initiatives which makes it easier to cope with challenges, risks may be the proposals for language activities, such as analyses, planning, communication and follow-up, or proposals for management roles and methods and types of language activities. All with the focus on what to be done in addition to what would be done by routine – that is why the title of the step should be” special initiatives”. The aim of this detailed procedure is to involve all participants into communication process and to promote innovative thinking.

Overall study plan as PM plan

An overall Project management plan of English study is established after the creative exploration – structured according to the method’s steps 1, 2 and 3. The task is to extract the essence – not to make a complete description of the exploration that might have been made earlier as to the overall Project management plan, the following is recommended by F. Morten and H.Mikkelsen (Morten, Mikkelsen, 2008) as well: systematic planning and evaluation of the effort. To achieve positive results it is recommended:

- Restrict the scope definition to only one page – it is difficult to stick to the plans and the intentions during normal stressed day.
- List the contents as items – typically 3 – 5 items per step in the method.
- Focus on the most meaningful and significant management efforts and refrain from describing that part of management that takes place irrespective of being listed in the plan.

Such an overall plan, both in structure and in contents, is similar to an invitation to a Project start-up workshop dealing with the following:

1. Project and its stage. A brief introduction to the project and the description of the direct cause for having the workshop now.
2. Characterisation of the management complexity. Conditions in and about the Project indicating that a workshop is a relevant initiative.

Conclusions

1. The essence of planning for English lecturer is when teaching English for Project managers as Project management, teaching and learning efforts have to be consciously realised as the managerial problem or challenge during study process for both students and lecturer. Initially to visualize common aims, clarify challenges simple methods have to be applied.
2. The students managed through all the Project management phases develop English terminology competence up to conscious and unconscious levels.

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COMMUNICATING IN A GLOBAL SOCIETY: DEVELOPMENTS IN A “NEW” GENERATION

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Abstract

This paper considers the position of the younger generation (generation “Y”) in the post soviet situation in relation to communication within the modern global society. It draws on the results and published proceedings of a TEMPUS project in the Volga Region of Russia in which e-learning modules were developed in language learning for specific purposes. An analysis of the attitudes and perceptions to e-learning by those engaged in the project is provided. It is concluded that whilst unique programmes have been developed there is still further work needed to ensure acceptance of the learning processes described by generation “Y” so that full benefit can be derived for communicating across the global society

Key words: Generation “Y”, E-learning; language for specific purposes.

Introduction

The Universities of Surrey UK, Oldenburg Germany and three Technical Universities on the Volga in Russia (Saratov, Samara and Volgograd) have been involved in developing e-learning materials in languages for specific purposes to enhance communication globally. The main resources for this paper are provided by the proceedings of the final dissemination conference held in Saratov in May 2008 (TEMPUS FLERTOV 2008)

The project teams at the three Russian universities designed, piloted and modified a eight units of e-learning language learning materials in technical disciplines before they made them accessible to foreign language learners at Self-Access Centres (SACs) designed and created through the TEMPUS project. The SACs enable students and members of local businesses who needed to access language learning to learn at their own pace and in their own time.

These materials meet the needs, expectations, and preferred learning styles of the new generation of learners who are now referred to as Generation “Y”. (Westerman, J.W., Yamamura, J.H 2006, Popova 2008)

Generation Y

The *Millennials*, also known as *Generation “Y”* are the generation born between 1980 and 1992. (Westerman 2007, wikipedia 2008). "Generation Y" is an indication of the fact that they are the offspring of Generation X, a term used to describe generations in many countries around the world born between 1965 and 1980. They are currently 16-28 years of age and will comprise 45% of the full-time labour force by the year 2010. In a nutshell, they are perceived to be products of a high tech. society who have never know a time without computers, mobile phones and have a “seen-it-all,

done-it-all” complex being more confident, assertive and entitled than any other previous generation. (See also Allen 2005)

All education projects nowadays are expected to take into consideration the new challenges of the knowledge economy. Bringing Foreign Language learning for Specific Purposes in line with the above issues has been a major goal of the FLERTUV Project. (Popova 2008)

It should also be acknowledged that the analysis of Generation “Y” within post Soviet countries might not be as simple as indicated above. In conversation with a class of Information Technology students at LLU the following comments were recorded:

“We are in the age group described – but we have not had a lifetime of technical access, since in soviet times such things as computers and mobile phones were not available (to us)”

Westerman (2007) considers the factors relating to individuals within Generation Y and the need to motivate their learning. The assumptions are that the generation Y question validity and authority has a strong optimistic approach to life being highly communicative, fast thinking, energised and independent. Motivation for learning needs an awareness of learning styles, variety of skills and recognition of individual autonomy.

This awareness provoked the following comments from present day Latvian generation Y students
So! - *“Computer freaks will rule the world!”*

“‘Chatting’ is not talking – just trying to communicate

“we need proof of self to self as well as others”

“IT is everything”

The FLERTUV Project

The objectives of the project were to provide supported self study language tuition for technical students in years 3, 4 and 5 (Generation Y) where no official tuition is provided. This facility is now being delivered within Self Access Centres (SACs) with a full suite of technological support through modules of learning developed by the Russian teams in English and German. The supported self study materials provide some unique e-learning modules in such disciplines as Environmental sciences Casting, Electronics, Robotics, Beer-making and Management. Each module could be worth 10 credits under the Bologna process accreditation.

The self-access centres are able to provide continuous staff training that will encourage teachers to pursue lifelong learning and training whilst identify students’ needs. Employees from local businesses who need languages for their work are also encouraged to “buy into” the SACs. They also provide an opportunity for learners to study at their own pace and to analyse their own

opportunities. The following quotes are reported by Maximova and Oleynikova (2008)from learners within the project

“Generally I am a slow student but SAC gave me the chance to learn at my own speed any time I like”.

“I know I must learn English for my future career but sometimes I miss classes for some reason. It’s no good for me. I can visit SAC any time to master the language”.

“Self-access learning in the SAC gives me comfort”.

Research into the acceptability of the learning process designed within the FLERTUV Project

Once the modules of learning had been prepared it was necessary to consider whether the proposed e-learning methodology was acceptable to the learners. A questionnaire was designed and given to all participants for completion once they had worked their way through the material. The questionnaire investigated learner’s current experience of e-learning and their needs and expectations for the future.. It was designed specifically to evaluate the readiness of students for the e-learning experience.

Each Russian Partner University carried out the survey. At Saratov State Technical University (SSTU) from which the following example results are analysed 162 3rd and 4th year students and 26 post-graduate engineering students were involved in piloting 6 modules developed by Saratov, Samara and Volgograd teams. The analysis was to verify the adequacy of content, methodology and multimedia development, as well as the transferability of the material and to evaluate the acquired skills which are directly applicable to process of learning. (Fedyunina and Maximova 2008)

Survey Analysis

Motivation (a need for generation Y)

The first part of the survey was to elicit why students, or employees, should wish to study a language for specific purposes and how they would self assess their level before commencing any e-learning possibility.

Survey Analysis Motivation and Self-assessment

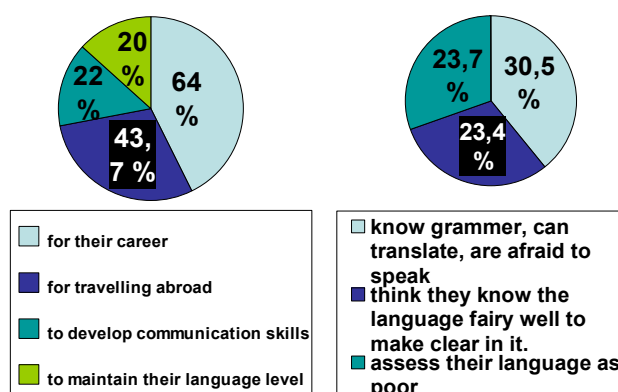


Diagram 1. Students' Motivation and Self-assessment

The indications are that the main motive for learning languages is the desire to master professional level. The second and the third positions occupy “tourist-communication” goals. The survey has also shown that the students are aware of their learning processes and of their weaknesses and strengths. They recognize the gaps in their knowledge and have a realistic perception of their ability to achieve their learning goal.

Diagram 2 shows students' expectations from learning in the SACs and students' opinion about using technical facilities for learning.

The results shown on the left pie chart in Diagram 2 may be considered as “unexpected”. The students were informed that the main goal of the SAC was to provide independent opportunities for learning beforehand, but 37% of the students want to develop *speaking skills* at the Centre or they expect direct communication with foreigners (30%). It suggests that they had not realized the potential of e-learning and sometimes associate the work in SAC with traditional communicative lessons. The left side of the diagram shows that most of the students are of the opinion that technical facilities should be used at classes.

Survey Analysis Expectations

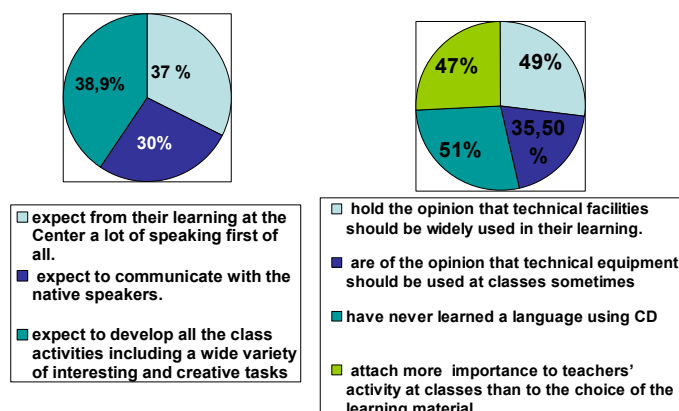


Diagram 2. Learning Expectations in the SAC.

Further questions considered the acceptability of e-learning as far as the participants were concerned.

91% particularly liked the process because of the freedom provided by the self directed nature of e-learning. The learners also considered that in some instances e-learning might be the only possibility, especially within the context of the Russian curriculum provision. The thematic studies within the modules were also greatly appreciate

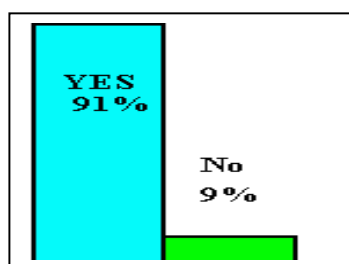


Diagram 3. Do learners like E-learning?

It was also considered that there might be difficulties in planning without the presence of a tutor, but this could be overcome through tutorial help from a SAC Manager (Kruzhkova S 2008)

However, despite being part of generation Y, and this might be where post soviet differences are apparent, being in an unusual situation (I), having problems with the computer(II) or software (III) and the need for more technical education (IV) were also seen as potential difficulties. (Diagram. 4)

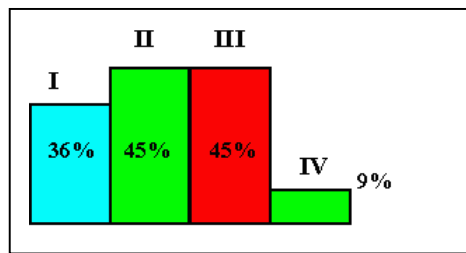


Diagram 4. Technical Difficulties in E- learning Process

Module Design.

The learners were given the opportunity to comment on the module design developed within the project. This enabled modifications to be made to the final products. In general the modules were found to be interesting (I) and helped to focus the learning process (II). Some found the format irritating (III) or embarrassing (IV) whilst others found it a comfortable environment (V). For some, despite being in Generation Y it was an exhausting process (VI) but generally satisfactory (VII) and no worse than learning in a classroom (VIII) (Diagram 5).

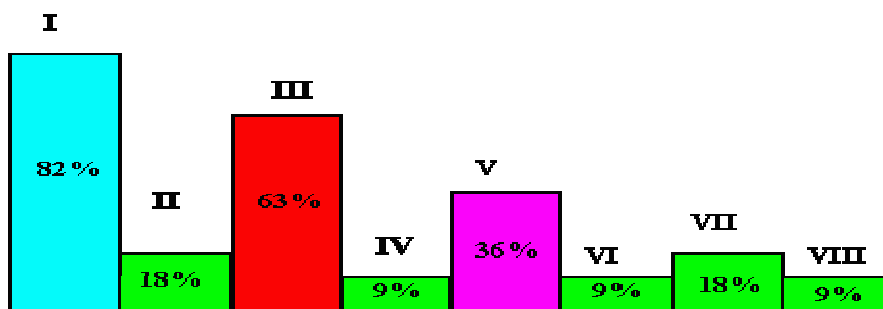


Diagram 5. Students' estimations of modules design.

Further discussion about what was perceived as irritating, which tended to relate to technical difficulties provided opportunities to modify the products before final production. This consultation was regarded by the learners as either satisfactory (I), unsatisfactory (II) or a need for more direct interaction (III) Diagram 6

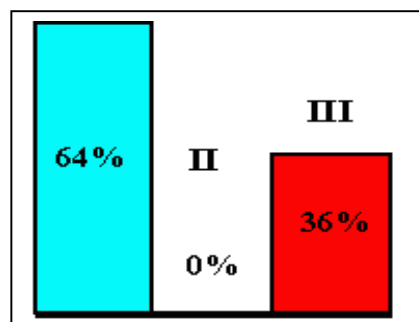


Diagram 6. Students' Estimations of Tutorial Consultations and Explanations.

The learners sampled did not see e-learning as an alternative to traditional teaching. This might be related to being placed within a new situation where self directed learning is still not the norm (despite the proposals from the Bologna agreement) . In the context of Generation Y this is a little surprising but the expectation is that as learners become more associated with this methodology many of the perceived difficulties will be overcome

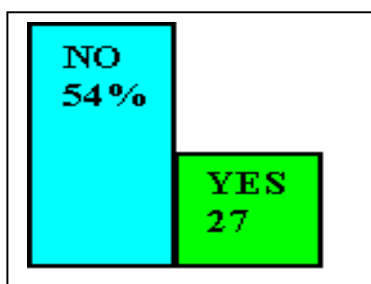


Diagram 7. Can e-learning replace traditional teaching

The learners themselves made a number of other comments. They were aware that they had many skills in PC, Internet, modems and modern communications. They had never used these skills for independent e-learning courses where IT is the main means of delivery. The courses proposed in the modules did however provide motivation for IT learning. They did expect, now that the SACs had been prepared to be able to keep pace the technical developments and hence e-learning possibilities.

On the whole the recipients have appraised the work of the modules' developers and have shown their readiness for further e-learning experience.

Conclusion

Higher Education development and Generation “Y”

The TEMPUS FLERTUV Project has provided an awareness of the possibilities in developing opportunities for a post soviet generation “Y” in using technological support for supported self study which is in line with the communication needs within the global society.

These opportunities include the provision of learning environment which will motivate generation “Y” and ensure global communication for all disciplines. It will also help to ensure language development for transnational communication for future generations and thus support the global economy.

In the final analysis it allows the institution to join the e-learning global community whilst maintaining their own autonomy (Hobrough 2004).

The learners are helped to develop an “*international personality*” possessing the ability to understand differences between cultures and ways of thinking; to think independently and to communicate in a cross-cultural environment.

Communication by Generation “Y” within the post soviet community holds the key for the future global society

Acknowledgements

The author wishes to thank all the partners and individual teams within the TEMPUS JEP FERTUV Project who worked so tirelessly to produce the outcomes of the project and presented papers at the dissemination conference which have formed a basis for this article.

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DYNAMICS OF PROFESSIONAL PHYSICAL FITNESS OF STUDENTS OF THE POLICE ACADEMY OF LATVIA

LATVIJAS POLICIJAS AKADEMĪJAS STUDENTU PROFESIONĀLĀS FIZISKĀS SAGATAVOTĪBAS DINAMIKA

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Introduction. Professional competence of policemen includes also one special aspect which we call professional physical fitness. The environment and situations of policemen actions are becoming more stressful, complex and demanding, the professional physical fitness is a very important competence. The role of the individual policeman is growing in importance and they should be more responsible for their own actions, both physically and mentally. Unfortunately, the physical fitness of prospective policemen is declined for the last years. Joining the European Union the Police Academy of Latvia have renewed the program of physical fitness of students, on the basis of analysing the experience of military higher educational establishments from different countries like Russia, Germany and Finland. Implementation of the new program is based on constructivist approach emphasizing the priority of person's activity in studies. Besides compulsory hours on physical education students have their free-time physical activities. *Aim* of the research was to evaluate a new program of physical education by testing the level of physical fitness of students and officers during the 1st and the 2nd course.

Methods. Research data were collected by testing physical fitness of students and officers, by analysing curriculum of physical education. The 1st and 2nd year 80 students from Police College and 50 officers were involved in the research during 2006/2007, 2007/2008 study years. The students (19-23 years old) and the officers (24-27 years old) performed such physical fitness tests as: male-100m run, pull-ups, sit-ups/2 min, 3000m- cross country race; female-100m run, push-ups, sit-ups/2 min, 1000m-cross country race.

Results. Dynamics of results of physical fitness both of students and officers is positive. Results in all tests have grown up. But we have noticed some differences between men and women. Men are most successful in 100m run (optimal level have reached -72% males, high level- 19%), pull-ups (optimal level -67%, high level -20%), cross country race (optimal level-80%, high level-20%) but women have improved their skills in 100m run (optimal level -68%, high level-32%) and cross country race (optimal level -72%, high level -28%). Women are not so good in push-ups (low level-56%, optimal level-44%). Physical performance of officers are lower than the students have achieved. That can be reasoned because of the less compulsory hours for their physical fitness improvement and partly because of the age.

Conclusions. In previous programs of physical education only the process of achieving results was emphasized. The motivation aspect in individual learning process was not taken into account. The constructivist approach has priorities in the implementation of a new program of physical education of policemen. Students and officers have demonstrated high level of motivation improving their level of professional physical fitness. Using team work as a methodical approach also in development of physical fitness of policemen is possible to achieve students' deeper understanding of their actions.

Key words: program of physical education, levels of physical fitness of policemen, dynamics of results of physical performance, constructivist approach.

Ievads

Policijas dienests ir grūts un komplicēts, jo jāveic vairāku funkciju izpilde. Policistu darbs prasa pietiekami augstu *fizisko īpašību attīstības līmeni*, lai varētu sekmīgi veikt savus pienākumus.

Svarīgu vietu aizņem arī policista *profesionālā fiziskā sagatavošana*, jo darbs ir saistīts ar likumpārkāpēju aizturēšanu neprognozējamos apstākļos. Ekstremālās situācijās policistam jārisina divas problēmas: no vienas puses, jāaiztur likumpārkāpēji, kas bieži aktīvi aizsargājas vai uzbrūk, no

otras, pielietojot pašaizsardzības vai pretuzbrukuma paņēmienus, nepieciešams ievērot likumu un nepārsniegt pašaizsardzības robežas.

Policistu profesionālās fiziskās sagatavošanas pilnveidošanas problēmu pēta vairākās pasaules valstīs: Anglijā, ASV, Francijā, Vācijā, Krievijā u.c. Speciālisti būtisku uzmanību pievērš problēmai, kas saistīta ar uzbrukumu policistiem, kad viņi pilda dienesta pienākumus.

Lielbritānijas pieredze

Profesionālā fiziskā sagatavošana ir viens no nozīmīgākajiem ieguldījumiem, kas Apvienotajā Karalistē rada valstisku pieeju policijas darbam. Anglijā un Velsā ir daudzi nacionālie policijas profesionālās izglītošanas centri (National Police Training-NPT), kuros velta daudz pūļu policistu izglītībai, atbilstoši visā valstī pieņemtiem standartiem. NPT arī kontrolē un nosaka reģionu profesionālās izglītības programmas standartus un sniedz palīdzību policijas reģioniem, radot iespēju iegūt izglītību treneriem un instruktoriem, plānojot nodarbības, apstiprinot eksāmenus un piegādājot tālmācības materiālus. Tā kā angļu policistiem patruļdienesta pienākumu pildīšanas laikā ir liegts nēsāt šaujamieroci, viņu sagatavošana darbībām, lai aizturētu likumpārkāpēju, rod sevišķu interesi. Atlase darbam policijā paredz kandidātu pienācīgu fizisko sagatavotību (tiek kārtots atspoles skrējieni, pievilkšanās, skrējieni uz laiku), labu redzi, dažos reģionos ir prasība attiecībā uz augumu (minimālais augums vīriešiem-172 cm, sievietēm-162 cm). Studiju laikā sevišķa vērība tiek veltīta pašaizsardzībai (pašiem jāprot sevi uzturēt pietiekamā fiziskajā formā). Faktiski, līdz automātismam tiek apgūti desmit pašaizsardzības paņēmieni.

Viņu profesionālās fiziskās sagatavošanas pamatos ir cīņas sporta veidi (džudo, karatē un citi). Pēdējā laikā angļu policisti arvien biežāk pievērš uzmanību pašaizsardzības (sambo) cīņai. Angļu policisti, startējot pasaules čempionātos sambo cīņā, ir izcīnījuši godalgotas vietas. Sporta cīņas nodarbību laikā liela uzmanība tiek veltīta profesionāli-lietišķai un speciāli-taktiskai sagatavošanai likumpārkāpēja aizturēšanā gan patrulējot kājām, gan transportā.

Skotijas policijas koledžas programma paredz vispusīgu fizisko sagatavotību, kuras pamatā ir specifisko policijas paņēmienu pilnveidošana uz augstas fiziskās kondīcijas bāzes. Iestājoties koledžā, topošiem rekrūšiem jākārtos speciāli vingrinājumi, kas liecina par viņu fiziskās sagatavotības līmeni; bez tam viņiem jāiziet stingra medicīniskā kontrole, ko veic policijas galvenais ārsts. Fiziskās sagatavotības pārbaude ietver šādus vingrinājumus:

- Ķermeņa augšdaļas pacelšana sēdus no stāvokļa guļus uz muguras, nosaka atkārtojumu skaitu 1 minūtes laikā;
- Roku saliekšana un iztaisnošana balstā guļus, nosaka atkārtojumu skaitu 1 minūtes laikā;

- No stāvokļa sēžot uz grīdas, noliekšanās uz priekšu pie taisnām kājām;
- No pamatstājas pāriet balstā guļus, pēc tam- balstā tupus un atpakaļ – sākuma stāvoklī. Nosaka atkārtojumu skaitu 1 minūtes laikā;
- Jūdzes skriešana (Army Formal School Catalog, 1991; Program pilotażowego kursu specjalistycznego dla policjantów, 1995).

Policijas koledžas studenti studiju laikā apgūst arī militāro dienestu.

Policistu profesionālās fiziskās sagatavošanas problēmas ASV

Policistu profesionālās fiziskās sagatavošanas problēma ir aktuāla arī ASV. FIB ikgadējās atskaitēs par noziedzības stāvokli valstī tiek dots sīks statistisks apraksts par uzbrukumiem policistiem, šo uzbrukumu veidiem un apstākļiem. ASV policijas dienesta fiziskā sagatavotība tiek turpināta uz iepriekšējās mācību iestādēs iegūtā fiziskās sagatavotības līmeņa. Profesijas augstais reitings sabiedrībā dod iespēju veikt nopietnu atlasi starp topošajiem darbiniekiem. Ārvalstu speciālisti veica analīzi par noziedznieku izmantoto noziegumu rīku pielietošanu. Tika noskaidrots, ka 94,5% policistu gāja bojā, kad noziedznieki pielietoja šaujamieročus un 5,5% -kad pielietoja dažāda veida aukstos ieročus un autotransportu. Tādējādi ASV speciālisti izceļ uzbrukuma apstākļu 4 grupas: bez ieročiem, ar aukstajiem ieročiem un dažādiem priekšmetiem, šaujamieročiem un uzbrukuma nestandarta veidu -autotransportu. Veicot ikgadējo uzbrukumu policistiem apstākļu analīzi, kā arī noziedznieku aizturēšanu, ASV speciālisti meklē arvien jaunākas profesionālās fiziskās sagatavošanas pilnveidošanas formas un metodes.

Francijas policistu fiziskās sagatavošanas pieredze

Par galveno policistu traumatisma palielināšanās iemeslu franču speciālisti uzskata likumsargu nepietiekošu profesionāli fizisko sagatavotību. Profesionālās meistarības paaugstināšanas nolūkā 1994. gadā tika izstrādāts aizturēšanas speciālās taktikas metodiskais līdzeklis, ko izplatīja visos policijas komisariātos. Tajā tika noteikta likumsarga darbības kārtība 4 galvenajās aizturēšanas situācijās: aizdomīgas personas aizturēšana, darbības pārmeklējot aizturamo personu un roku dzelžu uzlikšana, apturot aizdomīgu autotransportu, apsargājamo objektu signalizācijai nostrādājot. Šajā nolūkā visiem operatīvo dienestu darbiniekiem tiek rīkotas „drošības nedēļas”, kuru laikā tiek modulētas dažādas situācijas – kontakti ar aizdomās turamajiem likumpārkāpējiem, pielietojot mūsdienīgus tehniskos līdzekļus, kas ļauj sīki izanalizēt policistu tipiskās kļūdas. Speciālisti izvirza arī prasības normatīvo aktu pilnveidošanā, saistībā ar policista tiesību paplašināšanu fiziskā spēka pielietošanas gadījumos, aizturot aizdomīgas personas un

likumpārkāpējus. Tiek skatīts jautājums par policistu kandidātu fiziskās sagatavotības līmeņa paaugstināšanu.

Vācijas pieredze profesionālā fiziskā sagatavošanā

Vācijā arī tiek veikts liels darbs, pētot likumpārkāpēja aizturēšanas gadījumus, kā arī uzbrukumus policistiem. Vācijā topošo policijas darbinieku studijās plaši izmanto moduļu sistēmu. Moduļu studijas pamatprincips “mācies darot” nodrošina teorijas un prakses vienotību.

Modulējot nodarbības, tiek plānotas vairākas stundas, kuras ietver sevī komplekso policijas darbinieka darbības pielietošanu, kura tiek vērtēta atbilstoši likumiem un instrukcijām, kā arī māca pielietot ieroci vai speciālos līdzekļus (steku, roku dzelžus, vairokus utt.), prasmi adekvāti novērtēt situāciju un atbilstoši pielietot/nepielietot fizisko spēku un paņēmienus, psiholoģisko noturību un personības savaldību. Liela uzmanība tiek veltīta nodarbībām komandā vai grupās. Lai sadarbība komandā būtu veiksmīga, katrai atsevišķai darbībai jāsasniedz noteikts izpildes līmenis.

Var secināt, ka attīstītāko ārvalstu speciālisti lielu uzmanību velta likumpārkāpēju uzbrukuma dažādu situāciju analīzei, kā arī viņu aizturēšanas efektivitātei. Policistu mācīšanās pilnveidošanā tiek veikti kompleksi pasākumi, pamatojoties uz dažādu uzbrukuma situāciju modelēšanu, kas bieži sastopamas praksē. Ārvalstu speciālisti izdala modulēšanas 4 pamata situāciju grupas: bruņota likumpārkāpēja uzbrukums, ar auksto ieroci vai ar priekšmetu bruņots likumpārkāpēja uzbrukums, ar šaujamieroci bruņots likumpārkāpēja uzbrukums, kā arī individuāla un grupu darbība. Liela sadaļa veltīta šo jautājumu teorētiskai sagatavošanai. Ārvalstu prakses analīze norāda, ka citu valstu fiziskās audzināšanas pieredzi var veiksmīgi izmantot arī mūsu valsts policistu profesionālās fiziskās sagatavošanas procesā.

Latvijas policistu profesionālā fiziskā sagatavošana

Policijas dienests prasa no policistiem stipru veselību un augstu fiziskās sagatavotības līmeni, lai sekmīgi veiktu savus profesionālos pienākumus. Lai to nodrošinātu, notiek ikgadēja darbinieku fizisko īpašību kontrole, kura noteikta ar Valsts policijas 2002. gada 29. oktobra pavēli Nr. 1119. LPA uzņemšanas noteikumi paredz reflektantu fiziskās sagatavotības pārbaudi. Studiju laikā studentiem jāapgūst studiju kursi „Vispusīgā fiziskā sagatavošana” un „Profesionālā fiziskā sagatavošana”.

LPA profesionālās fiziskās sagatavošanas mērķis ir speciālista, topošā policijas darbinieka sagatavotība lielām, dažreiz maksimālām fiziskām un psiholoģiskām slodzēm, mērķtiecīgai profesionālai darbībai sarežģītos un dzīvībai bīstamos apstākļos, kas ir gatavs radošam darbam un Dzimtenes aizsardzībai, prot pieņemt lēmumus un darboties demokrātiskā un sociāli-tiesiskā valstī, pamatojoties uz Latvijas Republikas Satversmes normām un Eiropas Savienības tiesību principiem.

Kā rāda vairāki zinātniski pētījumi (Laskiene, Zaborskis, Zemaitiene, Abele, Zeringyte, 2004; Ārente, Gaņģis, Kravalis, Želvis, 2005), jauniešu veselības stāvoklis, fiziskā attīstība un fiziskās sagatavotības līmenis mūsu valstī pēdējos gados ievērojami pasliktinājies.

Iekšlietu ministrijas pavēlēs un instrukcijās ir teikts, ka sarežģītu operatīvu situāciju apstākļos, ārkārtas situācijās, nereti iekšlietu darbinieki izrāda apjukumu un nevarību, piekāpjās paš aizsardzības paņēmieni pielietošanas prasmē likumpārkāpēju priekšā. Tas liecina par likumsargu sagatavošanas sistēmas nepietiekošu efektivitāti, lai sekmīgi aizsargātos un aizturētu nepakļāvīgu likumpārkāpēju (Želvis J., 2006, 2007).

LPA studentu fiziskās sagatavotības testu izstrāde, jauno prasību ieviešana ir tikai viena puse, kas skaitliski raksturo topošo policistu fiziskās sagatavotības līmeni. Daudz svarīgāks ir kvalitatīvais raksturojums, kas sniedz informāciju par studentu interesēm un motivāciju savā fiziskajā pilnveidošanā. Nepieciešams meklēt jaunas, perspektīvas pieejas fiziskās audzināšanas darbā, kas veicinās aktīvu topošo policistu veidošanos savā personīgā fiziskās pilnveidošanās procesā.

Ar šādu nolūku LPA studentu fiziskās sagatavošanas procesā tika ieviests studiju modulis „Profesionālā fiziskā sagatavošana”, kā arī tika realizēta konstruktīvistiskā pieeja studentu fiziskās pilnveidošanās procesā. *Moduļu studijas*, kas nodrošināja studiju procesa diferenciāciju un individualizāciju, *un konstruktīvistiskā pieeja*, kas ļāva studentiem konstruēt savu mācīšanās pieredzi atbilstoši personīgajām vajadzībām un spējām, ņemt vērā iepriekšējo sportisko pieredzi, radīja labvēlīgu vidi studentu fiziskās sagatavotības līmeņa paaugstināšanai.

Pētījuma **mērķis**: novērtēt jaunas programmas, kas balstās uz konstruktīvisma pieeju, ieviešanu LPA fiziskās sagatavotības procesā, izmantojot studentu fizisko īpašību testēšanu studijās.

Pētījuma metodes

Pētījuma dati tika savākti, izmantojot testa metodi LPA studentu un komandējošā sastāva fiziskās sagatavotības līmeņa noteikšanā. Pētījuma gaitā tika analizētas dažādas fiziskās sagatavotības programmas (dokumentu analīzes metode). Pētījums tika veikts 2006./2007., 2007./2008. studiju gadā un tajā piedalījās Policijas koledža (KIN-koledžas izglītības nodaļa) 1. un 2. kursa 80 studenti (19-23 gadi), 50 cilvēki no komandējošā sastāva (KSN-komandējošā sastāva nodaļa). Gan studenti, gan komandējošais sastāvs izpildīja šādus fiziskās sagatavotības testus: *vīrieši*-100 metru skrējiens, pievilkšanās pie stieņa, 3000 metru kross, ķermeņa augšdaļas pacelšana un nolaišana/reizes 2 minūtēs; *sievietes*-100 metru skrējiens, roku saliekšana un iztaisnošana balstā guļus, 1000 metru kross, ķermeņa augšdaļas pacelšana un nolaišana/reizes 2 minūtēs.

Salīdzinot tradicionālo un uz konstruktīvisma orientēto LPA studentu fiziskās sagatavošanas procesu, konstatējam būtiskās atšķirības galvenajos komponentos (sk.tab.1.).

Tab. 1.

Atšķirības starp tradicionālajām un uz konstruktīvismu orientētām studijām LPA studentu profesionālās fiziskās sagatavošanas procesā.

	<i>Tradicionālais fiziskās sagatavošanas process</i>	<i>Uz konstruktīvismu orientēts fiziskās sagatavošanas process</i>
Studiju programma	Studiju programma sākas ar daļām no veselā. Akcentē pamata prasmes profesionālās fiziskās sagatavotības jomā. Nav atvēlēts pietiekams kontaktstundu skaits studentu fiziskajai sagatavotībai.	Studiju programma izdala lielus konceptus, sākas ar veselā (profesionālās fiziskās sagatavotības) analīzi un, paplašinoties, iekļauj tās daļas. Papildus studentiem ir iespēja strādāt pēc izstrādātas (kopā ar docētāju) individuālās programmas fiziskās sagatavotības pilnveidošanā.
Mērķis	Virzīts no augšas, uz konkrēta satura apguvi. Akcents-uz topošo policistu salīdzināšanu savā starpā profesionālās fiziskās sagatavošanas jomā. Formāla (neapzināta) normatīvu kārtošana, izpildot docētāja prasības.	Subjektīvi nozīmīgs un pieņemts. Akcents-uz studentu individuālās motivācijas attīstību, strādājot individuāli, sadarbojoties un sazinoties grupās, uzsverot profesionālās fiziskās sagatavotības nozīmi turpmākajā darbā.
Uzdevumi	Vairāki sīkāki mērķi.	Orientēti uz studentu mācīšanās perspektīvas nodrošināšanu. Radīti daudzveidīgie apstākļi (studijas, kas ir organizētas moduļu veidā, konstruktīvistiskā pieeja studijām) topošo policistu profesionālās fiziskās sagatavotības pilnveidošanā.
Saturs	Studiju saturs ir stingri reglamentētas, noslēgtas zināšanu sistēmas. Studentiem jāizpilda noteiktus fiziskās sagatavošanas normatīvus, kā arī jāapgūst pašaizsardzības un tuvcīņas tehniski-taktiskās darbības.	Studiju saturs ir atklāta un elastīga sistēma, kas atkarīga no katra studenta iepriekšējās sportiskas pieredzes. Studiju saturs ir autentisks, kas rosina studenta pieredzes paškonstruēšanu profesionālās fiziskās sagatavotības jomā.
Metodes	Parasti izmanto skaidrojumus un demonstrējumus.	Daudzveidīgas interaktīvas metodes. Augsti vērtējams darbs grupās speciālo uzdevumu izpildē, lomu spēles, video, darba situāciju analīze.
Mācīšanās	Mācīšanās ir lineārs, sistemātisks process. Mācīšanās pamatā ir fiziskā vingrinājuma, tehniskā paņēmiena atkārtošana. Zināšanas ir inertas. Students parasti strādā viens.	Mācīšanās ir interaktīvs process un veidojas uz jau esošās pieredzes fiziskās aktivitātes jomā. Radošs process, balstīts uz sadarbību un komunikāciju studentu profesionālās fiziskās sagatavotības pilnveidošanā. Zināšanas ir dinamiskās un mainās kopā ar jauno iegūto fizisko prasmi, paņēmieni, ar kustību krājumu paplašināšanu. Studenti strādā individuāli un grupās, savstarpēji bagātinot savu profesionālās fiziskās sagatavotības pieredzi.
Studenta pozīcija	Vairāk pasīva, ārēji vadīta un kontrolēta.	Aktīva, apzināta, orientēta uz radošu sadarbību, savas profesionālās fiziskās sagatavotības pilnveidošanu.
Mācīšana	Augsti vērtējama stingra pieturēšanās pie fiksētas studiju programmas. Docētājs izplata informāciju, demonstrē kustības un tehniskus paņēmienus studentiem, kas atrodas objektu lomā. Studentam precīzi jāapgūst, ko zina un rāda docētājs. Mācīšana nav atkarīga no studiju satura, konteksta, studenta individuālajām mācīšanās īpatnībām.	Vērtējamas studentu profesionālās intereses un jautājumu veicināšana. Docētājs sadarbībā ar studentiem, sniedz palīdzību viņu profesionālās fiziskās sagatavotības pieredzes konstruēšanas procesā. Ir ievēroti diferenciācijas un individualizācijas principi, ņemot vērā studentu atšķirīgo fizisko attīstību un fiziskās sagatavotības līmeni.
Docētāja pozīcija	Docētāja loma ir tieša, autoritāra. Skaidro studiju vielu, demonstrē kustības, kontrolē izpildi.	Docētāja loma profesionālās fiziskās sagatavotības procesā ir interaktīva, noliedz autoritāti. Organizētājs, padomdevējs, līdzdarbojošs vērotājs visās situācijās.

		Docētājs pats arī mācās kopā ar studentiem.
Novērtēšana un pašnovērtējums	Novērtē studentu profesionālās fiziskās sagatavotības līmeni. Novērtēšanas pamatā profesionālās fiziskās sagatavotības testi.	Studentu fiziskās sagatavotības pamatā ir individuālā rezultātu izaugsmes dinamika. Akcents tiek likts uz studentu pašvērtējumu. Profesionālās fiziskās sagatavošanas process ir tik pat svarīgs, kā tās rezultāts.

Nemot vērā to, ka kontaktstundu skaits, kas ir atvēlēts studentu fiziskajai sagatavošanai, ir nepietiekams, studentiem bija piedāvāta iespēja nodarboties patstāvīgi ārpus studijām, militārajām nodarbībām un dienesta pienākumiem brīvajā laikā. Patstāvīgo fizisko aktivitāšu uzdevums pirmā studiju gadā ir atjaunot studenta fiziskās un garīgās darbaspējas. Ievērojot specifisko studiju un dienas režīmu Policijas Koledžā (PK) šo uzdevumu realizēšanai piemērotākais ir skriešana (ziemā – slēpošana), sporta spēles (basketbols, volejbols, futbols, galda teniss).

Rezultāti un diskusija

Studentu un komandējošā sastāva fiziskās sagatavotības rezultātu dinamika ir augšupejoša. Sakarā ar raksta ierobežotām iespējām nav uzrādītas visas diagrammas.

Visos fiziskās sagatavotības pārbaudes testos ir uzrādīti labāki rezultāti (tika salīdzināti 2006./2007.studiju gads -1. kurss un 2007./2008.studiju gads-2. kurss). Apzīmējumi diagrammās nozīmē: 100m 1.f., 2.f-1., 2. kursa sievietes (female), 100m 1.m, 2.m- 1., 2. kursa vīrieši (male).

Fiziskās sagatavotības uzrādītie rezultāti katrā no četriem pārbaudes veidiem nosacīti bija novērtēti trijos līmeņos:

1-4 punkti – **zems līmenis (1);**

5-7 punkti – **vidējs līmenis (2);**

8-10 punkti – **augsts līmenis (3).**

Zemāk varam apskatīties studentu fiziskās sagatavotības dinamiku 1.un 2. studiju kursā atbilstoši trīs līmeņiem (sk. diagrammas nr. 1.-3.).

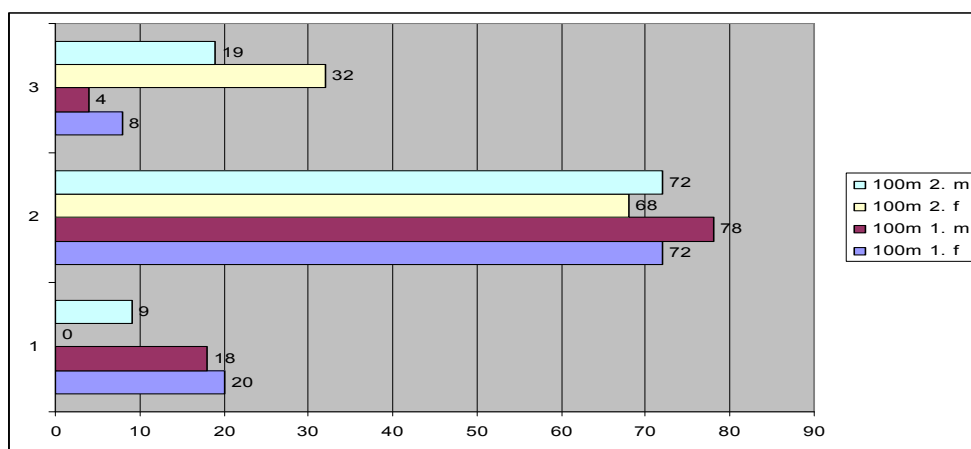


Diagramma. 1. **Studentu** rezultātu dinamika **100m skrējienā** atbilstoši 3 attīstības līmeņiem (sievietēm un vīriešiem, %).

Studentiem – sievietēm ir vērojama diezgan strauja rezultātu dinamika. 1.kursā vairākums studentes rezultātu uzrādīja vidējā līmenī -72% (15,3-16,0 sek), 20% – zemā līmenī (16,0-17,2 sek) un tikai 8% - augstā līmenī.

2. kursā pieauga rezultāti 100m skrējienā, kas atbilst 3. līmenim-32% (13,6-15,2 sek). Vidējā līmenī palika 68% studentu. **Vīriešiem** 100m skrējienā 1. kursā pārsvarā atbilst vidējam līmenim (13,0-13,2 sek) -78%.

Augstā līmenī (11,8-12,8 sek) vīriešu rezultāti pieauga no 4% 1.kursā līdz 19 % - 2.kursā.

Komandējošam sastāvam (vīrieši) rezultātu dinamika ir ievērojama. Piemēram, no 43 % rezultātu, kas atbilst zēmam līmenim, 100 m skrējienā 1. kursā, tie samazinājās līdz 23 % 2.kursā. Arī vidējā līmenī rezultāti uzlabojas 2. kursā –no 57 % līdz 74 %.

Komandējošam sastāvam (sievietes) rezultāti 100 m skrējienā 1. kursā bija diezgan zemi (73%). 2. kursā daļa studentu uzlaboja rezultātus un pārvietoja vidējā līmenī

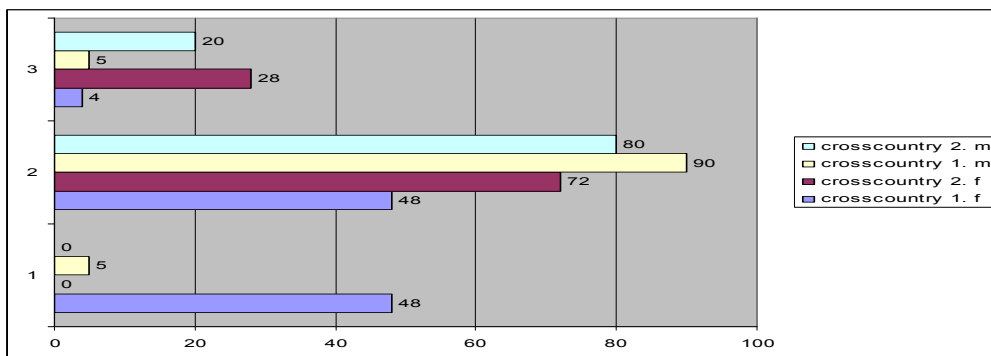


Diagramma. 2. **Studentu** rezultātu dinamika **1000m/3000m krosā** atbilstoši 3 attīstības līmeņiem (sievietēm un vīriešiem, %).

Studentiem –sievietēm rezultātu dinamika no pirmā uz otru kursu 1000 m krosā ir būtiska. 1/3 studentu (28 %) uzrādīja rezultātus, kas atbilst augstam līmenim (3:30-3:40). Pirmajā kursā tikai 4% studentu varēja uzrādīt šādus rezultātus. Tas attiecas arī uz rezultātiem, kas atbilst zēmam līmenim (4:20-4:41), 1.kursā zēmus rezultātus uzrādīja 48 % studentu, bet otrajā kursā-neviens.

Vīriešu rezultāti no vidēja līmeņa 1. kursā (90%) daļēji pārvietoja uz augstu līmeni 2.kursā (20%). (sk.diagr. 2.). **Komandējošā sastāva** rezultātu dinamika **sievietēm** 1000m un vīriešiem 3000m krosā nav tik liela, ka topošiem policistiem Jau 1.kursā rezultāti nebija augsti. 80% sieviešu uzrādīja rezultātus, kas atbilst zēmam līmenim, 2.kursā rezultātu skaits samazinājās līdz 73%. Vidējā līmenī sieviešu rezultāti krosā no 20% 1. kursā pieauga līdz 27 % 2.kursā.

Vīriešu rezultātu dinamika krosā ir ievērojamāka. No 57% 1.kursā rezultātu skaits samazinājās līdz 31% 2. kursā zemā līmenī. No 43% 1. kursā vidējā līmenī rezultātu skaits pieauga līdz 63% 2. kursā vīriešiem.

Studentiem-sievietēm rezultāti augšdaļas pacelšanā un nolaišanā ir uzlabojušies: zemā līmenī samazinājās no 32% 1. kursā līdz 8% 2. kursā. Vidējā līmenī sievietes uzlaboja rezultātus no 68% 1. kursā līdz 88% 2.kursā. Lai rezultāti atbilstu vidējam līmenim augšdaļas pacelšanu un nolaišanu jāizpilda no 52-62 reizēm divās minūtēs.

Vīriešiem ir līdzīga situācija rezultātu samazināšanās zemā līmenī 1.kursā no 47% līdz 25% 2. kursā. Vidējā līmenī (61-74/divās minūtēs) ir vērojama rezultātu dinamika no 53% 1. kursā līdz 69% 2.kursā. **Komandējošā sastāva** (gan sievietēm, gan vīriešiem) rezultātu dinamika augšdaļas pacelšanā un nolaišanā ir acīmredzama. Tomēr pēc respondentu pašvērtējuma spēks ir vissliktāk attīstītā īpašība.

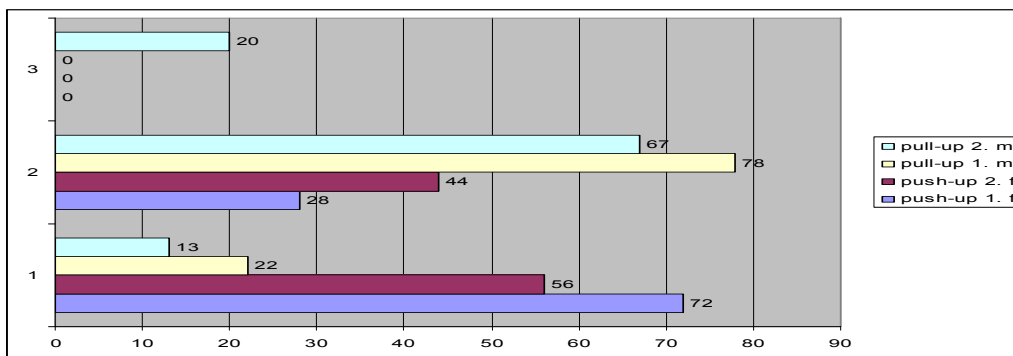


Diagramma. 3. *Studentu* rezultātu dinamika **roku saliekšanā un iztaisnošanā/pievilkšanās pie stieņa** atbilstoši 3 attīstības līmeņiem (sievietēm un vīriešiem, %).

Sievietēm tests roku saliekšana un iztaisnošana balstā guļus atbilst zemam līmenim robežās no 15-26 reizēm. 1. kursā šajā līmenī atradās 72% studentu. 2.kursā studentu skaits samazinājās līdz 56%. **Vīriešiem** šie rādītāji ir augstāki: 1. kursā 22% studentu uzrāda zema līmeņa rezultātus (5-12 reizes pievilkšanās pie stieņa), 2. kursā -13% studentu. Vidējā līmenī (13-17 reizes) šis skaits attiecīgi samazinās no 78% 1. kursā līdz 67% 2.kursā (sk.diagr.3.).

Komandējošam sastāvam gan vīriešiem, gan sievietēm rezultātu dinamika šajā testā nav tik strauja, bet parādās noteikta virzība uz rezultātu uzlabošanu. Sievietēm roku saliekšana un iztaisnošana nav vieglākais tests. To var redzēt arī pēc diagrammas, 100% studentu 1. kursā uzrādīja rezultātus diapazonā no 15-26 reizēm, kas atbilst zemam līmenim. 2. kursā studentu rezultāti, kas atbilst zemam līmenim, samazinājās līdz 87%. 13% studentu spēja nokārtot šo normatīvu ar rezultātu, kas atbilst vidējam līmenim.

Secinājumi

1. *Visvājākā* fiziskā īpašība sievietēm – *spēks* (roku saliekšana un iztaisnošana) - 44% studentu rezultāti atbilst vidējam līmenim. *Ātrums* ir otrā pēc attīstības fiziskā īpašība, 68% rezultātu atbilst vidējam līmenim, 32% - augstam līmenim. *Izturība ir vislabāk attīstītā fiziskā īpašība*, vidējam līmenim atbilst 72% rezultātu, augstam līmenim-28%.
2. Vīriešiem *visvājākā* fiziskā īpašība ir *spēks* – pievilkšanās pie stieņa 67% studentu rezultāti atbilst vidējam līmenim (2.kursā). *Ātrums* ieņem otro vietu pēc fizisko īpašību attīstības: 72% rezultātu atbilst vidējam līmenim, 9% - augstam līmenim. *Izturība ir vislabāk attīstītā īpašība*, vidējam līmenim atbilst 80% rezultātu, augstam līmenim-20%.
3. Konstruktīvistiskā pieeja moduļu studiju ietvaros LPA studentu profesionālās fiziskās sagatavošanas procesā palielināja studentu interesi par policista profesionālo fizisko sagatavotību, veicināja fizisko īpašību pilnveidošanu, kas atspoguļojas testu rezultātos.

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PĒTNIECISKO DARBU PRAKTISKĀS PROBLĒMAS SKOLĀ

PRACTICAL ISSUES OF THE RESEARCH ACTIVITY AT SCHOOL

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Abstract

Educational changes are looked at during the lessons of geography, developing and appearing at schools in the influence of various world pedagogical conceptions in Latvia.

The research purpose: the research of the development of research action of pupils in the process of the lessons of geography.

Research methods. *Theoretical methods:* analysis and evaluation of scientific literature in methodology of scientific research, pedagogy and psychology, geography. *Empirical methods:* 1) qualitative methods (direct supervision); 2) the quantitative methods: correlation research (questionnaire of teachers; analysis of correlations); the methods of the descriptive statistics: indicators of central tendency (median, mode); the methods of the nonparametric statistics (Manna-Vitniy U test).

Results. Checking the efficiency of the model of research action development of pupils with the experiment the author has driven a conclusion that the application of the model is effective and the aim is achieved. The model is intended for the teacher - to promote the research activities in the process of lessons of geography. In the process of the lesson teachers use the didactical method to help a pupil to move forward with the idea about the research, about the theme covered during the lesson, that makes a pupil to develop socially (communication in a team, cooperation during the research) and also psychologically (intellect, emotions, will), what is more, also the physical side is being touched. The teachers use the didactical method, but there is a big difference that is made by the subjective desire of a student as well as some other objective factors of every pupil (knowledge and ability) are considered important. Teachers value the judicial component quite positively, which means that six steps, how to promote the research activity and considerably - to estimate various researches of pupils using criteria method's component using: 5. levels, 7 criteria and 2 pointers. In the experimental part, all the measuring is rounded up in the scale, therefore the criterion of both groups' middle arithmetic results will be compared to the the U test of Manna Witny which is considered the most bold nonparamethric method. In all scales of measuring the middle pointers of the experimental group $\alpha < 0,05$ are in a level higher that in the control group. Also the Z unit is in the limits from +1,96 till -1,96, so, it is possible to draw the conclusion, that the application of the model of research action's development is effective.

Conclusions. Analyzing, interpreting, summing up the research results and functions of the models, the author came to a conclusion, that the functioning of the model of research action of geography in the pedagogical practice depends on a teacher, on the development of a pupil and positively promotes their selfrealization. The research specifies *that the process of the research action develops the capabilities of pupils*, consciousness, the creative action promotes self-expression. It is in the hands of teachers to compare the universal possibilities with their abilities.

Key words: activity, creative, pedagogy, teaching practice, pedagogical process

Ievads

Pētnieciskā darbība ir aktuāla un ir piesaistījusi sabiedrības interesi, jo sabiedrībai vajadzīgi cilvēki, kas spēj analizēt, izprast savu vietu sabiedriskajā dzīvē. Šo procesu skolā veicina skolēnu pētnieciskā darbība, kas attīsta gribu, aktivitāti. Pētnieciskā darbība parādās caur projektu darbiem vai kā atsevišķi elementi apgūstot prasmes un iemaņas mācību procesā skolā.

Darbs veltīts aktuālai problēmai – *skolēnu pētnieciskās darbības attīstībai ģeogrāfijas mācību procesā skolā*. Izglītības pārmaiņas tiek skatītas ģeogrāfijas mācību priekšmetam attīstoties un veidojoties šodienas skolā Latvijā dažādu pasaules pedagoģisko koncepciju ietekmē. Pusaudžu vecumā var sākt veikt zinātnisko pētniecību un attīstīt skolēnu pētniecisko darbību. Mācību procesā skolā pētnieciskai darbībai ir šādi uzdevumi:

- 1) sekmēt izziņas metožu apguvi,
- 2) nodrošināt zināšanu radošu izmantošanu,
- 3) sekmēt skolēnu zinātkāres attīstību,
- 4) veidot radošās darbības pieredzi,
- 5) sekmēt skolēna patstāvības attīstību pētnieciska rakstura uzdevumu risināšanā.

Formulējot iepriekš minētos uzdevumus pētnieciskai darbībai, skolotājs organizē un vada skolēnu izziņas darbību tā, lai viņi patstāvīgi nonāktu līdz problēmas loģiskam risinājumam. Svarīgi ir apgūt pētnieciskā darba paņēmienus, tos piemērojot šodienas vajadzībām, nemitīgi tos papildinot ar jaunāko informāciju, izmantojot praksē, dzīvē, saistīt ģeogrāfijas mācību stundu darbu ar radošu un pētniecisku darbību veidojot skolēnos patstāvīgu un radošu pieeju mācību darbam, attīstot kritisko domāšanu, meklējot jautājuma būtību, ievērojot vecumposmu, pedagoģiski psiholoģiskos faktorus: vajadzības, motīvus, personības īpatnības, pašvērtējumu, saskarsmes spējas, pētnieciskās darbības metodes, posmus, pieeju, veidus, skolēna attīstību un pētnieciskās darbības kritērijus.

Šai jomā nozīmīgu ieguldījumu devusi G. Ščukina (Щукина Г. 1979.) un Dž. Djuijs (Dewey J. 1922.), Z. Čehlova (Z. Čehlovas 2000. skolēnu izziņas darbības struktūra un tās komponenti), I. Maslo, (I. Maslo 2005.), I. Žogla (I. Žoglas 2005. atziņas par skolēnu izziņas darbību), A. Špona (A. Šponas 2005. mācību un audzināšanas darbības subjektīvo un objektīvo komponentu sakarības skolotāju un skolēnu darbības saskarsmē) ar savām koncepcijām un citi, bet vēl pētīšana pieprasa noskaidrot, ar kādu lomu pētnieciskā darbība veikta Latvijas skolās un tieši mācību procesā.

Veikto pētījumu uzmanības centrā bija skolēnu pētnieciskās darbības attīstība ģeogrāfijas mācību procesa ietvaros. Lai veicinātu šo attīstību, bija jāizstrādā un jāpamato pamatskolas skolēnu pētnieciskās darbības attīstības modelis.

Pētījuma mērķis: skolēnu pētnieciskās darbības attīstības izpēte ģeogrāfijas mācību procesā.

Pētījuma metodes

Teorētiskās: zinātniskās literatūras analīze (zinātnisko pētījumu un eksperimentu metodoloģijā; pedagoģijā un psiholoģijā; ģeogrāfijā).

Empīriskās: 1) *kvalitatīvās* (tiešā novērošana); 2) *kvantitatīvās*: sakarību pētīšanas metodes (skolotāju aptauja, korelāciju analīze), aprakstošās statistikas metodes (centrālās tendences rādītāji - mediāna, moda); neparametriskās statistikas metodes (Manna-Vitnija U tests).

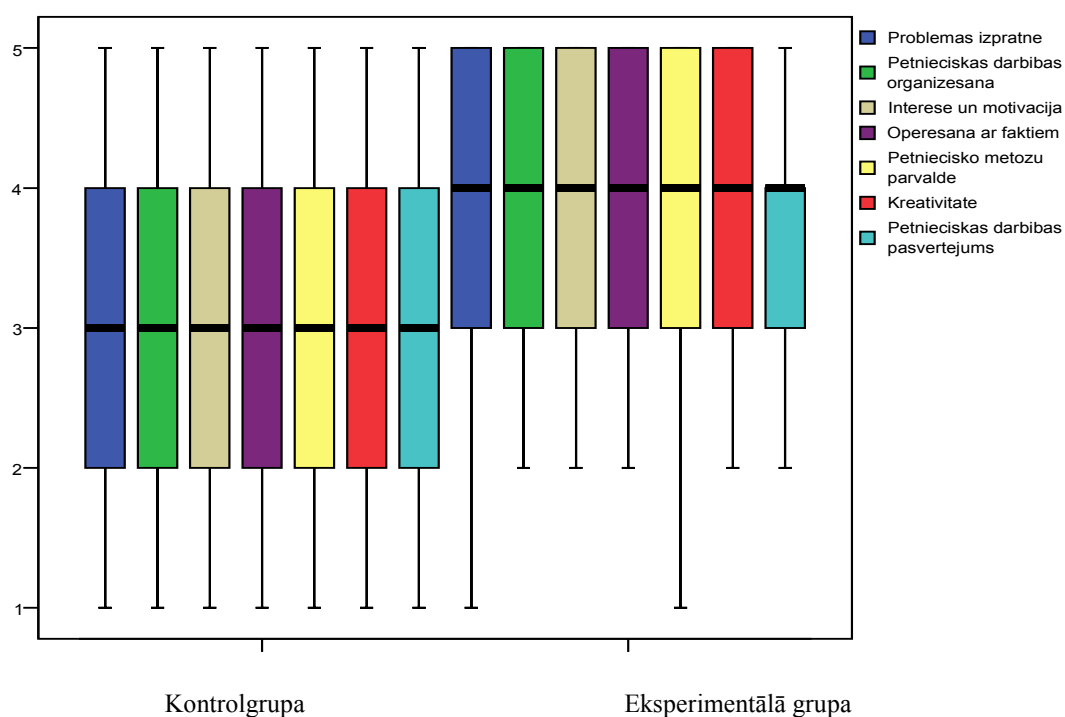
Eksperimenta periods: 2004/05. mācību gadā. Aprobācijā piedalās -105 skolēni. Skolēni, kuri iesaistījās pētnieciskajā darbībā, ātrāk reaģē uz jaunievedumiem, drosmīgāk un rezultatīvāk ievieš jauno pedagogiskajā praksē.

Eksperimentāli pārbaudot (konstatējot), kā funkcionē 3 komponenti – didaktiskais komponents; procesuālais komponents; kritēriālais komponents, kuri veido pētnieciskās darbības modeli skolēnu mācību procesā ģeogrāfijā, var secināt, ka modelis efektīvi darbojas un attīsta skolēna personību. Salīdzinot skolēnu varēšanu strādāt pētniecisko darbu Latvijā un citās valstīs, secinu, ka pats galvenais pētnieciskajā darbībā ir ***strādāt sistēmā***. Tas parāda, ka pētnieciskās darbības process iekļaujas sistēmā un veido sarežģītāku sistēmu. Eksperimenta gaitā vērojamas sakarības, kuras palīdz attīstīt skolēnu pētniecisko darbību. Pētījumā tika noskaidrots, ka no 1. līdz 5. līmenim mainās ***kvalitatīvā un kvantitatīvā pētījuma struktūra. Pētījumā iegūti pētnieciskās darbības vērtēšanas kritēriji un rādītāji.***

Rezultāti un diskusija

Vai starp divām skolēnu grupām sagatavotības ziņā ir būtiskas atšķirības? Vai eksperimentālās grupas sagatavotības līmenis aizvadītajā laika periodā ir būtiski mainījies? Tātad, beidzot eksperimentu, var uzskatāmi redzēt abu grupu rezultātu. Kvartiļu diagramma (skat. 1. diagr.) parāda, vai, darbojoties ***ar pētnieciskās darbības modeli, ir kas mainījies***. To labi parāda abu grupu rezultāti. Šos jautājumus risina, pārbaudot nulles hipotēzi – pieņēmumu, ka divu ģenerālkopu rādītāju starpība ir nulle, t.i., bezgalīgi palielinot salīdzināmo paraugkopu apjomus, iegūst vienu un to pašu ģenerālkopu. Pārbaudes rezultātā nulles hipotēzi pieņem vai noraida. Lēmumu pieņem nevis kā absolūtu patiesību, bet gan ar vajadzīgo ticamības līmeni ($P = 0,95$) vai pieļaujamās kļūdas varbūtību – būtiskuma līmeni ($\alpha = 0,05$). Tātad pieļaujam, ka 5% gadījumu iespējama kļūda.

Pārbaudi veic, izmantojot kādu parametrisku metodi. Ja novērtē nulles hipotēzi par divu kopu parametriem, rezultāti, izmantojot aritmētisko vidējo, tiek salīdzināti Mana-Vitnija U testā, kas tiek uzskatīts par pašu drošāko neparametrisko metodi.



1. attēls. Modeļa būtiska mainība pēc pētnieciskās darbības

Attēls (skat. 1.att.) parāda, kā mainās pēc būtības pētnieciskās darbības modelis eksperimentālajai un kontrolgrupai pēc eksperimenta veikšanas pēc 7 rādītājiem, pēc kuriem pētnieciskie darbi tiek izvērtēti.

Sastādot tabulas korelāciju abām grupām kopā, kad ir apstrādātas 105 anketas, tiek iegūts rezultāts; visi vidējie rādītāji pēc biežuma pozitīvi korelē savā starpā nozīmīguma līmenī 99%, korelācijas koeficients mainās no 0,27 (vāja korelācija) līdz 0,61 (vidēja korelācija). Tas vēlreiz pierāda vērtēšanas skolas lietderību un piedāvātā modeļa rādītāju atlasī.

Lielākā pozitīvā korelācija starp abu grupu šādiem rādītājiem: pirmās un otrās problēmas izpratne un pētnieciskās darbības organizēšana (divpusējās korelācijas koeficients 0,61, p-vērtība 0,000, nozīmīgums 99%).

Vai abām skolēnu grupām ir būtiskas atšķirības sagatavotībā? Vai eksperimentālai grupai eksperimenta laikā ir būtiski mainījies sagatavotības līmenis? Šie jautājumi parāda, ka, bezgalīgi palielinot apjomu, veidojas viena un tā pati galvenā sakarība. Rezultātā pārbaudot nulles hipotēzi, tā tiek vai nu apstiprināta vai noliegta. Lēmumu pieņem ne kā absolūtu patiesību, bet ar noteiktu ticamības pakāpi ($P = 0,95$) un varbūtējo pieļaujamo kļūdu – ticamības līmeni ($\alpha = 0,05$). Tātad pieļaujamā kļūda var būt 5% (skat. 1.tab.).

1. tabula.

Manna-Vitnija U testa rezultāti (testa statistika)

N.p.k.	Rādītāji	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
1.	Problēmas izpratne	-4,80	0,000
2.	Pētnieciskās darbības organizēšana	-3,97	0,000
3.	Motivācija un interese	-4,68	0,000
4.	Prasme vadīt pētījumu	-4,51	0,000
5.	Pārvalda pētnieciskās metodes	-3,61	0,000
6.	Radošums	-4,78	0,000
7.	Pētnieciskās darbības pašvērtējums	-3,41	0,001

SPSS programmā tiek norādīts asimetriskās ticamības līmenis, tas nozīmē, ja $\alpha < 0,05$, tad atšķirības ir statistiski nozīmīgas. Respektīvi, asimetriska nozīmības līmeņa lasīšana SPSS programmā ir līdzīga citiem kritērijiem.

Visās mērījumu skalās eksperimentālās grupas vidējie rādītāji $\alpha < 0,05$ līmenī augstāki kā kontroles grupā. Arī Z vērtība nav robežās no +1,96 līdz -1,96, tātad, var secināt, ka pētnieciskās darbības attīstības modeļa pielietošana ir efektīva (skat. 2. tab.).

2. tabula.

Manna-Vitnija testa rezultāti (testa statistika)

N.p.k.	Rādītāji	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon (W)	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
1.	Problēmas izpratne	651	2029	-4,80	0,000
2.	Pētnieciskās darbības organizācija	780	2158	-3,97	0,000
3.	Motivācija un interese	678	2056	-4,68	0,000
4.	Operēšana ar faktiem	697	2075	-4,51	0,000
5.	Pētniecības metožu pārvaldīšana	836	2214	-3,61	0,000
6.	Radošums	657	2035	-4,78	0,000
7.	Pētnieciskās darbības pašvērtējums	868	2246	-3,41	0,001

Salīdzinot abas grupas – eksperimentālo un kontrolgrupu, var secināt redzams, ka teorētiski veidotais pētnieciskās darbības modelis, ***kuru veido trīs komponenti (didaktiskais, procesuālais un kritēriālais) darbojas***. To apstiprina pētnieciskās darbības modeļa pārbaude, to pielietojot.

Secinājumi

1. Apkopojot ģeogrāfijas mācību priekšmeta vēsturisko attīstību, redzam, ka dažādu autoru koncepcijās ir vērojami visi pētnieciskās darbības elementi: patstāvīgā darbība, izziņas darbība un kritiskā domāšana. Tieši vēstures apzināšana ir pamats tālākiem pētījumiem, priekšmeta zināšanai, pētnieciskās darbības modeļa veidošanai un kritēriju izstrādei.
2. Nozīmīgi ir principi, kuriem sekoja daudzi pedagogi, kas apguva ievērojamo pedagogu atziņas un ieviesa tās skolu mācību procesā, kas pakāpeniski dažādojās un pilnveidojās.
3. Skolēni izmanto pētniecisko darbību un tās komponentus (didaktisko, procesuālo un kriteriālo).
4. Eksperimentāli pārbaudot (konstatējot) 3 komponentu funkcionēšanu-didaktiskais modelis, procesuālais modelis un kriteriālais modelis ģeogrāfijas mācību procesā, var secināt, ka modeļi darbojas efektīvi un **attīsta skolēna personību**. Pētījumā noskaidrojās, ka no 1. līdz 5. līmenim mainījies pētījuma **kvalitatīvā un kvantitatīvā struktūra**. Pētījumā ir iegūti **vērtēšanas kritēriji** un **pētnieciskās darbības līmeņi**.
5. Skolēniem ir **atšķirīgi zināšanu līmeņi**, viņi ir **dažādi orientēti uz kritisko domāšanu**, kas veidojas analizējot dažādus kritērijus un viedokļus. Tāpēc nozīmīga ir skolotāja un skolēna sadarbība. Centrā ir subjekts-skolēna personība, skolēna rīcība(piedalās disputos, uzdod jautājumus utt.). Skolēns prot darboties kā menedžeris, reklamējot, popularizējot pētījumu, skolēns saskata atšķirības koncepcijās. Nozīmīga ir pētnieciskās darbības efektivitāte, prasme izteikt savu domu, lai pētījums tiek veikts augstā līmenī.
6. Ģeogrāfijas pētnieciskās darbības modeļa funkcionēšana pedagoģiskajā praksē ir atkarīga no skolotāja, skolēna attīstības, kā arī pozitīvi sekmē viņu pašrealizāciju. Pētījums norāda, **ka pētnieciskās darbības process attīsta skolēnu spējas**, pašapziņu, radošā darbība veicina pašizpaušmi. Skolotāja rokās ir universālas iespējas paša spējas salīdzināt ar objektīvajām iespējām tās realizēt.

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COMPETITIVENESS AS A PEDAGOGICAL CONCEPT: FROM THEORETICAL SUBSTANTIATION TO PUPILS' OPINION AND EVALUATION

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Abstract

Introduction. The new paradigms (*ecological, synergetic*) in pedagogy enable to study both aspects: a *society* and an *individual* as a self-developing, self-organizing and self-evaluating system that functions and develops, learns to live, plans and forecasts; constructs and gathers its own experience; that is able to choose and to be responsible for the consequences of its own actions under the conditions of modern rapidly changing environment. Thus *competitiveness* becomes one of the basic categories not only in economy, but also in pedagogy. It is important to study and understand the new meaning of this concept that significantly differs from the old paradigm of competitiveness and stereotypes of human thinking. Therefore the *objective of this article* is: to *present the results of the experimental research, where authors analyze and evaluate pupils' opinions, positions towards the indications of the competitiveness*.

Research methods: 1) data acquisition methods: projective composition with assignment, content analysis of the composition, survey; 2) survey data processing methods: determination and comparing of average ranges, *Kendall's Concordance Test, Kendall's Correlation Test, and Spearman's Range Correlation Test*, using SPSS software.

Results and Conclusions. At present there is no unity regarding the substantiation of competitiveness, however, we can find three approaches to the substantiation of competitiveness: 1) structural approach, where there are several structural elements emphasized; 2) biometrical approach where there are indicated and evaluated characteristic features of personality's competitiveness; 3) functional approach where there are types and spheres of competitiveness manifestation analyzed. There is the *combined approach* as well, where we can use two or all three above mentioned approaches. It is important to study the younger generation's understanding about competitiveness, as well as to promote its development. The sum of the average index of competitiveness indications according to the evaluation provided by both pupils of urban and rural secondary schools shows that 11 most significant indicators of competitiveness according to respondents' point of view are: persistence; readiness for risk; ability to work and respect towards work; clear aims for life/future; communicative skills; ability to be the leader; no fear to make a mistake; creativity; skills to convince others and to defend one's own point of view; cooperation skills; readiness to overcome difficulties, including physical and mental endurance. Having processed mathematically the data obtained as a result of the experiment, we concluded: 1) *there isn't concordance/unity* in the evaluation provided by the pupils of urban schools regarding the significance of competitiveness indications; 2) *there isn't concordance/unity* in the evaluation provided by the pupils of rural schools as well; in both cases we diagnosed disparities. In next stage of research we conclude that *there is a correlation between* two selections of indications: the sums of the average ranges of competitiveness indications according to the evaluation provided by pupils of *urban* and *rural* schools. It means that there are no differences between urban and rural respondents' views regarding the significance of competitiveness indications which characterize competitive person/personality, because, in spite of the specificity of cultural environment of urban and rural schools and peculiarities of individual thinking, on the whole there exists a uniform subculture of generations, including *youth subculture*, with common basic values, norms of behavior etc.

Key words: changeable environment; competitive personality; indications of competitiveness, pupils' opinion and evaluation.

Introduction

The dynamics of socially economic activities and their growth is becoming the problem of global scale. Many processes make us question the possibilities of sustainable development and aims of activity.

The new paradigms (*ecological, synergetic*) in pedagogy enable to study both aspects: a *society* and an *individual* as a self-developing, self-organizing and self-evaluating system that functions and develops, learns to live, plans and forecasts; constructs and gathers its own experience; that is able to choose and to be responsible for the consequences of its own actions under the conditions of modern rapidly changing environment. The ecological and synergetic approaches enable to draw a conclusion that nowadays every human must learn to live and change in the interaction with the changeable *environment*.

The ongoing globalisation and integration processes increasingly influencing different social processes, including the situation in the labour market, have raised up the topicality of the necessity in education to develop competitiveness of the society in general, as well as of every individual. Thus *competitiveness* becomes one of the basic categories not only in economy, but also in pedagogy. It is important to study and understand the new meaning of this concept that significantly differs from the old paradigm of competitiveness and stereotypes of human thinking. Therefore the *objective of this article* is: to *present the results of the experimental research, where authors analyze and evaluate pupils' opinions, positions towards the indications of the personality competitiveness*.

Research methods

Within the period of time from 2006 till 2008 we carried out the *research with the aim*: to study the opinions of the students/pupils from comprehensive secondary schools of Latvia regarding the competitive personality and indications (indicators) of competitiveness. The respondents were from the schools, which participate in the project "*Be a Leader!*". This project is carried out at the scale of Latvia.

Research methods: 1) data acquisition methods: projective composition with assignment, content analysis of the composition, survey; 2) survey data processing methods: determination and comparing of average ranges, *Kendall's Concordance Test*, *Kendall's Correlation Test*, and *Spearman's Range Correlation Test*, using SPSS software.

Experimental research consisted of two stages: 1) the *first stage*: on the basis of students' (pupils') views regarding the competitive personality, the young people had to characterize in their compositions the competitive personality, emphasizing at least 10 qualities/indicators of

competitiveness; when performing the projective content analysis of compositions, there were found out the qualities of competitiveness, which were indicated by at least 50% of respondents; on the basis of obtained results there were the questionnaires developed for the second stage of research, 2) the *second stage*: there was the survey performed, where the respondents had to classify the qualities of competitiveness, provided by the questionnaire, according to their significance; the aggregation of obtained data and their processing using mathematical methods; the analysis and evaluation of results.

In the first stage of the research there were invited to take part *30 base schools* of the project “Be a Leader!”, which have gathered experience within this project already for several years. In the first stage of the research *498 respondents* participated: 1) 338 respondents from 20 rural secondary schools; 2) 160 respondents from 9 urban schools. This proportion of the number of pupils from rural and urban schools largely characterizes also all the selection sample of project participants, because the basic aim of the project was to involve in the project as many pupils from rural schools as possible to ensure their competitiveness regarding the choice of their career, their professional self-determination, within the process of professional formation and development.

At the second stage of research on the basis of voluntary and mutual agreement we selected 10 comprehensive secondary schools from the base of the first stage of research: 5 rural and 5 urban schools. The selection criteria were as follows. In order to carry out the comparative research and to obtain the data as objective and valid as possible, the base schools: 1) equally represented rural areas and cities schools in terms of the quantity of schools; 2) represented all four regions of Latvia: Kurzeme, Latgale, Vidzeme and Zemgale, as well as the capital of Latvia – Riga City and the District of Riga; 3) had at least 2 years of experience regarding participation in the project “Be a Leader!” by taking part in different activities within this project; 4) had to represent the same regions and districts (the schools-participants of the project “Be a Leader!” are from all over Latvia and represent its all 26 districts). In the second stage of the research *203 respondents* participated in the survey: 1) 111 pupils from urban comprehensive secondary schools and 92 pupils from rural secondary schools; the number of pupils from urban schools was a little bit higher than the number of pupils from rural schools because the forms in the urban schools are larger in quantity than in rural schools; 2) 149 respondents were females, and 54 – males; 3) 111 respondents were in form 10, 62 respondents – in form 11 and 30 – in form 12.

Results and discussion

There were 26 indications of competitiveness determined and aggregated as a result of the content analysis of the projective compositions on the first stage of research. They were the following:

▪ clear aims for life/future;	▪ communicative skills;
▪ ability to work and respect towards work;	▪ skill of independent studies;
▪ creativity;	▪ skill to use various information sources;
▪ readiness for risk;	▪ skill to apply one's own knowledge in extraordinary situations;
▪ independence when making decisions;	▪ skill to change one's own thinking, attitudes, activities depending on obtained information, situation and external circumstances/conditions;
▪ orientation towards the progress and self-confidence;	▪ skills to convince others and to defend one's own point of view;
▪ no fear to make a mistake;	▪ skill to fascinate and inspire others;
▪ cooperation skills;	▪ ability to be the leader;
▪ persistence;	▪ desire to continue non-stop/constant self-development;
▪ self-criticism and self-evaluation skills;	▪ ability to adapt to the unknown/unfamiliar environment;
▪ self-organization of one's own time;	▪ desire for self-perfection in various spheres;
▪ readiness to overcome difficulties, including physical and mental endurance;	▪ desire to achieve high results;
▪ stress endurance;	▪ need for the others' positive assessment.

After analysing and evaluating the obtained data we pointed out the approaches in the competitive personality's characterization provided by pupils, which supplement each other:

- *biometrical approach*: emphasizing of personality's various qualities/characteristics;
- *functional approach*, when competitiveness is showed in action, including planning and managing of one's own activities, as well as in the interaction with the surrounding environment, including communication with others people etc.

We can draw a conclusion that the indications of competitiveness, pointed out by pupils, form a three-components structure of competitiveness, which consists of: 1) personality direction component; 2) component of competences; 3) component of personality's flexibility.

The results of our theoretical research testify that there are some various conceptual approaches for the substantiation of competitiveness concept in pedagogy science:

- 1) the *biometrical approach* (Андреев, 1998; Ионина 2003; Потемкина, 2004 etc.);

- 2) the *functional approach* (Muchinsky, 2003; Зеер, 2006; Кирсанов, 2000; Климов, 1996; Митина, 2003 etc.);
- 3) the *structural approach* (Андреев, 2006; Митина, 2003; Шаповалов, 2005; Широбоков, 2000 etc. etc.). The structural approach is the *combined approach*.

On the basis of these results, we worked out a questionnaire for the second stage of research, where respondents classified the given indications of competitiveness according their significance (from the most significant -1 up to the least significant - 26).

The data of respondents' questionnaires were aggregated and processed in order we could compare the point of view expressed by pupils from urban and rural schools. There were calculated the average ranges of competitiveness indications in the selection groups of rural pupils and urban pupils. At the initial stage of data processing we determined, whether there is compatibility/unity of evaluation separately between the respondents in the group of urban schools and the group of rural schools. We determined the coefficient of concordance by means of Kendall's Test.

When processing the data of the significance of competitiveness indications, evaluated by the respondents from *urban schools*, we obtained the following results: $p\text{-value}=0.934 > \alpha =0.05$; and Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance $W=0.008$, therefore we can *conclude* that there isn't concordance/unity in the evaluations provided by the pupils of *urban schools* regarding the significance of competitiveness indications; there is disparity.

When processing the data of the significance of competitiveness indications, evaluated by the respondents from *rural schools*, we obtained the following results: $p\text{-value}=0.977 > \alpha=0.05$, and Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance $W = 0.004$, therefore we can *conclude* that there isn't concordance/unity in the evaluations provided by the pupils of *rural schools* regarding the significance of competitiveness indications; there is disparity.

The next task of data processing was to compare the sum of the average ranges of competitiveness indications according to the evaluation provided by the pupils of urban and rural secondary schools in their respective selection groups. The results of Kendall's Correlation Test and Spearman's Range Correlation Test show that *there is a correlation* between two selections of indications: the sums of the average ranges of competitiveness indications according to the evaluation provided by pupils of urban and rural schools, because Kendall's Correlation Coefficient is the following: $W=0.785$; but Spearman's Range Correlation Coefficient: $r_s=0.919$. It means that there is correlation between the opinions expressed by the pupils from urban and rural schools regarding the personality's competitiveness in total, including significance of competitiveness indications which characterize competitive person/personality. This can be explained on the basis of

ecological approach in pedagogy. In spite of the specificity of cultural environment of urban and rural schools, there are subcultures of generations, including *youth subculture*. It means that the youth is united by common values, attitudes, opinion, norms of behavior etc.

The sum of the average ranges of competitiveness indications according to the evaluation provided by both pupils of urban and rural schools shows that 11 most significant indicators of competitiveness according to respondents' point of view are: 1) persistence; 2) readiness for risk; 3) ability to work and respect towards work; 4) clear aims for life/future; 5) communicative skills; 6) ability to be the leader; 7) no fear to make a mistake; 8) creativity; 9) skills to convince others and to defend one's own point of view; 10) cooperation skills; 11) readiness to overcome difficulties, including physical and mental endurance.

Conclusions

1. It is important to study the younger generation's understanding about competitiveness, as well as to promote its development. The results of the average index of competitiveness indications according to the evaluation provided by both pupils of urban and rural secondary schools shows that 11 most significant indicators of competitiveness according to respondents' point of view are: persistence; readiness for risk; ability to work and respect towards work; clear aims for life/future; communicative skills; ability to be the leader; no fear to make a mistake; creativity; skills to convince others and to defend one's own point of view; cooperation skills; readiness to overcome difficulties, including physical and mental endurance.
2. There are three approaches for substantiation of personality competitiveness in the pupils' opinion and evaluation: 1) *biometrical approach*; 2) *functional approach* and *structural approach*. Our theoretical research testifies that there is the *combined approach* as well.
3. Having processed mathematically the data obtained as a result of the experiment, we concluded: 1) *there isn't concordance/unity* in the evaluation provided by the pupils of urban schools regarding the significance of competitiveness indications; 2) *there isn't concordance/unity* in the evaluation provided by the pupils of rural schools as well; in both cases we diagnosed disparities.
4. There is a *correlation between* two selections of indications: the sums of the average ranges of competitiveness indications according to the evaluation provided by pupils of *urban* and *rural* schools. It means that there are no differences between urban and rural respondents' views regarding the significance of competitiveness indications which characterize

competitive person/personality, because, in spite of the specificity of cultural environment of urban and rural schools and peculiarities of individual thinking, on the whole there exists a uniform subculture of generations, including *youth subculture*, with common basic values, norms of behavior etc.

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CHANGING THINKING PATTERNS AS A RESOURCE IN OVERCOMING OF FAILURE

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Introduction. Success and failure are both normal parts of our lives. Unsuccessful attempts are inevitable when we learn new things or try to find new solutions. Failure becomes a problem if individuals begin to form thinking patterns which contribute to persistent failure. It can lead to school dropout, unemployment, and other social problems which in a long perspective can endanger sustainable development of the society. Individuals who have experienced persistent failure can become members of marginal social groups. Thus studying how individuals experience their own and other people's failure is not only an interesting but quite narrow research topic for cognitive psychologists but a research area which has important applications in many domains. In this article attributional theories', especially Bernard Weiner's approach is used to deal with failure problems. Causal perceptions of success and failure influence the individual's persistence, intensity and choice behavior of tasks. Basis for persistent thinking patterns is often laid in childhood, in communication between children and adults. For this reason teachers' causal attributions for their pupils' failure are of special interest. In this article the author focuses on preschool teachers' causal attributions for their pupils' failure and initiates discussion about how favorable thinking patterns can serve as a resource in overcoming of failure.

Methods. Participants of the study were 39 preschool teachers. They described in written form one of their pupils' successful and one unsuccessful learning event and explained why their pupils achieved or underachieved. Qualitative content analysis was used to treat written answers.

Results. Typical for preschool teachers was to see the reason of unsuccessful performance as external – most of all in children's families. Only in very rare cases the reason was seen as internal – in methods or planning of work of the teacher. At the same time a prevalent pattern was to perceive causes of failure as controllable (by the teacher, by the cooperation with the teacher and the family) and unstable.

Conclusions. Preschool teachers' explanations show the universal tendency called self-serving bias. A possible positive effect of the bias is to protect the teacher's self-esteem. At the same time it cannot be regarded as a professional attitude for teachers. This not quite desirable tendency is balanced with perceiving causes of failure as controllable and unstable. That gives the teacher a belief that she can help the child to gain success. In discussion some ways are proposed for working out thinking patterns for overcoming of failure.

Key words: thinking patterns, failure, pre-school teachers, causal attributions.

Introduction

Success and failure are both normal parts of our lives. Unsuccessful attempts are inevitable when we learn new things or try to find new solutions. Individuals are more creative when they feel free to experiment and are not afraid to make mistakes. On the contrary, when experimenting and making mistakes is inhibited, individuals feel the situation as threatening and this has a blocking influence on individual's internal resources and creativity (Lazarus & Folkman 1984: 32–35). "Creativity is allowing yourself to make mistakes," has written Scott Adams (Adams, 2000), American artist and writer. Kriegesman, Thomas, & Schwering (Schwering, 2005) have introduced the concept of „creative errors". They suggest that a culturally stressed antipathy towards errors leads ultimately to a situation of pronounced innovational incompetence in which creative behavior is avoided. Their opinion is that not an „absolution of mistakes" is required, but a tolerance for legitimate errors which should occur under exceptional circumstances.

Failure becomes a problem if individuals begin to form thinking patterns which contribute to persistent failure. In the school context Brophy (Brophy, 1998) has written about "failure syndrome

students". "Failure syndrome" is one of several terms that teachers commonly use to describe students who approach assignments with very low expectations of success and who tend to give up at early signs of difficulty. Persistent failure in learning or working can lead to school dropout, unemployment, and other social problems which in a long perspective can endanger sustainable development of the society. Individuals who have experienced persistent failure can become members of marginal social groups. Thus studying how individuals experience their own and other people's failure is not only an interesting but quite a narrow research topic for cognitive psychologists but a research area which has important applications in many domains.

Thinking about failure can be seen from many different viewpoints. In this article attributional theories', especially Bernard Weiner's approach is used (Weiner, 1980). According to this theory individuals use variety of causes to explain their success or failure. These explanations – causal attributions – can be classified in three dimensions: locus of control (internality/externality), stability over time, and controllability. Bar-Tal's (Bar-Tal, 1982, 178-179) review gives a substantial amount of evidence that causal perceptions of success and failure influence the individual's persistence, intensity and choice behavior of achievement tasks. Individuals who tend to attribute their failure to unstable-controllable causes, such as effort, tend to persist for a long time even in failure situations. Conversely, attribution of failure to stable-uncontrollable causes does not leave the possibility of changing the outcome in the future and, therefore, there is no reason to persist. The belief in unstable-controllable causes such as effort, causes the person to assume that the outcome depends on will. Therefore, these individuals perform with great intensity on achievement tasks. On the other hand, the belief in stable and uncontrollable causes, such as ability or mood, does not motivate the person to perform with intensity, since there is no belief in having control over causes of success or failure. Nurmi, Aunola, Salmela-Aro, & Lindroos (Lindroos, 2003) have clearly demonstrated that the ways in which individuals approach and respond to academic situations form cumulative, either positive or negative cycles. They also found that students' achievement beliefs and strategies are closely related to causal attributions: students who reported a high level of task-avoidance frequently also referred to a lack of effort after failure, whereas students who reported success expectation often mentioned their abilities as a reason of their success.

Basis for persistent thinking patterns is often laid in childhood, in communication between children and adults. Bar-Tal (Bar-Tal, 1982, 183–189) suggests that many classroom situations involve evaluation of pupils' achievement as success or failure. In these situations, both pupils and teachers tend to ascribe causes to explain the pupils' success or failure on achievement tasks. The teachers' causal perceptions are important determinants of teachers' behavior towards their pupils.

And then teachers' behavior towards pupils determines pupils' causal perception of their success or failure. For this reason teachers' causal attributions for their pupils' failure are of special interest. In this article the author focuses on preschool teachers' causal attributions for their pupils' failure and initiates discussion about how favorable thinking patterns can serve as a resource in overcoming of failure.

Methods

Participants of the study were 39 preschool teachers, all of them females. They represented different age groups from 22 to 50 years (average 38,6). They described in written form one of their pupils' successful and one unsuccessful learning event and explained why their pupils gained success or failed. I use mainly teachers reports about unsuccessful performance in this article but some hints for understanding how teachers perceive children's failure are found from stories of success too. Qualitative content analysis was used to treat written answers. Applied analysis was the so-called directed qualitative content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005) where existing theories (in this case Weiner's attributional theory) help to focus the research question. The coding system still remains open for possible new phenomena.

Results

Examples of failure were brought from all domains of preschool activities: drawing and modeling, dressing, getting along with playmates, difficulties in adapting to kindergarten circumstances, etc. The coding system derived from Weiner's theory could describe the material sufficiently and there was no need to add new codes. Typical for preschool teachers was to see the reason of unsuccessful performance as external – most of all in children's families. This way to explain causes of unsuccessful performance of children could be noticed in 34 (87%) writings. Some examples (a number in brackets after a quote is a number of the respondent): "The child's mother does not help the child at home" (3); „He needs more support and encouragement from adults at home" (10); „There are family problems" (14); „Her parents do not allow her to use plasticine at home" (2); „She has much more toys at home than other children" (20); „She is spoilt" (20)“; „Family and nurturing methods" (39) . Only in very rare cases (in 2 writings which formed 5% of all writings) the reason was seen as internal – in methods or planning work of the teacher: "A child can never be unsuccessful in nursery school, only a teacher can." (26); „The teacher had to find another, more suitable method for him." (28).

At the same time a prevalent pattern was to perceive causes of failure as controllable (by the teacher, by the cooperation with the teacher and the family) and unstable. In 25 writings (64%) cases of failure were described as controllable and/or unstable. Preschool teachers see themselves as

capable to intervene and help the child to perform better: “I showed her how to do it“ (35); „I explained her for what plasticine is used“ (2); „I concentrated to his activity and demonstrated how to do it“ (11). Reports teachers offered as success-stories have often the same typical structure: The child’s initial failure (mostly because of family problems) > The teachers effort to change the situation > The child gains success.

Conclusions and discussion

Preschool teachers’ explanations show the universal tendency called self-serving bias – the tendency to make internal attributions for success (“the child gained success thanks to me as the teacher“) and external attributions for failure (“reasons of the child’s failure were not in me as the teacher but somewhere else – most of all in the child’s family“). A possible positive effect of the bias supposed by some authors (McAllister, 1996), is to protect the teacher’s self-esteem. At the same time it cannot be regarded as a professional attitude of teachers (Gage & Berliner, 1992). This not quite desirable tendency is balanced with perceiving causes of failure as controllable and unstable. That gives the teacher belief that she can help the child to gain success, which leads her to active intervention and helping the child to gain success.

There are some ways to change teachers’ typical thinking patterns to more desirable. I would like to discuss them further. According to Brophy (Brophy, 1998) teachers have to acquaint themselves with principles of attribution retraining, efficacy training, and strategy training. *Attribution retraining* involves bringing about changes in students’ tendencies to attribute failure to lack of ability rather than to insufficient effort. Typically attribution retraining involves exposing students to a planned series of experiences in which modeling, socialization, practice, and feedback are used to teach them to concentrate on the task at hand rather than worry about failing and cope with failures by retracing their steps to find their mistake or by analyzing the problem to find another approach. *Efficacy training* programs also involve exposing students to a planned set of experiences within achievement context and providing them with modeling, instruction, and feedback. Efficacy training programs were developed primarily for low achievers who have become accustomed to failure and have developed generalized low self-concepts of ability. Training helps students set realistic goals and pursue them with the recognition that they have the ability needed to reach those goals if they apply reasonable effort. In *strategy training* approach, modeling and instruction are used to teach problem-solving strategies and related self-talk that students need to handle tasks successfully. It is especially important for use with frustrated students who have not developed effective learning and problem-solving strategies on their own, but who can learn them through modeling and explicit instruction.

Basics of these training approaches should be even more stressed in teacher education programs to give teachers possibility to apply them in their work. In most cases applying them should mean rather the creative use principles of the approaches in different everyday school or preschool situations than organized “training sessions“.

In addition to these successful strategies – according to Robertson (Robertson, 2000), for example, majority of attribution training projects have demonstrated success – one more quite different approach to contribute to overcoming of failure can be suggested. The strategies mentioned above base on the strong belief in significance of causes – although *belief* in some kind of causes, not objective causes are deemed significant. During the past two decades a competing approach has emerged. It is the solution-centered approach which has its beginning in psychotherapy. Reflecting distancing from the positivist view solution-centered approaches claim that searching for causes of failure and concentrating on them can rather inhibit than help in overcoming of failure. Instead teachers and other helpers should concentrate on finding solutions. This process can often be filled with humor and imagination, rich in playful elements. According to representatives of the approach (Friedman, 1993; Rutan, 1992, etc.) this can be a more productive way than trying to find causes which in everyday education or therapy situations are normally very complicated, interwound, and not easily detectable.

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THE SUPERVISORS EDUCATION MODEL IN LATVIA: VISION AND PERSPECTIVES

SUPERVĪZORU IZGLĪTĪBAS MODELIS LATVIJĀ: VĪZIJA UN PERSPEKTĪVAS

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Abstract

Supervision has become as an obligatory demand during studies and the further professional operation of specialists (psychologists, psychotherapists, art therapists, social employees, pedagogues, health persons). The supervisor must undertake the responsibility for the client / patient and the specialist. Problems that concern the client/patient, relationships between the specialist and the client/patient, possibilities of the specialist to observe professional demands, ethics, as well as hardships with a client/patient at work are reflected in the supervision, where the supervisor and supervisee participates. The article updates the issue of preparing supervisors in Latvia which is a precondition for the qualitative development of the supervision system. At the moment a new conception in the preparation of supervisors is developed in Latvia: to licence the program of professional improvement (presupervisor), in which professionals of different areas with Master's Degree in a respective speciality and at least with the experience of two years would start studies in the speciality. This program should provide the possibility to obtain general knowledge, skills and attitudes, necessary for a supervisor, understanding the specifics of supervision in different work environments. In turn, the development of specific knowledge, skills and attitudes of the sphere of professional operation is the task of professional associations.

Kew words: supervisor, supervision, education of supervisors, presupervisor program.

Ievads

Supervīzija mūsdienās pakāpeniski kļūst par neatņemamu vai pat obligātu profesionālās darbības sastāvdaļu jomās, kurās uzmanības centrā atrodas cilvēks, īpaši veselības vai sociālās aprūpes (sociālā darba) vidē. Raksta mērķis ir aktualizēt jautājumu par supervīzoru sagatavošanas problēmām Latvijā, analizējot pašreizējo situāciju un regulējumu, kas ir priekšnosacījums kvalitatīvas supervīzijas sistēmas veidošanai valstī.

Supervīzija – teorētiskais raksturojums

Supervīzijas iedīgli parādījušies ASV 19.gadsimta beigās (Āboltiņa, 2006; 106). Savukārt supervīzijas praksi 20.gadsimta 30. gados ir ieviesuši psihoanalīzes pārstāvji, apzīmējot divu profesionālu mijiedarbību, nododot zināšanas un savstarpēji atbalstot vienu otru (Кочунас, 2008).

Super-vision (angļu val. – uzraudzība, novērošana, kontrole) nozīmē skats no augšas, un tajā pat laikā arī dziļumā, ko Maikls Kerols trāpīgi nosaucis par īpašu spēju – pārredzēšanu vai helikopterēšanu. Viņš raksta: supervīzija ir spēja pacelties un pārraudzīt no helikoptera līmeņa. Šī spēja ir nozīmīga pārraudzībai ne tikai pār ētiskām, bet arī pār juridiskām atbildībām (Carroll, Tholstrup, 2001; 81). Jāuzsver, ka supervīzijas gadījumā attiecības ir sarežģītas, jo te pastāv ne mazāk kā trīs līmeņi: klients / pacients – supervīzējamais; supervīzējamais – supervizors; klients / pacients – supervizors (Jāatzīmē, ka grupā šīs attiecības ir vēl komplicētākas un daudzveidīgākas).

Supervīzija ir process, lai uzturētu adekvātu profesionālās darbības standartu, tā savā būtībā nav terapija, bet ir metode, kas paplašina profesionāla redzesloku, tā ir “specifiska konsultācija par profesionālām sakarībām” (Matīss, 2006; 146). Supervīzija ir dabisks process, kura laikā supervizors saglabā savu veselumu un efektīvi izmanto savus resursus, virzot tos uz attīstību (Dombrosvskis, 2003).

Džeims Overholcers uzsver, ka pastāv divi galvenie supervīzijas mērķi: nodrošināt klienta labklājību un veicināt supervīzējamā profesionālo attīstību (Overholser, 2005; 1 – 13). Attiecīgi var izdalīt vairākas supervīzijas funkcijas: izglītojošā, atbalstošā / spēcinošā, vadības (kontroles) un (iz) novērtēšanas funkcija, kas saistās ar supervīzējamā darba kvalitātes un efektivitātes uzturēšanu (Hawkins, Shohet, 2000; Ivanova, 2003). Bieži vien supervīzijās šīs funkcijas pārklājas vai tiek apvienotas. Līdz ar to, var izdalīt vairākus supervīzijas veidus vai tipus – izglītojošā, vadības / virzošā, atbalstošā / konsultatīvā (Hawkins, Shohet, 2000; 94 – 97).

Viena no supervīzijas pamatfunkcijām ir izglītojošā. Tā nosaka supervīzora pienākumu strukturēt un attīstīt supervīzējamā profesionālās zināšanas, un veicināt izaugsmi. Supervīzoram ir pienākums radīt drošu, atbalstošu vidi, kurā supervīzējamais var iegūt nepieciešamās zināšanas,

pieredzi un prasmes (Moon, 2006). Tādēļ supervīzoram ir jāveido atbalstošs, normalizējošs un saturošs (konteinerējošs) iejaukšanās process.

Tātad supervīzija – pārraudzība / uzraudzība – nozīmē profesionālu kontroli un atbalstu, lai profesionālis vai arī students tiktu galā ar emocionāliem, praktiskiem un teorētiskiem jautājumiem, atrisinātu personiskas problēmsituācijas. Tradicionāli supervīzija tiek pieprasīta, lai nodrošinātu pietiekami labu klīnisko praksi, lai garantētu turpmāku profesionālo attīstību, lai aizsargātu klientus / pacientus un nodrošinātu tiem labklājību. Citiem vārdiem sakot, supervīzija ir veids, kā monitorēt un reflektēt klīnisko praksi ar vairāk pieredzējušu profesionāļu konsultāciju palīdzību (Schaverien, Case, 2007). Supervīzors palīdz supervīzējamam skatīties uz sevi no malas, ieraudzīt problēmu savādāk, it kā no jauna. (Кулаков, 2002; 74 – 86)

Supervīzijas darbība ir skatāma vairākos aspektos, jo pārraudzība ir nepieciešama gan studentiem visu studiju prakses laiku, gan arī pēc studiju beigšanas, resp., topošo speciālistu (psihoterapeitu, mākslas terapeitu, mūzikas terapeitu, psihologu, sociālo darbinieku, ārstniecības personu u.c.) sagatavošanā; kvalifikāciju ieguvušo speciālistu pārraudzībā / uzraudzībā; speciālistu profesionālās kvalifikācijas pilnveidē. Jāņem vērā, ka pašreiz Latvijā arvien tiek izteikti viedokļi (līdzīgi, kā citur pasaulē) par supervīzijas īstenošanas nepieciešamību arī policijas darbiniekiem, ugunsdzēsējiem, militārā dienesta pārstāvjiem, bērnu tiesību aizsardzības speciālistiem utt., īpaši akcentējot iespējas supervīzijas procesā analizēt sevi un savu darbu, risināt problēmas, profesionāli iemācīties ko jaunu, kā arī cīnīties ar profesionālo izdegšanu. (Ramāne, Rebaine, 2008)

Tieši supervīzoram ir jāuzņemas atbildība par klientu / pacientu un speciālistu, ja supervīzija norit studiju prakses ietvaros. Tas nozīmē, ka no supervizora tiek prasītas noteiktas vispārīgas zināšanas, prasmes un attieksmes, kā arī specifiski profesionālas zināšanas, prasmes, attieksmes, personības kvalitātes, morāli ētiskais briedums. Turklāt ir jāņem vērā arī konteksts, kurā notiek supervīzija – organizācijas, profesijas, sociālais, ekonomiskais un darba fokuss.

Supervīzija – tiesiskais pamats profesionālai attīstībai

Ir jāņem vērā, ka katras profesijas nostiprināšanas un attīstības pamatā ir attiecīgais tiesiskais regulējums, kas no vienas puses ir nepieciešams, lai precīzi definētu prasības (standartus) profesionālās darbības jomā un strikti noteiktu attiecību saturu starp pakalpojuma saņēmēju un pakalpojuma sniedzēju, kā arī atbildību, definētu pušu statusus, tiesības un pienākumus, bet no otras – veicinātu profesijas autoritāti un atpazīstamību, oficiālajā līmenī noteiktu sadarbības mehānismus ar valsts un pašvaldību institūcijām, kā arī starp pašas profesijas pārstāvjiem. Latvijas Republikā ne visām veselības un sociālās aprūpes profesijām ir izstrādāts speciāls normatīvais akts, kas regulētu

speciālista darbu (ja vien neskaita profesionālo asociāciju (biedrību) iekšējos normatīvos dokumentus). Līdz ar to būtiska nozīme supervīzijas piemērošanai noteiktajā profesijā ir profesijas standartos un profesionālo apvienību normatīvajos aktos ievērtētajam regulējumam, nosakot prasības supervīzijai un to kārtību.

Tomēr 2006.gadā Sociālo pakalpojumu un sociālās palīdzības likumā, kas attiecīgi nosaka sociālā darba sistēmas darbību Latvijā, tika iekļauta supervīzijas definīcija: “konsultatīvs atbalsts sociālā darba speciālistam (supervīzija) ir sociālā darba speciālista darbības paredzēts metožu kopums, lai uzlabotu viņa profesionālo kompetenci un sniegtu viņam psiholoģisku atbalstu, lai paaugstinātu darba kvalitāti” (Sociālo pakalpojumu un sociālās palīdzības likums). Tas ir pirmais un pagaidām vienīgais gadījums Latvijā, kad supervīzija un tās principi ir nostiprināti likuma līmenī.

Līdz ar to aktuāls jautājums katras palīdzošās profesijas attīstībai ir supervīzoru darbības regulējuma un supervīzoru potenciāla sagatavošanās sistēmas (programmas) trūkums. Līdz šim ar supervīziju sniegšanu Latvijā nodarbojas atsevišķi psihologi, psihoterapeiti un sociālie darbinieki, kas savu kvalifikāciju, galvenokārt, ir ieguvuši ārzemēs. Un attiecīgi to zināšanas un izpratne par šo darbu bija un ir stipri individuāla (atkarībā no iegūtas kvalifikācijas, valsts, specialitātes un sagatavošanas (apmācības) tradīcijām) (Dieviņa, 2007; 105. – 106.).

Jāatzīmē, ka atbilstoši Latvijas izglītību regulējošiem normatīviem aktiem, formālā (institucionāla) izglītība var tikt veidota tikai balstoties uz profesijas standartu, kas nosaka profesionālās izglītības vadlīnijas – kādi ir darba pienākumi, zināšanas, prasmes, attieksmes utt. Profesijas standarts ir pamats augstākās izglītības programmu izveidei, licencēšanai un vēlākai akreditācijai. Tas nozīmē, ka eksistē vairākas specialitātes, kuras Latvijas augstākās izglītības iestādēs nevar apgūt (īpaši dažādas psihoterapijas skolas). Arī neformālās izglītības piedāvājums un potenciālo iespēju klāsts šobrīd ir pietiekoši ierobežots. Jāatzīmē, ka Latvijā faktiski veidojas zināms paradokss – no vienas puses supervīzijas un supervīzoru esamība ir obligāta prasība virknē profesiju (piemēram, 2005.gadā izveidotajā profesijā mākslas terapijas speciālists), bet no otras – neviens normatīvais akts nenosaka prasības supervīzoram un supervīzijai, arī supervīzoru sagatavošana un to izglītības un kvalifikācijas atzīšana ir problemātiska.

Tādējādi supervīzoru sagatavošanu Latvijā šobrīd parasti organizē profesionālās apvienības. Izņēmums ir straujā sociālo darbinieku profesijas attīstība Latvijā. Pateicoties ES struktūrfondu finansējumam, kā arī normatīvam regulējumam, Latvijas Universitātē ir izdevies uzsākt supervīzoru sociālajā darbā apmācību. Tiesa, līdz ar finansējuma izbeigšanos, šī programma var izbeigt savu darbību, kā 2007.gada 26.oktobrī tika atzīts Eiropas Sociālā fonda projekta “Sociālā darba speciālistu apmācība supervīzijā” noslēguma konferencē “Supervīziju ieviešana sociālo institūciju

praksē Latvijā”. Arī projekta īstenošanas laikā iegūtas izglītības statuss, raugoties no normatīvo aktu viedokļa, ir diskutabls.

Supervīzoru sagatavošanas modeļa izstrāde

Šobrīd Latvijā tiek attīstīta jauna koncepcija supervīzoru sagatavošanā: izveidot un licencēt profesionālās pilnveides⁸¹ (presupervīzora) programmu, kurā dažādu nozaru profesionāļi ar maģistra grādu attiecīgajā specialitātē un vismaz 2 gadu darba pieredzi nozarē (profesijā) uzsāktu studijas. Šī programma nodrošinātu iespēju apgūt vispārējās supervīzoram nepieciešamās zināšanas, prasmes un attieksmes, izpratni par supervīzijas specifiku dažādās darba vidēs. Piemēram, jebkuram supervīzoram ir jāapgūst dažādas supervīzijas formas, veidi, fokusi, dimensijas, jāapzinās supervīzijas funkcijas, jāorientējas savās tiesībās un pienākumos, jāpārzina ētikas standarti utt.

Šī programma savā būtībā veicinātu augstu prasību standartu ieviešanu topošajam supervīzoram, dažādu profesiju pārstāvju sadarbību, kā arī ļautu profesionālām apvienībām daudz efektīvāk lobēt profesionālās intereses, t.sk. normatīvo aktu izstrādāšanas, ieviešanas un pilnveidošanas jomā.

Tajā pat laikā ir pilnīgi skaidrs, ka katra profesionālās darbības sfēra prasa specifiskas zināšanas, prasmes un attieksmes. Tādēļ to nodrošināšana ir profesionālo apvienību uzdevums. Tādējādi ar formālās un neformālās izglītības mijiedarbības palīdzību ir iespējams atrisināt būtisku problēmu – supervīzoru trūkumu un garantēt jauno speciālistu profesionālo attīstību nākotnē. Un tieši profesionālajām apvienībām, balstoties uz presupervīzora programmas apguvi, un, piešķirot tiesības supervīzēt, ir jākalpo par garantu attiecīga speciālista profesionālai sagatavotībai, apliecinot viņa zināšanas prasmes un spējas konkrētajā nozarē.

Jāatzīmē, ka šāda pieeja savā būtībā atbilst arī Eiropas supervīzoru izglītības tradīcijām. Kā norāda LU lektore un projekta “Sociālā darba speciālistu apmācības supervīzija” vadītāja Evija Apine, “Eiropas modelis paredz, ka supervīzija ir kā otra profesija un to var apgūt jebkurš, kurš ieguvis humanitāro izglītību” (Latvijas gadījumā – humanitāro vai sociālo zinātņu izglītību), kā arī atbilst normatīvajos aktos noteiktajām prasībām un profesionālo apvienību standartiem (darba pieredze, papildizglītība utt.) (Ramāne, Rebaine, 2008).

⁸¹ Profesionālās izglītības likuma 1.panta 13.punkts nosaka, ka profesionālā pilnveide ir profesionālās izglītības īpašs veids, kas personām neatkarīgi no vecuma un iepriekšējās izglītības vai profesionālās kvalifikācijas dod iespēju apgūt darba tirgus prasībām atbilstošas sistematizētas profesionālās zināšanas un prasmes.

Nobeigums

Kopumā vērtējot, var secināt, ka šobrīd spēkā esošais tiesiskais regulējums nav pietiekošs, lai uzsāktu supervīzoru apmācības īstenošanu mūsu valstī, tomēr tā pilnveide ir būtisks priekšnosacījums supervīzoru sagatavošanas ilgtspējas nodrošināšanai Latvijā.

Ņemot vērā Latvijas profesionāļu resursu, būtu nepieciešams sadalīt jauno supervīzoru sagatavošanu divos posmos: 1) t.s. presupervīzora programma, kura nodrošinātu iespēju apgūt vispārējās supervīzoram nepieciešamās zināšanas, prasmes un attieksmes; 2) profesionālo apvienību izstrādāto prasību izpilde, lai iegūtu supervīzora statusu (sertifikātu) konkrētajā nozarē. Ir acīmredzami, kā šāda presupervīzoru programma neapšaubāmi veicinās vienotu supervīzijas izpratni un augstus profesionālos standartus, stiprinās iesaistīto subjektu profesionalitāti, palīdzēs aizsargāt klientu / pacientu, risinās vairāku augstākās izglītības programmu problēmjautājumu – nodrošināt augsti kvalitatīvu studentu praksi. Vienlaikus tiks īstenots viens no Latvijas augstākās izglītības sistēmas attīstības stratēģiskajiem uzdevumiem – tiks attīstīta augstākās izglītības un profesionāļu (profesionālo apvienību) sadarbība.

Tādēļ piedāvātais modelis ļaus ne tikai atrisināt vairāku nozaru attīstības būtisku problēmu – supervīzoru trūkumu, bet arī veidot profesionālo supervīzijas sistēmu valstī, nodrošinot kvalitatīvus profesionālus supervīzora pakalpojumus, kā arī veicinās starpnozaru sadarbību.

Tāču vienlaikus ir jāapzinās grūtības programmas izveides procesā, kas prasa vairāku profesionālo asociāciju viedokļu saskaņošanu, kopīgu darbu, kā arī iepriekšējo supervīzoru izglītības tradīciju respektēšanu (piemēram, psihoterapeiti savu izglītību ir ieguvuši tikai neformālās izglītības ietvaros un attiecīgā profesionālā asociācija līdz ar to ir noteikusi savus standartus supervīzoram). Tādējādi, presupervīzoru programmas izveides jautājums Latvijā ir uzskatāms par ekonomiski, juridiski, profesionāli un pat politiski neviennozīmīgu. Tādēļ to aktualizācija ir būtiska gan diskusijas veidošanai, gan augsto profesionālo apmācības standartu un prasību nostiprināšanai.

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ORGANIZATION CULTURE IN LATVIA'S SCHOOLS

ORGANIZĀCIJAS KULTŪRA LATVIJAS SKOLĀS

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Introduction. Given today's rapidly changing environment, schools must enhance their competitiveness in order to succeed on the marketplace. To accomplish this, they not only have to provide faultless services, but also must excel in all organizational areas. In this regard, quality systems implementation is one of the most viable and effective solutions, and it has been proven that the organizational culture can support or severely deter quality initiatives at an organizational level.

Aim of the study. To examine the nature and the profile of the organizational culture in Latvian schools.

Methods. Theoretical methods: studies and analysis of literature sources, survey and observation were applied.

Results. The research hypothesis is confirmed. The schools profile is presented; the research methodology is displayed, followed by data analysis and interpretation of the results. The findings reveal that the organizational culture is a very complex and important factor to be considered by an organization pursuing high quality levels.

Conclusions. The paper identifies and examines the cultural profile of Latvia's schools, and also the relationship of the organizational culture to total quality management principles implementation. From the integrated analysis of five areas of quality culture a medium degree of development of quality culture within the schools is obtained.

Key words: Organizational culture, values, cultural profile, quality- rewards

Introduction

Given today's rapidly changing environment, schools must enhance their competitiveness and meet requirements in order to succeed on the marketplace. To accomplish this, they not only have to provide faultless services, but also must excel in all organizational areas. In this regard, quality systems implementation is one of the most viable and effective solutions (Leitwood, 2006), and it has been proven that the organizational culture can support or severely deter quality initiatives at an organizational level (Radford, 2006). In order to increase knowledge in this critical area, the case study presented in the paper examines the nature and the profile of the quality culture in Latvian schools.

Quality culture

Culture is "the integrated pattern of human knowledge, belief and behavior that depends upon the capacity for learning and transmitting knowledge to succeeding generations" (Merriam - Webster Dictionary).

Recently, more and more studies confirm the important role of the organizational culture to the success of any organization, promoting the key element for high level of efficiency, efficacy and competitiveness (Harris, 2008). Therefore, the concept of quality culture has emerged.

The quality culture has been defined as a culture promoting social relationship of trust and respect for the individuals, a shared sense of belonging to the organization, and the belief that continuous improvement body's best (Hargreaves, 2007).

Cameron defines the quality culture as the reflection of quality in the general orientation towards work, in the vision and strategic mission of the school, and in the organizational processes, systems and policies (Cameron, 2001). Likewise, for Watson, the quality culture is the values, habits, dominant attitudes and accepted behaviors related to quality, from organizations (Watson, 2001).

Research methods

The survey and the observation were used as research methods, together with the study of significant schools documents. The research instrument was questionnaire investigating the quality culture in Latvian schools.

The quality culture was evaluated through a 21- item questionnaire adapted from the instruments developed by Watson (2001). There were used both: open- ended and close - ended questions. For the close- ended alternatives, Likert answer scales were used, ranging from "A- To a very limited extent" to "To a very large extent".

There were investigated the following five areas of quality culture:

2. The way and the extent to which schools create and maintain the awareness of quality;
3. The way and the extent to which the schools provide evidence of management commitment to quality;
4. The way and the extent to which the company encourages and supports self- development and empowerment of the teachers;
5. The way and the extent to which the schools provide opportunities for teacher participation to quality initiatives;
6. The way and the extent to which schools provide recognition and rewards to teachers for quality;
7. The statistical analysis of the collected data, involving the statistical summary of the relevant information and correlation matrix analysis.

Results and discussion

The following areas of quality culture were analyzed:

The schools' creation and maintenance of awareness of quality

The schools receive feedback on quality from parents like customers to a large extent (Table 1). The feedback consists of complaints, recommendations for improvement.

Table 1

The schools create and maintain the awareness of quality

No.	Items	Mean	St. dev.	% of respondents				
				A	B	C	D	E
1.	Formal feedback on quality from parents	3.66	0.87	3	3	32	50	12
2.	Formal feedback on quality to teachers	3.67	1.05	-	18	21	37	24
3.	Collects feedback on internal quality	4.00	1.12	9	-	6	52	33
4.	Feedback on internal quality to teachers	4.27	0.76	-	3	9	46	42
	The school creates and maintains awareness of quality	3.96	0.78	-	3	22	50	25

It can be observed that 75 % of the respondents consider that the schools create and maintain to a large and very large extent a relatively high level of awareness of quality (mean = 3.96, max = 5).

The schools provide evidence of management commitment to quality

The majority of respondents (91%) consider that the management team is relatively significantly committed (mean = 4.34) to quality (Table 2):

Table 2

The schools provide evidence of management commitment to quality

No.	Items	Mean	St. dev.	% of respondents				
				A	B	C	D	E
1.	Quality present in the mission, goals, policies and strategies of schools	4.82	0.39	-	-	-	18	82
2.	Management personally involved in solving chronic quality issue	4.33	0.78	-	3	9	39	49
3.	Management allocates time, resources and support for	3.69	1.03	-	16	25	34	25

attaining quality objectives

School provides evidence of

management commitment in quality 4.34 0.65 - - 9 47 44

Vast majority (82%) of the respondents know that the quality is present in the mission, goals, policies and strategies of the school. Top management is perceived as committed to solving the chronic quality issues of the school to a large and very large extent, but as referred to allocating the resources for meeting quality objectives, the perception is lower, and the opinions are homogenous (high st. dev.).

School encourages and supports self - development and empowerment of teachers

The respondents reflected a rather low level of training in quality (mean = 3.73) provided by the school (Table 3). Decision delegation and empowerment is even rarer. These are important issues for the quality culture, given that the profile of the school shows that training and empowerment are among the main methods of cultural transformation.

Table 3

School encourages and supports self - development and empowerment								
No.	Items	Mean	st. dev.	% of respondents				
				A	B	C	D	E
1.	School provides training/development for quality.	3.73	0.98	-	15	27	37	21
2.	Management practices empowerment and delegation to lower hierarchical levels	3.64	0.99	-	15	27	37	21
3.	School encourages and supports self - development and empowerment	3.68	0.89	-	6	24	40	30

Schools provide opportunities for teachers participation

Teachers participation in different quality initiatives is an underdeveloped practice in the school (mean = 3.16), and also little known (very heterogeneous answers, high standard deviation) as shown in Table 4;

Table 4

The school provides opportunities for teacher participation								
No.	Items	Mean	St.dev.	% of respondents				
				A	B	C	D	E
1.	Teachers are involved in activities other than their job requirements for attaining school's quality objectives	3.16	1.19	13	13	34	27	13

However, there are some quality activities which the teachers can access, such as quality meetings, and parents visits.

Schools provide recognition and rewards

This quality culture area is the least developed in the school (mean = 2.18) reflecting relatively poor financial situation, and low preoccupation for teachers motivation and involvement, the schools provide little recognition, and especially little rewards for quality (Table 5). Some of the recognition practices, that are, however, seldom engaged, are informal recognition on shop floor, and occasionally formal recognition in general meetings.

Table 5

The schools provide recognition and rewards								
No.	Items	Mean	St. dev.	% of respondents				
				A	B	C	D	E
1.	School provides recognition for high performances in attaining quality objectives.	2.36	1.29	33	27	15	19	6
2.	School provides rewards for high performances in attaining quality objectives	1.55	0.83	64	21	12	3	-
3.	Schools provide recognition& rewards	2.18	1.19	30	40	15	12	

To obtain a comprehensive image on the quality culture of the school, all areas previously investigated are further analyzed (Table 6);

Table 6

Areas of quality culture								
No.	Qualitative culture areas	Mean	St. dev.	% of respondents				
				A	B	C	D	E
1.	Schools create and maintain awareness of quality	3.96	0.78	-	3	22	50	25
2.	School provides evidence of management commitment in quality	4.34	0.65	-	-	9	47	44
3.	School encourages and supports self- development and empowerment	3.68	0.89	-	6	24	40	30
4.	Teachers are involved in activities other than their job	3.16	1.19	13	13	34	27	13

	requirements for attaining school's quality objectives							
5.	Schools provide recognition & rewards	2.18	1.10	30	40	15	12	-

It can be observed that the best developed area is management commitment to quality, which represents a positive and essential factor. The least developed area is teacher recognition and rewards for quality, followed by few opportunities for teacher involvement in quality initiatives, which indicate the weaknesses of the management process, and also the main areas for improvement.

The collected and analyzed data indicate a medium degree of development of quality culture (mean 2.37, min = 1, max = 3), as presented in Table 7:

Table 7

Statistic indicators - degree of development of quality culture

Statistic indicator	value
Arithmetic mean	2.23
Median	2.00
Mode	2
Standard deviation	49

The opinion was expressed by 63.3 % of the respondents, while 36.7 % of them placed the degree of development of quality culture to a high level, but more to a low level.

We return back to the already articulated essential questions for teacher quality and schools quality culture improvement with the aim to discuss these and other essential issues, suggest productive experiences and exchange opinions:

How to create the quality culture for pupils' educators to change our understanding of traditional organizational culture – how the powerful environment created to release the teachers' potential for creative teaching and development of their pedagogical abilities to teach in the flexible postmodern world?

How to help educators and teachers feel free from the syndrome of fear in decision – making, uncertainty growing by every issue of educational policy, how to organize the educational institution to make a shift from hierarchies in management to shared leadership, how to define and describe these categories or come to common understanding and professional language?

Conclusions

The paper identifies and examines the nature of the organizational culture in the dynamics of Latvian quality - oriented schools. From the integrated analysis of five areas of quality culture, a medium degree of development of quality culture within the school is obtained.

The collected and analyzed data also indicate that the best developed area of quality culture is management commitment to quality, while the least developed area is teacher recognition and reward for quality, followed by the low opportunities for teacher involvement in quality initiatives.

It can be concluded that although the school create and maintain the awareness of quality, and the top management team is committed to quality, the quality culture is not supported and enhanced in by organizational and practical measures. These organizational domains indicate the weakness of the management process and also the main areas for future improvement.

Given characteristics of the school staff, the future cultural shifts will be difficult to implement, it will face significant cultural resistance, will need intensive maintaining, and long-term, slow – pace implementation.

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ENHANCING FOREIGN LANGUAGE SKILLS OF THE FUTURE SPECIALISTS IN THE HOSPITALITY SECTOR

TOPOŠO VIESMĪLĪBAS SPECIĀLISTU SVEŠVALODU PRASMJU PILNVEIDOŠANA

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Abstract

Foreign language skills are one of the basic skills which the professional who works in the hospitality business must possess. Students' needs are analysed in order to improve the teaching – learning process. Enquiries reveal insufficient level of knowledge of foreign languages. One of the ways how to solve the issue could be the communicative approach to language teaching with the express purpose of developing communicative competence. The main principles and aspects of communicative approach to foreign language teaching are considered and the essence and components of communicative competence are outlined. The development of socio - cultural competence, which is an important component, is regarded due to the fact that in hospitality business professionals deal with people coming from different nations and cultures. The most appropriate methods in the acquisition of foreign languages are suggested. We have come to conclusion that the application of the communicative approach to language teaching promotes enhancement of foreign language skills.

Key – words: communicative competence, communicative approach, teaching – learning process

Introduction

World economies and cultures are becoming increasingly interconnected and interdependent, politically, socially and technologically. The increasing economic globalisation exerts a substantial impact on culture and education, and makes foreign language and cross-cultural skills mandatory. In Europe there is growing evidence that English has become the major business lingua franca (Graddol, 1997).

Establishing joint ventures creates incoming demands from international visitors who require supporting services, such as hotels and tourist facilities. Today, as a result of new working practices, there is an increase in the number of the personnel who need English language skills. Not surprisingly, demands on an employee's competence in English are rising. Consequently, higher educational institutions have to pay more attention to the language teaching of their future specialists and tailor education and training programmes to employment trends.

Language skills are one of the most important skills which the professional who works in hospitality business must possess. Several higher educational establishments in Latvia train

specialists for the above mentioned industry, the Latvia University of Agriculture (LUA) being one of them. Our students are highly motivated to master several foreign languages not only because of their future professional career but also due to various challenges they meet during the study process. They have possibilities to attend lectures delivered by guest lecturers, participate in student exchange programmes as well as be sent out on work placement abroad. Contracts have been signed with several enterprises in Italy, Greece, Germany and many students have already accomplished their internship successfully in these countries.

As hospitality business involves working with people, the ability to communicate effectively both verbally and non-verbally is paramount. The aim of the paper is to research foreign language acquisition at the Faculty of Food Technology (FFT), clarify “Catering and Hotel Management” speciality students’ opinion and find out ways how to enhance students’ foreign language skills.

Methods

The methods applied in the research are the study of scientific literature, enquiry and description of the personal experience of the authors of the article. The research uses the methods of comparison, synthesis and analysis, diagnostic (questionnaires) methods.

The task of the research is to investigate the possibilities how to improve the process of foreign language studies at the FFT in the study programme “Catering and Hotel Management”.

Theoretical background

During the course of time foreign language teaching has undergone various cycles and approaches. In the late 1960s communicative proficiency rather than mere mastery of structures came into the focus of attention in language teaching and the communicative approach developed and took up one of the leading positions.

Communicative language teaching is seen as “an approach that aims to (a) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and (b) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication” (Richards and Rodgers, 1986).

Language is acquired through communication, which can be viewed as „the social interaction through messages” (Finnegan, 2002). We have to take into consideration also the following ingredients of communication: non-verbal communication; the medium and channel of communication; role relationships between the participants; the topic and purpose of communication (Hutchinson and Waters, 2002).

One of the main goals of language teaching is communicative competence (Larsen-Freeman, 2001). Sociolinguist D. Hymes views competence „as the overall underlying knowledge and ability

for language use which the speaker – listener possesses” (Hymes, 1998). The scientist lists four sectors of communicative competence. In his view, a person who acquires communicative competence acquires both knowledge and ability for language use with respect to: whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible, feasible, appropriate, and in fact done (Hymes, 1987). M. Canale identifies four basic components of communicative competence: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. Grammatical competence is concerned with mastery of the language code itself. Here are included such features of the language as vocabulary, word formation, sentence formation, pronunciation, spelling and linguistic semantics. Sociolinguistic competence is the ability to use and interpret language forms with situational appropriacy in different socio-linguistic contexts. The choice of language forms is determined by such factors as status of participants, setting, purposes of the interaction, channel of the communication and the topic (Harmer, 2001). Strategic competence is composed of mastery of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies either to compensate for breakdowns in communication or to enhance the effectiveness of communication (Canale, 1995).

In hospitality business professionals deal with people coming from different nations and cultures. Participants in multicultural communication are sensitive not only to the cultural meanings attached to the language itself, but also to social conventions concerning language use, such as turn-taking, appropriacy of content, nonverbal language, and tone of voice. These conventions influence how messages are interpreted. In order to be communicatively competent, learners should be aware of both their own culture and culture of the target language society. What must be learned is a general empathy and openness towards other cultures (Savignon, 2001). Consequently, we have to teach our students to be aware of cultural differences and stereotyping, and treat these differences with sensitivity in order to avoid a possible misunderstanding or even conflict.

All components of communicative competence are interconnected. Therefore, the primary goal of a communicative approach is to facilitate their integration for the learner.

Results and discussion

One of the fields that are experiencing fast growth in the world is tourism industry. Sector of hospitality is a significant part of tourism industry. The need for education in the field of tourism has grown along with the main tendencies in the industry and its further development into a modern, competitive industry, and it would be impossible without general development in the sphere of tourism education (including hospitality) and human resources.

With the opening of borders the number of people who visit our country has dramatically increased. In 2006, 4,645,000 non-residents crossed the border in comparison with 2,470,000 in 2003 (Statistical Data Collection, 2007).

According to data of the Central Statistical Bureau on the evaluation of the trip to Latvia, 72% non-resident travelers assessed the quality of services as very good. With the regard to foreign language skills of the locals, only 53.3% consider them to be very good (Statistical Yearbook of Latvia, 2007).

The opening of the study programme “Catering and Hotel Management”, implemented by the FFT, dates back to 1994 and during these years 680 new specialists have graduated. The aim of the professional bachelor’s study programme “Catering and Hotel Management” is to prepare specialists for organizing and management of catering services and hotels, thus providing clients with high quality professional employees.

Language skills are one of the most important skills which the professional who works in hospitality business must possess. At the FFT as a compulsory subject Foreign Language for Specific Purposes is included in the first 2 years of studies and students receive 6 CP. The majority of students study English, as it is their first foreign language (Fig. 1).

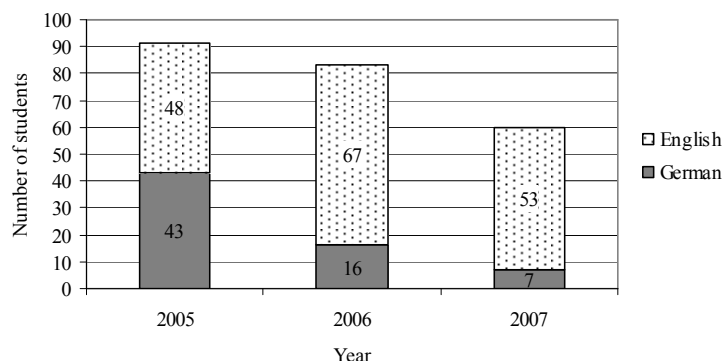


Fig. 1. Number of professional bachelor students of “Catering and Hotel Management” at the LUA FFT acquiring English and German languages by years.⁸²

In order to find out in which fields there is lack of knowledge, enterprise employees (catering enterprise and hotel employees separately) were asked to name three most important fields, which are ranged in Table 1.

⁸² Data of the study years 2004/2005, 2005/2006, 2006/2007

Table 1.

Fields in which employees feel the most distinct lack of knowledge

Range	Catering enterprise employees	Hotel employees
1.	Foreign language	Foreign language
2.	Legislation	Legislation
3.	Computer skills	Computer skills
4.	Food technology	Customer service
5.	Customer service	Communication skills
6.	Hygiene	Food technology
7.	Communication skills	Hygiene

Source: Research data⁸³

Data of the Table 1. show that employees of hospitality enterprises, irrespective of the specific work, have common fields where they need to improve knowledge and first of all these are foreign languages, with the lack or improper skills of which nowadays, in the conditions of growing tourism, come across not only employees of Riga hospitality enterprises, but also in the regions.

A communicative approach is essentially learner-centred with the emphasis on learners' needs. The basic issue of teaching ESP is to effectively satisfy the future professional needs of our students. A questionnaire was designed to find out the students' needs and attitude towards language learning. The number of respondents was 109, representing 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th year students of the study programme "Catering and Hotel Management". The authors wanted to find out students' foreign language knowledge after having completed the study subject 'Foreign Language'. Figure 2 shows that the majority of respondents evaluated their knowledge as average or good. At the same time, year by year increases the number of students being evaluated by a high grade at the final exam of the foreign language: „7” to „9”.

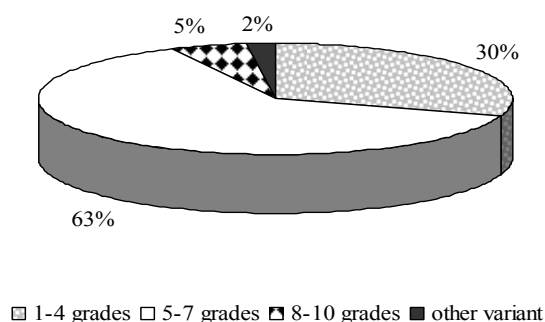


Fig. 2 English knowledge in grades of the students of the study programme "Catering and Hotel Management"

⁸³ http://www.nva.lv/esf/docs/16_470a2a8e551c19.52237103.doc

Another survey was carried out only among the first- year students of the same study programme to find out what their expectations from the study course ‘Foreign Language’ are and what their learning styles are. The number of respondents was 59, but 6 questionnaires were invalid. As regards the length of the study course ‘Foreign Language’, 31% respondents consider the current 4 terms as optimal. 38% respondents would like to have the subject either 6 or 8 terms (19% each), but 9% respondents think that 2 terms would be sufficient.

By applying the median calculation, which is calculated as the average of the line of numbers, either increasing or decreasing, students’ opinion on the most useful way of studying was found out. Students give preference to ‘Reading’ (Me=4) as the most useful method in foreign language acquisition, followed by ‘Learning grammar rules with example sentences’ (Me=4.5). ‘Writing essays’ (Me=8) and ‘Writing everything down in a notebook and learning it’ (Me=8) were considered as the least useful ways.

Students feel that they need most help and practice in grammar (Me=2), speaking and writing (Me=3), but pronunciation is the least important aspect of language (Me=7).

Learners’ communicative ability is developed through their involvement in a range of meaningful, realistic, worthwhile and attainable tasks, the successful accomplishment of which provides satisfaction and increases their self-confidence. In foreign language classes the first-year students would like to work in groups (Me=2), in pairs (Me=3), make presentations, use a course book or watch a video (Me=5), but they would not like to learn a foreign language through songs (Me=8).

Lexis is fundamentally significant for professional and meaningful language use. Students assert that they learn about concepts and issues just from English for Specific Purposes (ESP) classes due to the lack of experience in hospitality business field. Mostly, students learn terminology mechanically without any understanding, therefore they easily forget it and cannot apply in any situation different from the one described in the text.

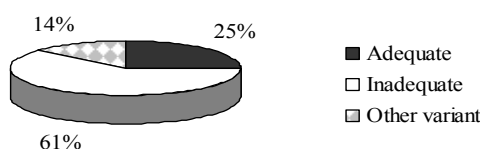


Fig.3 Amount of terms in the hospitality sector acquired in the study subject ‘Foreign Language’

With regard to acquisition of terminology in the hospitality sector, only one quarter of the respondents stated that the amount of terms was adequate (Fig.3).

In order to help acquisition of ESP, the university lecturers of the FFT Nutrition department by the support of EU structural funds have developed several dictionaries:

- English-Latvian-Russian Glossary "Assistant to Gourmand";
- Latvian-English Glossary of Tourism Terminology.

Responding to the question whether foreign language skills help them in the development of their careers in the hospitality sector, 42 students or 38% respondents gave a positive answer while 37 students or 35% respondents gave a negative answer. Almost a quarter of respondents (23%) did not feel any impact of their foreign language skills on the quality of their work.

Unfortunately, the survey revealed that in the study process students are not willing to use resources in foreign languages, although they could do it thanks to the acquired foreign language skills (See Figure 2).

As regards the sources of information, the most widely used resource is the Internet – 54%, followed by the library – 10%. As regards other sources, respondents gain information by watching films (1 student), reading newspapers and journals (1 student), communicating with foreigners (2 students), attending lectures (1 student) and reading books (1 student) (Fig.4).

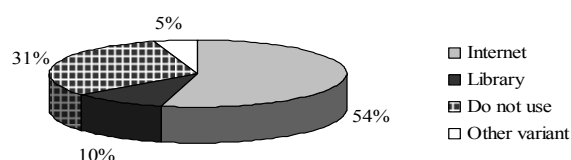


Fig.4 Sources of gaining information in the hospitality sector in foreign languages

FFT of LUA implements the 2nd level higher professional education, which gives the 5th level professional qualification in catering and hotel management. Majority of students and graduates evaluate hospitality sector as perspective with expanded opportunities and development potential. Estimating the main knowledge and skills for labour market, students give the highest evaluation exactly to practical skills. Almost so high are evaluated language skills which are necessary for integration in European labour market.

Conclusions

1. The knowledge of foreign languages and acquisition of professional competences is a precondition for successful professional activities and further career.
2. The communicative approach to foreign language teaching enhances foreign language proficiency.
3. Additional possibilities for students of LUA to acquire foreign languages should be created.
4. ESP should be taught starting with the second year after students have gained some basic knowledge and practical experience.
5. In the study process students should be asked to use independently more different resources in foreign languages.

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THE ROLE OF PERSON'S NEEDS AND VALUES IN THE FENOMENON OF SELF-SERVING BIAS

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Abstract

Almost all Western scholars who are researching on people's identity consider that humans are not born with selves, they acquire them. Throughout the whole life span persons continue the process of defining and presenting their identities. Thus the self is a process, not a constant entity; it manifests in many dimensions at the same time (physical self, cognitive self, emotional self, social self, moral self consisting of one's ethical and spiritual believes) being multidimensional and ever changeable. The phenomenon of self is closely connected with notion of self realization and self-serving bias (self-serving effect) that since the previous century has been studied by different scientists: A. Maslow, K.Rogers, E.Erikson, B.Weiner, N.T.Feather, J.Siegel, M.F.Shanghnessy, et.al.

Since 2007 researchers from Tallinn University and Latvia University of Agriculture have also been engaged in the process of studying the phenomenon of self-serving bias (research materials have been presented at 5th International JTET Conference 'Sustainable Development: Culture, Education' in Debrecen University. Hungary, May 30-June 2, 2007, and at Vilnius University at the 14th NIC Symposium of Intercultural Communication 'Changing Identities in Global World', November 29-December 1, 2007).

Participants of the research: 3rd and 4th year students of LUA. Students were asked to describe one of their successful need satisfaction based experiences and one case of failure in their need satisfaction, using their own words, explaining the reason of success or failure, and defining the needs they wanted to satisfy. Open-ended answers were categorized. Quantitative analysis was done to identify the frequency of categories. The results of this research were compared with the results obtained in the test in psychology 'Personal Orientation Inventory' by Shostrom to state the coherence or even subordination of person's needs to one's value system in the process of self-realization. Scientific prediction was the method preceeding the both mentioned before.

The analyses of the scientific literature allowed to state that young adolescents are trying to find themselves in other therefore the process of communication and integration in the society is important for them.

The practical research revealed that university students strive towards self-realization and their needs are subordinated to their value system that is also highlighted by the phenomenon of self-serving bias.

It turned out that respondents' internal and external causal attributions of need satisfaction or dissatisfaction were closely connected with respondents' value system in the process of self-realization through communication.

Key words: self, self-serving bias, needs, values, self-realization.

Introduction

Nowadays when globalization determines necessity of effective communication not only inside the country but also across the borders, the phenomenon of self-serving bias has been multidimensionality researched on in order to state its role in the whole process of communication. 'Bias is a set course, a directing influence of systematic distortion of a result, arising from a neglected factor inspired with prejudice to incline to one side' (Oxford English Dictionary, 2002). Throughout the whole lifespan people continue the process of defining and presenting their identities. Thus the self is a process, not a constant entity; it manifests in many dimensions at the same time: physical self, cognitive self, emotional self, social self, moral self, et.al.

Self-serving bias effect has been studied by different scientists: A.Maslow, K.Rogers, E.Erikson, B.Weiner, N.T.Feather, J.Siegel, M.F.Shanghnessy but since 2007 also by M.L.Laherand (Tallinn University) and Margarita Putniņa (Latvia University of Agriculture).Several articles of the two mentioned scientists have been published.

In this research were involved students of FSS, speciality – External Relations of Organizations and Public Administration as well FIT, speciality – Computer Control and Computer Science of Latvia University of Agriculture.

Respondents were asked to describe one of their, successful need satisfaction based experience and one case of failure. Open – ended answers were categorized.

The results of this research were compared with the results obtained in the test, in psychology, ‘Personal Orientation Inventory’ by Shostrom, (Borns, Ruso,2001) in order to state the coherence of person’s needs to one’s value system in the process of self- realization.

The practical research revealed that university students strive towards self realization and effective communication being subordinated to values and needs and connected with the phenomenon of self-serving bias.

The main conclusion of the research proved that students’ internal and external causal attributions of need satisfaction or dissatisfaction were closely connected with respondents’ value system in the process of self-realizing, serving the multidimensional phenomenon of communication.

The main aim of this research was to state how the phenomena of persons’ values and needs influence the self-serving bias in the process of self-realization through communication.

The main task was to get to know the coherence of respondents values, needs, self-serving bias in the process of self-realization through communication.

Research methods

140 students of LUA, faculties of Social Sciences and Information Technologies were involved in the research, however only 40 works were chosen for detailed analyses. The method of research was interdisciplinary.

Respondents were asked to describe one of their successful need satisfaction based experience and one case of failure in their need satisfaction, stating their main values and needs towards which they were striving. Respondents could use their own words when compiling unfinished sentences for explanation the reason of success and failures and defining the basis of success or failure. Open-ended answers were categorized. Quantitative analysis was done to identify

the frequency of categories. The results of this research were compared with the result obtained in the test in psychology 'Personal Orientation Inventory' by Shostrom, (Borns, Ruso, 2001) to state coherence or even subordination of person's value and needs to the level of self-serving bias in the process of self-realization through communication. Scientific prediction was the method preceeding the both mentioned before.

Results and discussion

Students mainly chose interaction with their family members, friends and employers as examples of their successful and unsuccessful experience. Respondents' answers were categorized (see Table 1). The locus of control as well as the needs and values that determine respondents' actions are revealed in the Table no.1. According to the results of this research the most prevalent category in students' explanation of their success is interaction. People interact in their families, with their friends, colleagues and employers. In several cases the need of self - fulfilment is based on the necessity to realize altruism, that is especially positive factor.

For example, I am studying and working at the same time. I should help my mother, I cannot leave her alone. I am giving her a part of money and all my attention. I am happy that I can do that. (10) My grandfather was ill. He did not have money enough for health cure. I was even ready to leave my university studies to earn money and help him become healthy again. Now he is better and I am very happy.(19) Categories of causal attribution for failure revealed from respondents' open-ended answers can also be seen in Table 1. The main factor for failure, according to respondents' answers, are other people and the process of interaction (see Table 1). Students want to realize their self-esteem need, but others do not allow to do that, they even cannot always realize their belonging and love needs because friends are not honest people. In the process of interaction it also turns out, that other people not always can understand a person who strives towards satisfaction of esthetic needs: order and beauty. Such suppositions point out a very high level of self-serving bias. A part of young people are ego centred, that does not foster the process of communication but just vice versa widen the gap between people.

For example, for me an important value is education. But some university teachers do not explain the material well, they only point out the book and demand us to learn. (38)

Dentists are working very bad. When I had an ill tooth, I was not helped because people were queuing according to register but I had an awful pain. Nobody helped me. (11)

When I was working on the field, gathering lettuce for the boss, it was raining hard. I felt I am a slave. I did the job, but I consider that some humans are not people like. (13)

To summarize it up, students made more external causes for failure and more internal/external causes for success(see Table 1).

Table 1.

Categories of causal attributions for success and failure according to respondents' values and needs, as revealed in their open- ended answers

Categories of causal attribution	Locus of control	Needs and values	Attributions for success	Attributions for failure
Effort	Internal	Belonging and love need, family as value	5 12,5 %	2 5%
Motivation	Internal	Belonging and love need, friends as value	-	1 2,5%
Other people	External	Esteem and belonging need, Love as a value. Self-actualization, altruism as value.	2 5%	11 27,5%
Interaction	internal/external	Need of self fulfilment thought altruism; value self-realization	21 52,5%	9 25%
Emotional/physical state	internal	Need of security; family as value	1 2,5%	3 7,5%
Luck	external	Need to live well; money as value	2 5%	5 12,5%
Environment	external	Need to live well; money as value	1 2,5%	3 7,5%
Personality	internal	Esteem needs; money as value	1 2,5%	-
Task characteristics	external	Esteem needs; money as value	-	1 2,5%
Ability	internal	Esteem needs; money as value	1 2,5%	2 5%
Possibility	external	Esthetic needs, creativity as value	5 12,5%	6 15%
Internal causes			8 20%	8 20%
External causes			10 25%	26 65%
Internal/external causes			21 52,5%	9 22,5%
All causes			39 97,5%	43 103%

It stresses that our youth are open to communication and to interaction but at the same time highly ego centred, influenced by the problem of self- serving bias phenomenon.

Having finished the first task, students were asked to fill out a test in psychology 'Personal Orientation Inventory' by Shostrom.

This test is used to state the level of person to be ready, to self- realization. The test was highly estimated by Maslow.

The test includes nine positions, every of them having two answers. Respondents' task was to choose one of answers. For example: (a) It is important that other people accept my view- point. (b) It is not necessary that other people accept my view point. Respondents mainly made mistakes in positions no. 1(a) I usually hide valuable things to use them in future. (b) I use valuable things at present. (14 people or 32, 5%), no. 3 (a) I seldom accept decisions spontaneously. (b) I often accept decisions spontaneously. (24 people or 60%), in no. 4 (a) It is important for me that others accept my view-point. (b) It is not important for me that others accept my view-point. (24 people or 60%) and in position no. 5 (a) I strive to be honest, but sometimes I fail. (b) I strive to be honest, and I am honest. (27 people or 67,5 %).Analyses of mistakes revealed that people are not ready to live in this definite moment, they like to live in past or future. People are afraid to accept decisions spontaneously; they use their rational mind to make as many mistakes as possible.

People like that others accept their view- point. Socialization and recognition are important for them.

Students try to be honest but usually they fail because the situation determines it. Respondents who are not able to accept decisions spontaneously for their basic need mainly consider self defences. In their failures they blame others however they do want others to accept their view points. They consider that friends could not be trusted but in reality they themselves are not honest. The main value for them is money, self is of especial importance for these people.

The correlation of results obtained in two tests revealed that people who highly estimate their own ego, who need self-defence, who blame others in their failures, etc. cannot communicate effectively because they are not open to positive values, their self-serving bias is too high, they are egoistic and self concentrated.

The mentioned facts should be taken into consideration by university teachers when working with youth in any study subject, the process of effective communication can be ensured through different activities, theoretical and practical ones.

The main focus of Weiner's analysis always has been on social actors causal judgements about the events and outcomes that concern another person's responsibility for mentioned events and their results on the actor's reaction in the process of communication; where the other's personal responsibility for a negative state is perceived to be low the respondent may experience sympathy; where the other's responsibility is deemed to be high, the social actor may experience anger. Affects, on their turn, are assumed to have motivational significance. Social motivation has to allow for positive events and outcomes that concern another person, as well as for negative events and their outcomes. Notably absents from Weiner's analysis are variables that specify relatively stable

differences between individuals in their needs and values. Feather considers that inclusion of personality variables such as needs and values allow one to gauge their effects of variation between individuals in their personality characteristics that could influence communication (Feather, 1995). Needs and values, once activated, may include positive and negative valences on objects and events.

‘Why did I fail’ – the answer to that question given by individuals plays a major role in their subsequent striving at the same time pointing out the level of self-serving bias. Analysing the problem of self-perception and the perception of others through one’s value and need systems in the process of communication is of great importance.

For example, Japanese as opposed to the United States have documented greater importance placed on effort but Americans appear to think that ability is the more important determinant of result of any action (Siegel, Shaughnessy, 1996). In any case, attributions are very situation specific and determined by one’s system of values, needs, motivation, etc.

The author of the article highly estimates humanists’ viewpoints on the phenomenon under the research. They suggest that it is people’s interpretation of perceived situations that influence their action, for example, the process of communication. Thus to truly understand human behaviour, researchers need to consider not the behaviour, but entirely people, their social networks and the emotional and spiritual meanings, values and needs they sought in their lives. Maslow and Rogers approaches have offered a new perspective on the understanding of human behaviour through the process of communication. Maslow believed that human motivation results from a series of key drives and insisted that the individual is conscious of these drives. He suggested that people have a core set of needs and values that motivate and influence their behaviour (Giles, 2002). The way the world looks is a person’s value statement. The most inspiring values are those people are willing to die for, they are ready to pay for them with effort, pain and torture. These are the definitions of the higher life, of spiritual life and the far goals of education in the broadest sense (Maslow, 1973).

The fully functioning person, according to Rogers, lives at peace with all of his feeling and reactions; he is able to be what he potentially is; he exists as a process of being and becoming himself. This fully functioning person, in his self-knowledge, is fully open to his experience, is without defensiveness, and creates himself anew at each moment in every action taken and in every decision made (Brown 1987:71). His Holiness the Dalai Lama XIV of Tibet has pointed out that the combination of the first-person method of East with the third – person method accepted by Westerners offers the promise of a real advance in the scientific study of consciousness (Dalai Lama, 2006). That greatly refers to the phenomena under research in this article.

Barets, on its turn, has made a wide experiment on humans' personal values and a value driven organization as a basis of effective process of communication (Barets, 2008).

Conclusions

1. Contemporary youth of Latvia strive towards self – realization through the process of communication.
2. Students consider that their success is determined by effective process of interaction (locus of control – internal/ external), but their failures depend on others (locus of control – external).
3. The above mentioned statements claim that the level of self – serving bias of Latvian youth is too high, that does not allow the young to communicate effectively.
4. The phenomenon of self – serving bias is determined by person's needs and values.
5. The main goal and aim of this research were reached, wider experiments should be done for greater validity.

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EXTERNAL RELATIONS SPECIALISTS' COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE AS AN IMPORTANT INGREDIENT OF THEIR PROFESSIONAL COMPETENCE

ĀRĒJO SAKARU SPECIĀLISTA KOMUNIKATĪVĀ KOMPETENCE KĀ PROFESIONĀLĀS KOMPETENCES SASTĀVDAĻA

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Abstract. Communication competence, alongside with other competencies, is a necessary ingredient of professional competence of managers of external relations. Professional competence consists of many ingredients, one of the most important of which is communication competence. Globalisation and internationalisation of the modern world require not only good knowledge in different languages, communication skills, business communication, but also excellent skills on receiving, developing and promoting all kinds of information.

Only competence based on learning by doing, with active students' participation in the study process can lead to the development of students' communication skills. In the study process the necessary skills for managers of external relations, including the skill of information search, evaluation and further promotion can be developed. Competence cannot be achieved only by learning, without doing.

Key-words. Communication competence, informative competence, communicative competence, professional competence.

Ievads

Mūsdienās uzņēmumu starptautiskā sadarbība un starptautisko darījumu slēgšana ir neizbēgama tirgus sistēmas sastāvdaļa. Ārējie sakari nozīmē, ka mēs nonākam kontaktos ar ārvalstu firmām un personām, arvien biežāk uzņēmumi meklē sadarbības iespējas ar ārvalstu uzņēmumiem. Šajā procesā ir svarīgi pievērst uzmanību komunikācijas procesa veidošanai. Lai komunikācijas process veidotos veiksmīgs, svarīgi ir izvairīties no pārpratumiem, kas var radīt konfliktsituāciju uzņēmumu starpā. Uzņēmumu mērķa pilnīgai sasniegšanai ir nepieciešama savstarpēja sapratne un saskaņa.

Jēdzienam „komunikatīvā kompetence” ir plaša interpretācija. Lielu uzmanību šim jēdzienam pievērš lingvisti Noemss, Keneils, Surigins, Kostomarovs, Kunins u.c., sociologi Vaclaviks, Ezera, Edeirs u.c. Plaša komunikatīvas kompetences interpretācija sarežģī ārējo sakaru speciālista profesionālās kompetences būtības izpratni. Šajā pētījumā ir analizētas 7 ekspertintervijas, kurās piedalījās LLU Ārlietu daļas vadītāja vietniece un uzņēmumu vadītāji, kas cieši sadarbojas ar ārvalstu organizācijām.

Pētījuma metodes

Kā pētījuma metodes šajā darbā tika izmantotas,- literatūras teorētiskā analīze un sintēze. Ārējo sakaru veidošanas vajadzību izpēte un analīze tika veikta izmantojot ekspertintervijas, intervijas ar absolventiem un darba devējiem.

Rezultāti un diskusija

Visas vadītāja funkcijas – plānošana, organizēšana, līderība un kontrolēšana ir cieši saistītas ar komunikāciju, tāpēc katram vadītājam ir jābūt labam komunikatoram. Uzņēmuma vadītāju var dēvēt par informācijas avotu, no kura lielā mērā ir atkarīgs, kā noteiktā informācija un mērķis tiks nodots pārējiem darbiniekiem (Reņģe V., 1999). *Komunikācija* ir saskarsme, kas socioloģiskajā pieejā tiek definēta kā tiešs vai netiešs sazināšanās process (Ezera u.c., 2000:5). Saskarsmes procesā notiek cilvēku savstarpējā apmaiņa ar informāciju, zināšanām, pieredzi, idejām, viedokļiem, pieņēmumiem (Garleja, 1997).

1. tabula.

Komunikācijas pamatelementi

Būtiskie elementi	Piezīmes
Sociālie kontakti	Lai varētu komunicēt, personām jābūt tiešā saskarsmē vienai ar otru.
Kopējie sazināšanās līdzekļi	Abām komunikācijas pusēm jābūt kopējai valodai vai vienotai sadarbības idejai.
Domas un idejas pārraide (transmisija)	Ziņojumam, kura dēļ notiek komunikācija, jābūt izklāstītam skaidri un saprotami.
Savstarpējā saprašanās	Ziņojumam jābūt skaidri un pareizi uztvertam un pienācīgi izskaidrotam.

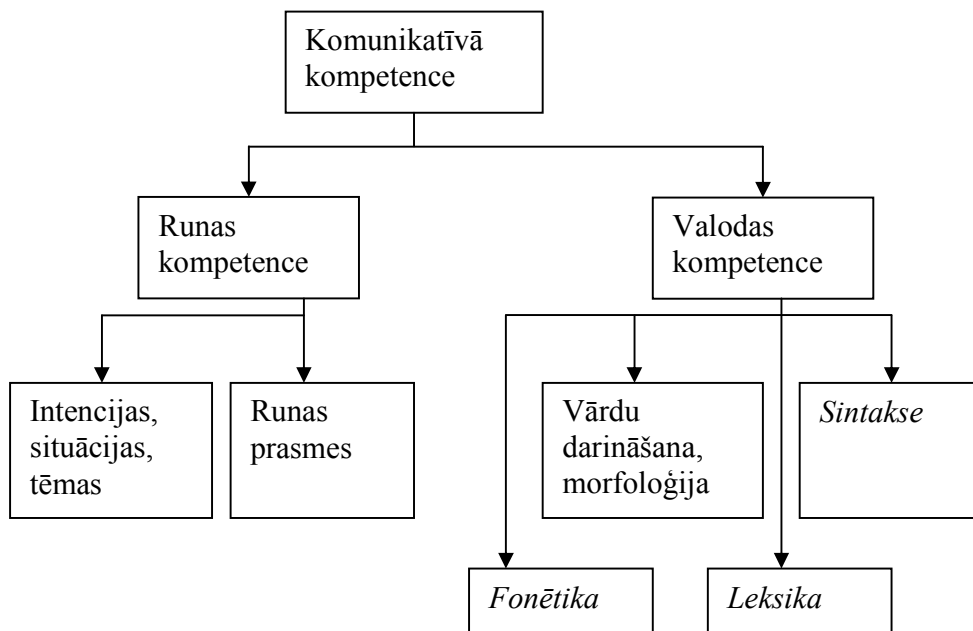
Avots: (Edeirs Dž., 1999: 21).

Atšķirīgu nozaru zinātnieki definē jēdzienus „*komunikācija*” un „*komunikatīvā kompetence*” dažādi. 70. gadu sākumā terminu “komunikatīvā kompetence” sociolingvists Noemss formulēja kā spēju saprast un runāt svešvalodā, lai justos ērti jebkurā situācijā (Savignon, 1987).

Lingvisti M. Keneils un M. Sveins (*Canale M. and Swain M.*) komunikatīvo kompetenci iedalīja četrās sastāvdaļās – *gramatiskā kompetence*, *sociolingvistiskā kompetence*, *runas kompetence* un *stratēģiskā kompetence* (Canale, Swain, 1980, 22).

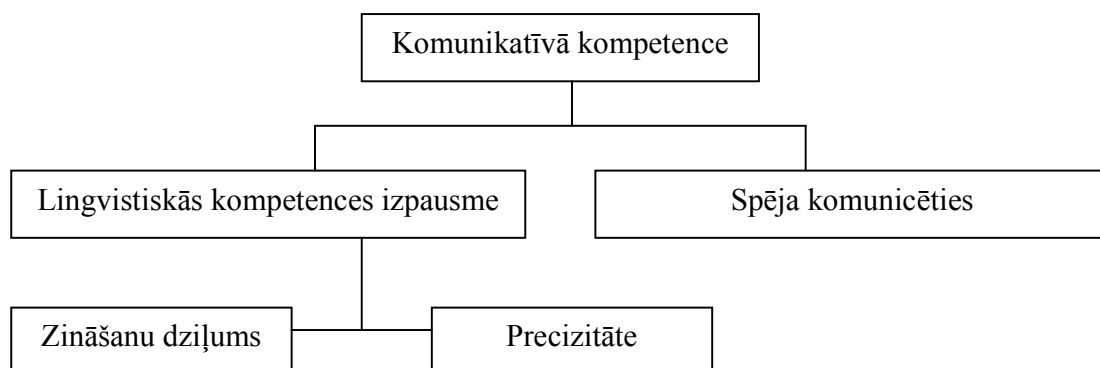
Autori ir vienprātis, ka, lai iegūtu spēju radīt un uztvert runu, studentiem jāpārvalda attiecīgas runas darbības prasmes un iemaņas, kā arī zināšanas par valodas vienību funkcionēšanu valodā, apvienojot zināšanas par noteikto tēmu un prasmī realizēt komunikatīvos nolūkus tipiskās komunikatīvās situācijās. Tas nav iespējams bez studenta valodas kompetences.

Jēdziena “komunikatīvā kompetence” izpratni atvieglo A. Surigina radītā shēma. Tajā skaidri saskatāmas 2 komunikatīvās kompetences sastāvdaļas – runas un valodas kompetences.



1.attēls. **Komunikatīvās kompetences sastāvdaļas.** Avots: (Сурыгин А. И., 2000, 69)

S.Saviņona (*Savignon*) atdala *lingvistisko kompetenci* no *komunikatīvās kompetences*. Pēc definīcijas, *lingvistiskā kompetence* ir skaņu sistēmas un valodas galvenās strukturālās sistēmas izmantošanas meistarība, un *komunikatīvā kompetence* ir definēta, kā prasme funkcionēt komunikatīvā vidē (*Savignon*, 1983, 22). Ņemot vērā Saviņonas definējumu, Surigina shēmā var saskatīt komunikatīvās kompetences izpausmi.

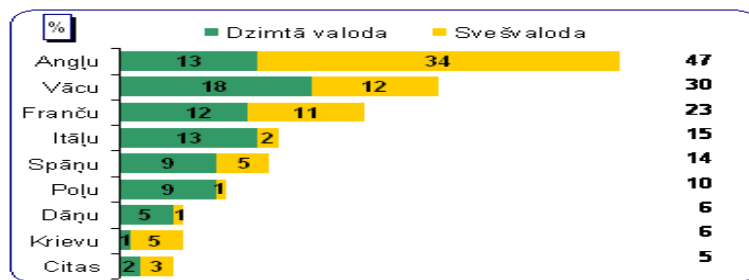


2.attēls. **Komunikatīvās kompetences izpausme**

V.Kostomarovs un A.Kunins savos darbos uzsver, ka komunikācijas līmeņa paaugstināšana var realizēties, ja ir skaidra sociokultūras faktora izpratne. Nepietiek ar to, ka zina vārdu nozīmi un iegaumē gramatikas likumus, ir jāapzinās, - *kad, ko, kam, kādos apstākļos teikt un atbilstoši izteikties*. Valodas apguves prasme ir viena no *mūžizglītības prasmēm*. Ja studējošais prot izmantot valodu, praktiski ievērot sociālās, nacionālās un kultūras īpatnības, prot realizēt savus komunikatīvos nolūkus tipiskās komunikatīvās situācijās, var uzskatīt, ka viņš pārvalda komunikatīvo kompetenci, kas ir viens no galvenajiem standartiem studiju programmas „Iestāžu un uzņēmumu ārējie sakari” apgūvē. Svešvalodu zināšanas ir būtiskas Latvijas veiksmīgai integrācijai starptautiskajā tirgū. Nepietiekamās svešvalodu zināšanas ierobežo uzņēmēju iespējas, kavē Latvijas iesaistīšanos starptautiskos projektos un aktivitātēs, tā rezultātā tiek zaudēts Eiropas un pasaules tirgus.

Angļu valodas kā svešvalodas izmantošana Eiropas Savienības valstu iedzīvotāju vidū turpina palielināties. Gandrīz puse pieaugušo (47 %), kas dzīvo ES valstīs, spēj sazināties angļu valodā (34 % kā svešvalodā, 13 % kā dzimtajā valodā). Nākamās biežāk izmantotās valodas ir vācu valoda (18 % tā ir dzimtā valoda, 12 % – svešvaloda) un franču valoda (attiecīgi 12 % tā ir dzimtā valoda, 11 % – svešvaloda) (Svešvalodu izmantošana ES valstīs un Latvijā, 2005).

Kā liecina pētījuma rezultāti, no aptaujātiem 1015 Latvijas iedzīvotājiem (vecumā no 15 līdz 74 gadiem), svešvalodu zināšanu līmenis salīdzinājumā ar pārējām ES valstīm, tai skaitā Baltijas valstīm, ir ievērojami zemāks.

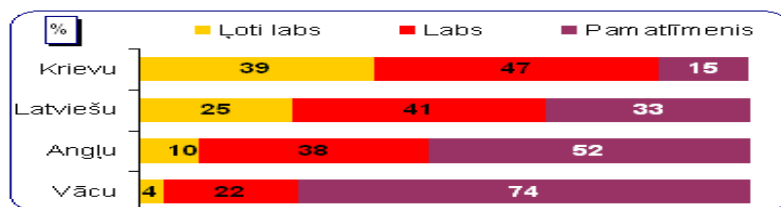


Bāze: visi respondenti, n=29 328

3.attēls. **Biežāk lietotās valodas Eiropas Savienībā** (Svešvalodu izmantošana ES valstīs un Latvijā, 2005).

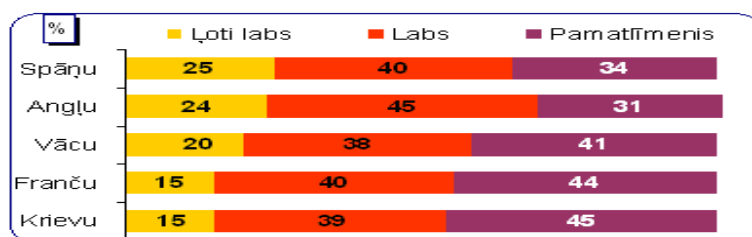
Latvijas pilsoņi, kas pārvalda angļu valodu, savas zināšanas visbiežāk vērtē kā pamatlīmeņa zināšanas (52 %), 48 % kā labas vai ļoti labas. Vācu valodas zināšanas ir salīdzinoši vājākas, gandrīz 3/4 respondentu t.i. 74% šo svešvalodu zina pamatlīmenī, kamēr labi vai ļoti labi - 26 %. Savukārt, svešvalodas zināšanas ES pilsoņi visbiežāk vērtē kā labas. Angļu valodas kā svešvalodas zināšanas 69 % respondentu novērtējuši kā labas vai ļoti labas, spāņu valodas - 65 %, vācu valodas -

58 %, franču valodas - 55 % un krievu valodas - 54 %. Valstu līmenī redzams, ka angļu valoda ir plaši izmantota valoda 16 ES dalībvalstīs un visbiežāk tiek nosaukta kā *pirmā* svešvaloda. Salīdzinājumā, Latvijas pilsoņu vidū 34 % respondentu spēj sazināties angļu valodā.



Bāze: respondenti, kuri pārzina konkrēto svešvalodu

4.attēls. **Svešvalodu zināšanu līmenis Latvijā** (Svešvalodu izmantošana ES valstīs un Latvijā, 2005).



Bāze: respondenti, kuri pārzina konkrēto svešvalodu

5.attēls. **Svešvalodu zināšanu līmenis Eiropas Savienībā** (Svešvalodu izmantošana ES valstīs un Latvijā, 2005).

Pētījuma, par svešvalodu prasmes lomu, rezultāti liecina, ka Latvijas ārējo sakaru speciālistiem ir vajadzīga valodu kompetence. Valodas kompetence ir arī dalīšanās savā kultūrā, kas padara valodu kompetences vēl vērtīgākas starpkultūru kontekstā. Svešvalodu apguves procesā studenti pilnveido savu *profesionālo kompetenci*, jo viņi attīsta visus komunikācijas veidus: *starp-personu (interpersonal)*, *interpretācijas (interpretive)* un *prezentācijas (presentational) komunikācijas veidu*.

Svešvalodu zināšanas pašas par sevi *nav mērķis* LLU programmas „Iestāžu un uzņēmumu ārējie sakari” mācību procesā. Bet 15 mācību priekšmetu *mācīšanās darot* angļu valodā, nodrošina angļu valodas komunikatīvo kompetenci. Otrās (vācu) svešvalodas apguve (B blokā), kā arī trešās svešvalodas (C blokā) (franču, spāņu, krievu vai itāļu) apguve pilnveido studentu komunikatīvo kompetenci.

Jebkurai sniegtai informācijai ir jābūt pilnvērtīgai, skaidri izklāstītai, saprotamai. Tomēr, mutiski nodoto informāciju nespējam kontrolēt, jo katrs cilvēks informāciju interpretē atkarībā no sava **komunikatīvās kompetences** līmeņa. Rakstiskās informācijas nodošana ir daudz svarīgāka par mutisko, jo rakstisko informāciju uztveram pēc satura un tā paliek nemainīga. Visbiežāk lietotā rakstiskās saskarsmes forma ir lietišķā sarakste. Lietišķajām vēstulēm ir stingri noteikta struktūra.

Modernajā pasaulē par visizplatītāko sarakstes formu ir kļuvis elektroniskais pasts, kuru izmanto, ja ir svarīga ātra informācijas apmaiņa vai informācijas izplatīšana.

Rakstīšanas kompetence, kā ārējo sakaru speciālista kompetences sastāvdaļa, iekļauj sevī 4 kompetences – lingvistisko, komunikatīvo, stratēģisko, sociolingvistisko.

Rakstiskai saskarsmei ir savas priekšrocības un trūkumi. Priekšrocības:

- Informācija ir rūpīgi atlasīta, pārdomāta un ir pārskatāma;
- Informācija nepazūd;
- Visa uzmanība tiek pievērsta pašai informācijai, jo nav novēršanās faktoru;
- Informācija paliek tādā veidā, kādā ir nosūtīta.

Trūkumi:

- Rakstiskā saskarsme nesekmē papildus informācijas iegūšanu;
- Nesekmē atgriezenisko saikni;
- Nesekmē ātru informācijas apmaiņu;
- Nesekmē personīgo kontaktu dibināšanu un uzturēšanu;
- Bieži nav iespējams nekavējoties izvairīties no pārpratumiem.

Komunikatīvā kompetence komunikācijā ir viena no galvenajām prasmēm studentu profesionālās kompetences pilnveidē „Iestāžu un uzņēmumu ārējo sakaru” programmā, kā arī viens no pamatstandartiem angļu valodas lietošanā. Lietišķajā saskarsmē cilvēki kontaktējas kā lomu un statusu pārstāvji, rēķinoties ar vispārpieņemtām uzvedības un pieklājības normām – etiķeti un protokolu. Lietišķo saskarsmi var uzskatīt par efektīvu, ja, ievērojot visus lietišķās saskarsmes principus, ir izdevies sasniegt iepriekš izvirzīto komunikācijas uzsākšanas mērķi.

Lietišķā komunikācija ir informācijas apmaiņa starp divām vai vairākām personām vai grupām, kas kalpo darījumu veikšanai, sekmē izvirzīto mērķu sasniegšanu un vērsta uz savstarpējo saprašanos (Ezera, Graudiņa, Dreiberģa, 2000: 6).

Saskarsmes prasme ir prasme sekot savai uzvedībai, uzklaut otru cilvēku, empātijas spēja, spēja novērtēt savu lomu sociālā vidē, prasme kontaktēties ar savu partneri, prasme pārliecināt un pamatot savu viedokli, atklātuma iesaistīšanas prasme, prasme noturēt līdera pozīcijas saskarsmē, ja esi saskarsmes iniciators, prasme organizēt saskarsmes saturu un rezultātu, informācijas uztveres prasme, prasme savienot verbālās un neverbālās komunikācijas līdzekļus (Garleja, 1997).

Kļūdas komunikācijas procesos var novest pie konfliktu saasināšanās vai jaunu konfliktu rašanās. F.Zeitels (*Seitel F.P.*) nosauc biežākās komunikācijas kļūdas:

- Neaktīvā klausīšanās;
- Orientācijas uz klausītāju neizmantošanu;
- Nepareizi neverbāli signāli;
- Neattīstītā prasme rakstīt skaidrā valodā;

- Auditorijas nezināšana;
- Atgriezeniskās saiknes vērā neņemšana;
- Elementārās pieklājības normu neievērošana (Seitel, 1992).

Komunikācija ne tikai nodod informāciju, bet arī nosaka uzvedību. Tādā veidā tiek izmantota kā stratēģisks līdzeklis institūcijas darbības organizēšanā (Вацлавик П., Бибин Д., 2000).

Iepriekšminētais ļauj formulēt šādus pamatatzinumus:

- Komunikācija ir **saskarsme**, kas sociālpsiholoģiskajā pieejā tiek definēta kā tiešs vai netiešs sazināšanās process, kura mērķis ir ietekmēt partnera uzvedību, emocijas, nostādni un attieksmi, aktivitātes pakāpi un darbību;
- Komunikācija ir **process** – secīga darbību virkne kāda **rezultāta sasniegšanai**;
- Komunikācija ir domu vai, precīzāk, **informācijas apmaiņas** process;
- Komunikācijā ir iesaistītas **vismaz divas personas**;
- Komunikācija ir orientēta uz **savstarpēju saprašanos** (Ezera I., Graudiņa I., Dreiberģa S., 2000: 5).

LLU „Iestāžu un uzņēmumu ārējo sakaru” programmā ir iekļauti tādi studiju priekšmeti: *Valstu studijas, Lietišķā komunikācija, Lietišķā sarakste, Runas un rakstu kultūra, Lietišķā etiķete un komunikācija* un citi, kuru apguves procesā studenti iegūst nepieciešamās komunikācijas prasmes. Mēģinot noskaidrot veiksmīga komunikācijas procesa noteicošos faktorus ārējo sakaru jomā, priekšroka tika dota kvalitatīvajai pētījuma metodei - strukturētai intervēšanai, kuru 2006.gadā veica „Iestāžu un uzņēmumu ārējo sakaru” studiju programmas absolvents R. Mediss (Mediss, 2006). Respondenti, kā vienu no neveiksmju iemesliem komunikācijas procesā, atzīmē valodas zināšanu zemo līmeni: „... *nepietiks ar pāris plikām frāzēm angļu valodā, valoda ir jāpārzina perfekti*” (SIA „Masterfoods Latvia”). Otra respondentu grupa kā būtisku faktoru nosauc informācijas trūkumu un informācijas uztveri: „*Arī informācijas trūkums var būt kritisks komunikācijas procesā.*” (Z.J.) „*Un arī informācijas uztveršana ir sarežģīta, es esmu domājis vienu, bet viņi saprot pavisam ko citu*” (A.Ā.). Gan informācijas trūkums, gan informācijas uztveršana ir informatīvas kompetences komponenti. Tādējādi, eksperti minēja informatīvo kompetenci kā būtisku biznesa/starptautiskajā komunikācijā.

IT prasmes eksperti nosauc par obligātām komunikācijas veidošanā: „*Savā darbībā izmantoju e-mailu, tas ir ļoti ērti un ātri. Agrāk izmantoju faksu informācijas nosūtīšanai, taču ar to gan bija problēmas... Bieži izmantoju arī interneta telefonu*” (M.Ķ.).

Respondenti uzskata, ka liela nozīme ir komunikatīvai kompetencei: „*Tas ir atkarīgs no paša cilvēka, cik viņš komunikabls, cik pārzina valodu, jo tas jau ir būtiski, lai tevi saprastu, un lai tu saprastu. Liela loma ir personāla atlasei*” (SIA „Masterfoods Latvia”).

Līdzīgus apgalvojumus izvirza arī SIA „Poliurs” rīkotājdirektors Viesturs Melnacs: *„tas ir atkarīgs no cilvēka individuālajām īpašībām, no viņa personības, no mākas komunicēties. Ir cilvēki, kuri vienkārši nemāk komunicēties...”*.

Apkopojot respondentu atbildes, varam secināt, ka būtiska loma komunikācijas procesā ir cilvēka personībai, komunikabilitātei un pareizi izvēlētai personāla atlases programmai. Šajā konkrētajā gadījumā svarīgi būtu ņemt vērā darbinieka kompetenci, saskarsmes spējas, pašpārliecinātību, sabiedriskumu, pielāgošanās un sadarbības spējas.

Respondenti tika aicināti nosaukt faktorus, kam jāpievērš uzmanība veidojot ārējos sakarus, lai komunikācijas process būtu efektīvs un nestu gaidītos rezultātus. Kā galvenos faktorus viņi minēja personības īpašības, emocionālo kompetenci, valstu un kultūru atšķirības, lietišķo attieksmi.

Kā redzams no respondentu atbildēm, tikai 3 (SIA „Saint – Gobain Isover Oy”, SIA „Porsche Leipzig GmbH” un SIA „Masterfoods Latvia”) uzskata par būtisku organizēt un vadīt komunikācijas (sakaru) procesu. Uz jautājumu: „Vai Jūsu uzņēmums aktīvi strādā pie komunikācijas procesa veidošanas?” to vadītāji ir atbildējuši pozitīvi:

„Jā, mūsu uzņēmums pie tā strādā, jo citādāk nemaz nevar” („Masterfoods Latvia”).

„Jā! Mums ir iespēja apmeklēt krievu valodas kursus un apgūt krievu valodu... Vēl mūsu priekšniecība nodrošina mums braucienus uz mūsu filiālēm citās valstīs, lai uzlabotu un veicinātu sekmīgu komunikāciju starp filiālēm un kolēģiem tajās” (R.D.).

Kā redzams, šie uzņēmumi ilgu laiku darbojas starptautiskajā sfērā un ieņem stabili pozīciju starptautiskajā tirgū. Viens no šiem veiksmes faktoriem ir tas, ka šie uzņēmumi komunikācijas procesu uzskata par vadīšanas sastāvdaļu, organizē un vada to.

Savukārt, daudzi uzņēmumi komunikācijas procesu uzskata par pašsaprotamu, kam nav jāvelta uzmanība: *„Tas viss notiek pats par sevi, nekas īpašs netiek veidots”* (M.Ķ.). *„Īpaši nedomājam...”* (A.Ā.); - šie uzņēmumi nepievērš sakaru veidošanai īpašu uzmanību, jo neuzskata to par būtisku faktoru. Lielā mērā tas ir atkarīgs no vadītāja pašieinteresētības un vadītāja kompetences. Nav pārsteidzoši, ka tieši šie uzņēmumi saskata problēmas sakaru veidošanā ar ārvalstu partneriem. Tas ir loģisks nepārdomātās uzņēmumu stratēģijas rezultāts.

Analizējot respondentu atbildes, varam secināt, ka Latvijas uzņēmumiem, kas paplašina savu darbību, jāpievērš lielāka uzmanība komunikācijas procesam, kas ir vadīšanas procesa sastāvdaļa, un, kas ir jāorganizē un jāvada. Būtiska loma veiksmīgā komunikācijas procesā ir precizitātei, valodas zināšanām, pieklājībai, atbildībai, cilvēka personībai, uzņēmuma prestižam. Kā vienu no nozīmīgākajiem iemesliem neveiksmīgai komunikācijai, respondenti atzīst valodas barjeru un

informācijas trūkumu, par kritiskiem punktiem komunikācijas procesā nosaucot informācijas pārraidīšanu, izteiksmes līdzekļus un uztveršanu, kas ir informatīvās kompetences kritēriji.

Secinājumi

1. Komunikatīvā kompetence attīstās, ja mācības ir uz kompetenci orientētas.
2. Kompetenci var sasniegt tikai darot. Tikai studenta aktīva piedalīšanās studiju procesā nodrošina komunikatīvo prasmju pilnveidi.
3. Studiju procesā ārējo sakaru speciālistam nepieciešamas informācijas meklēšanas, novērtēšanas un pārsūtīšanas prasmes.
4. Valodu zināšanas, ieskaitot dzimto valodu, ir nepieciešama komunikatīvās kompetences sastāvdaļa.

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EDUCATION IN THE CONDITIONS OF INFORMATION SOCIETY

IZGLĪTĪBA INFORMĀCIJAS SABIEDRĪBAS APSTĀKĻOS

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Kopsavilkums

Mūsdienu sabiedrību raksturo straujā attīstība un mainība. Pieaugošā informācijas tehnoloģiju attīstība un izplatība pasaulē rada jauna tipa sabiedrības attiecības – informācijas sabiedrību. Arvien pieaugošais informācijas un zināšanu nozīmīgums izvirza arvien augstākas prasības pret individu, lai tas spētu pilnvērtīgi iekļauties procesos, būt konkurētspējīgs darba tirgū un celt savu dzīves kvalitāti. Izvērtējot informācijas un komunikāciju tehnoloģiju lomu sabiedrības un ekonomikas attīstībā saistībā ar informācijas un zināšanu pieaugošo nozīmību, augstskolām izvirzās uzdevums nodrošināt nepieciešamo zināšanu un prasmju apguvi, kas saistās ar darbu ar informāciju, t.i., attīstīt informācijpratību. Rakstā īsumā raksturota arī informācijas sabiedrība kā sociāls fenomens, kā arī apskatītas šī procesa ēnas puses, sniegts īss ieskats termina *informācijpratība* attīstībā, kā arī informācijprasmju novērtēšanas jomās Latvijas Lauksaimniecības universitātē.

Atslēgas vārdi: informācijas sabiedrība, informācijas pratība, tehnoloģiju pratība, inženierizglītība

Ievads

Mūsdienas iezīmē strauja informācijas un komunikāciju tehnoloģiju attīstība, kā rezultātā veidojas jauns sociāls fenomens – informācijas sabiedrība. Izvērtējot dažādās pieejas definējumos, ar terminu *informācijas sabiedrība* mēs saprotam sabiedrību un procesus tajā, kas vērsti uz maksimāli iespējamā labuma gūšanu no informācijas, ar to saprotot informācijas un komunikāciju tehnoloģiju izmantošanu visdažādākajās cilvēka dzīves sfērās un veidos. Informācijas sabiedrību raksturo trīs kritēriji (Masuda, 1990):

- 1) jebkurš cilvēks, grupa, iestāde vai organizācija, jebkurā laikā, no jebkuras vietas var saņemt jebkuras esošās zināšanas (informāciju), kas nepieciešama ikdienas dzīves vai darba jautājumu risināšanai;
- 2) ir visa nepieciešamā informācijas tehnoloģija, kas ietver datorus, saziņas līdzekļus, datu bāzes, tīklus utt., kas nodrošina iepriekš minēto prasību izpildi;
- 3) ir efektīva sistēma visu indivīdiem un sabiedrībai nepieciešamo informācijas un zināšanu radīšanai un funkcionēšanai.

Informācijas sabiedrība uzskatāma vairāk par attīstības procesu, nevis konkrētu gala rezultātu. Šajā procesā veidojas un attīstās augsti izglītotu indivīdu kopiena, zināšanu ietilpīga ekonomika, kas sekmē visas sabiedrības un ikviena indivīda dzīves kvalitātes paaugstināšanos. Tas, protams, ir šī procesa gala mērķis.

Tajā pašā laikā valda arī citi uzskati. Kā jebkurai jaunai parādībai, arī informācijas sabiedrībai nav tikai pozitīvais, bet ir arī savas ēnas puses. Piemēram, pasaule tiek pārpludināta ar informāciju. Šis informācijas daudzums izjauc cilvēku dzīves kvalitāti, rada sadrumstalotību, demokrātijas sabrukumu, izglītības standartu pazemināšanos un demagoģijas uzplaukumu (Shenk, 1977). Tehnoloģiskās izplatības ātrumam ir selektīvs raksturs, kā sociāli, tā funkcionāli, pieejamības aspektā – cilvēkiem, zemēm, reģioniem, radot arī nevienlīdzību sabiedrībā (Castells, 2000). Šobrīd izvirzās svarīgs jautājums – kā mazināt atšķirības starp indivīdiem, kuriem jaunie pakalpojumi ir pieejami, un, kuri prot tos izmantot, un tiem, kam ikdienā praktiski nav pieejami šie resursi. Tātad, jautājums – kā mazināt tā saukto digitālo plaisu, kā rezultātā veidojas arī zināšanu plaša, kas iezīmē sabiedrības dalīšanos tajos, kas izmanto, un tajos, kas informācijas un komunikāciju tehnoloģijas neizmanto. Dažādās iespējas piekļūt informācijai un atšķirīgās prasmes tās izmantot, veido noteiktu robežšķirtni starp sabiedrības grupām, kas izkropļo informācijas pārraidi pašas sabiedrības iekšienē. Mūžsenais pretmets starp tiem, kam ir, un tiem, kam nav, neizzūd, vien transformējas jaunās analfabētisma formās, kas ir pretstats gan datorprasmēm (tehnoloģiskām prasmēm), gan prasmei strādāt ar informāciju.

Jaunie apstākļi izvirza arvien augstākas prasības indivīdam, lai tas spētu pilnvērtīgi iekļauties procesos, būt konkurētspējīgs darba tirgū un celt savu dzīves kvalitāti. Arvien lielākai sabiedrības daļai vairs nepietiek ar tādu informācijas ieguves, izpratnes un izmantošanas līmeni, ko nodrošina elementārās prasmes lasīt, rakstīt un rēķināt. Jāatzīmē arī, ka aizvadīto gadsimtu gaitā ir sasniegts liels cilvēces uzkrāto zināšanu apjoms, taču līdztekus nav pietiekami attīstījusies šo zināšanu cilvēcīga izmantošana (Broks, 2003). Tāpēc ikvienam indivīdam rodas dzīves diktēta nepieciešamība saprast jaunas informācijas nepieciešamību, sameklēt to un izmantot. Tādējādi tik pierastais *prasmes* vai *pratības jēdziens* dabiski paplašinās un iegūst nesalīdzināmi augstākus kritērijus un arī specifisku jaunas prasmes nosaukumu – *informācijpratība*. Tas nozīmē, ka izglītības sistēmas galvenais uzdevums šobrīd ir šo informācijprasmju attīstīšana. Tāpēc der noskaidrot, ko sevī ietver termins *informācijpratība*.

Jēdziena „informācijpratība” izpratne

Jēdziens *informācijpratība* tiek definēts dažādi. Piemēram, Latvijā ar to saprot spēju izprast jaunas informācijas nepieciešamību, saprast, kad un kāda informācija ir vajadzīga tā vai cita jautājuma vai problēmas risināšanai, prasme atrast, izprast un sakārtot informāciju, atlasīt un izdalīt vajadzīgo un derīgo no milzīgā radītās un uzkrātās informācijas masīva, pēc tam arī izmantot to, dalīties tajā ar citiem, radīt jaunas zināšanas (www.izm.gov.lv). Cita no pieejām liecina, ka

informācijpratība ir prasmes, kas nepieciešamas jaunai karjerai, pilsonībai un mūžizglītībai (Baumbach, 1984). Informācijpratīgs cilvēks tiek raksturots kā persona, kas apzinās, ka informācija ir nepieciešama, kam piemīt spēja to iegūt, novērtēt, efektīvi izmantot un kas ir iemācījies mācīties, kā arī vērtēt rezultātu saskaņā ar uzdevuma prasībām un atbilstošo zināšanu pieaugumu (Pickering, 2004). Balstoties uz Amerikas bibliotēku asociācijas *informācijpratības* definējumu, pēdējo gadu zinātniskajos rakstos, *informācijpratības* sarežģītību raksturo tajās ietilpstošās septiņas prasmes:

- 1) prasme **noteikt**, kāda informācija ir nepieciešama;
- 2) prasme **savākt** vajadzībām atbilstošus informācijas avotus;
- 3) prasme **atlasīt** un **saglabāt** nozīmīgo informāciju no avotiem; saprast un novērtēt to;
- 4) prasme **kombinēt** un **organizēt** informāciju vislabākajā variantā;
- 5) prasme **prezentēt** apgūto informāciju tai atbilstošā veidā,
- 6) prasme efektīvi **izmantot** iegūto informāciju.

Saskaņā ar Makenzi (*McKenzie*), informacionāli izglītotam cilvēkam ir sekojošas spējas: informācijas meklēšanas spēja (atrast atbilstošo informāciju, analizēt to; atrast nepieciešamo); interpretācijas spēja (pārvērst datus un informāciju zināšanās, paredzējumos un izpratnē) un jaunu ideju ģenerācijas spēja (jaunu ideju vai hipotēžu attīstīšana). Jāatzīmē, ka termina *informācijpratība* attīstība saistās galvenokārt ar Bibliotēku asociācijas starptautiskās federācijas (IFLA) darbību. Šīs organizācijas 2006.gadā izveidotajās „Informācijpratības vadlīnijās mūžizglītībai”, līdzās terminam *informācijpratība*, kā sinonīmi tiek lietoti arī citi termini: *informācijprasmes*, *bibliogrāfiskā sagatavotība*, *lietotāju izglītība*, *informacionālās kompetences*.

Pētījuma metodes

Problēma tika apzināta, autorei veicot zinātniskās literatūras analīzi un izvērtēšanu, veicot novērošanu un autores pieredzes refleksiju.

Lai noskaidrotu studentu pašnovērtējumu par studentu pašu spējām un prasmēm saistībā ar informācijpratību, tika veikta Latvijas Lauksaimniecības universitātes (LLU) studentu aptauja. Aptaujā uzdotie jautājumi bija par informācijas meklēšanas prasmju, iegūto zināšanu, kā arī sava laika plānošanas pašnovērtējumu; informācijas avotu veidiem, kas tiek izmantoti mācību un pētnieciskajā darbā; par LLU studiju procesa informatīvā nodrošinājuma izvērtējumu; kā arī par studentu viedokļiem par grūtībām informācijas meklēšanā. Pētījumā tika noskaidroti arī vairāki statistiskie dati: bibliotēkas lietošanas biežums, interneta lietojuma biežums mācību mērķiem un informācijas iegūšanai, kā arī laika sadalījums interneta lietošanai citiem mērķiem – komunikācijai un izklaidei.

Rezultāti un diskusija

Izvērtējot pētījuma rezultātus, autore secina, ka augstskolu studenti nav pietiekami labi sagatavoti patstāvīgai informācijas meklēšanai, izpratnei, atlasei, sakārtošanai un izmantošanai. Studentiem vienlīdz svarīga ir tehnoloģiju izmantošana kā izklaidei, tā komunikācijai (saziņai). Tomēr, statistiskie rādītāji par to izmantošanu izglītības nolūkos un informācijas iegūšanai, vēl neliecina par šo tehnoloģiju piedāvāto iespēju pilnīgu apzināšanu vai izmantošanu. Autore secina, ka indivīdu informācijpratību plašākā nozīmē raksturo trīs pamatelementi: lietotāja kompetence, speciālista kompetence un informācijas kompetence kā domāšanas veids. Strauji pieaugot tehnoloģiju pieejamībai, pieaug arī to lietotāju īpatsvars, kas nozīmē to, ka tiek sekmēta lietotāja informācijas kompetence. Taču reizēm tā draud kļūt par domāšanas veidu šaurā, reizēm banālā veidā (jaunietim augas dienas pavadot *čata* portālos). Speciālista profesionālā informācijas kompetence iekļauj mūžizglītības un pašizglītības spējas. Tāpēc informācijas kompetence kopumā ir vērtējama kā objektīvs studentu profesionālās kompetences attīstības faktors, kā pamatiespēja, kas nodrošina efektīvu mācīšanos un pašizglītību. Tas rada nepieciešamību attīstīt informācijprasmes profesionālas kompetences attīstības un pilnveides kontekstā.

Diskusijās par informācijas tehnoloģijām izglītībā parasti lielāks uzsvars tiek likts uz tehnoloģijām nevis uz informāciju. Nepārprotami, informācijpratība ir cieši saistīta ar informācijas komunikāciju tehnoloģijām. Bieži vien informācijpratība tiek aizstāta ar tehnoloģiju pratību, ko raksturo (Asherov, Bodanova, 2007):

- 1) **pamatjēdzienu zināšana** par informāciju tehnoloģijām un datortehniku;
- 2) **zināšanas** par datortehnikas iekārtu darbības principiem un funkcionālām iespējām, par modernām darbības sistēmām, programmām un mērierīču sistēmām;
- 3) modernu specializētu programmatūru un kompleksu automatizētu procesu darbības **zināšanas**;
- 4) programmēšanas valodas **zināšanas** un **prasmes** tās lietot praktiski;
- 5) **prasme** izmantot datoru u.c. tehnoloģiju funkcionālās iespējas, lai sagatavotu, organizētu un nodrošinātu profesionālu darbību;
- 6) **spēja** atjaunot savas profesionālās zināšanas.

Ar tehnoloģijām pārsvarā tiek saprasts, ka cilvēki, vairāk nekā agrāk, saskaras ar lielāku informācijas apjomu dažādās formās. Tehnoloģijas ir portāls, caur kuru mēs mijiedarbojamies ar informāciju, bet spēja apieties ar informāciju – risināt problēmas un kritiski izvērtēt informāciju – mums vairāk dod ieskatu par panākumiem nākotnē nekā par zināšanām attiecībā uz datora aparatūru vai programmatūru. Abas šīs prasmes, kas bieži tiek sauktas arī par informācijas un komunikāciju

tehnoloģiju (IKT) pratību, 21. gadsimtā apvieno pratības formu, kur informācijas izpēte un izplatīšana caur digitālo vidi, ir tikpat svarīgas prasmes kā rakstīšana un lasīšana iepriekšējos gadsimtos.

Pieredze darbā ar LLU studentiem liecina, ka tie studenti, kam ir augstāka informācijas un tehnoloģiju kompetence, ātrāk apgūst saturu, spēj labāk risināt problēmas, kļūst patstāvīgāki un uzņemas lielāku kontroli pār savām mācībām. IKT pratība ir svarīga, lai informācijas sabiedrībā kļūtu par produktīvu pilsoni, jo darba devējs vēlas, lai viņa padotie šīs prasmes būtu apguvuši. Rezultātā augstskolu administrācijas sāk pieprasīt, lai, absolvējot augstskolu, studenti būtu šīs prasmes apguvuši.

Pastāv arī dažāda rakstura grūtības, sekmējot informācijpratības, kā arī IKT prasmju kopumā attīstīšanu profesionālas kompetences attīstības un pilnveides kontekstā. Pirmkārt, augstskolu studenti bieži uzskata, ka viņi ir kompetenti informācijas resursu lietotāji, jo ikdienā taču saskaras ar internetu. Šāda attieksme var novest pie intereses trūkuma par iespējām uzlabot prasmes, kā lietot pārlūkprogrammas un elektroniskās meklēšanas datu bāzes. Otrkārt, pastāv gandrīz nemanāmā tehnoloģiju izmantošanas robeža starp sociālo un akadēmisko vidi. Piemēram, daži kuriozi gadījumi nodarbību laikā datorlīklas apliecina, ka studenti, bieži vien novēršas no uzdoto uzdevumu veikšanas, lai nodarbotos ar blakus lietām – pārbaudītu e-pastus, *čatotu* ar draugiem, spēlētu datorspēles vai sērfotu internetā. Šī uzvedība liecina par to, ka pašreizējās programmas stratēģija un programmas pasniegšanas metodes nav īsti efektīvas un neatbilst studentu vajadzībām. Pasniedzējiem ir jābūt gataviem rast stratēģiju, kas palīdz strādāt ar studentu, kurš uzskata, ka viņš/viņa jau ir prasmīgs IKT lietotājs, radīt lietotāja vajadzībām svarīgu mācību procesu, kurā iekļautas lietotājam zināmas tehnoloģijas, radīt aktīvās mācīšanās iespējas, lai students vienmēr būtu nodarbināts ar uzdevumiem, kā arī izvērtēt, kādu iespaidu lietotās metodes atstāj uz studenta patstāvīgās mācīšanās rezultātu.

Secinājumi

1. Pētījuma rezultāti liecina, ka svarīgs augstskolu uzdevums ir nepieciešamo zināšanu un prasmju apguves nodrošināšana, kas ir saistītas ar darbu ar informāciju. Pēc autores domām, tieši augstākās izglītības iegūšanas periodā notiek nākamo speciālistu profesionālās informacionālās uzvedības algoritma izveide. Tāpēc svarīgi ir izprast, kā studenti apgūst informācijas apstrādes prasmes; noteikt labāko veidu, kā integrēt informācijas rakstpratību mācību programmā, un novērtēt, kā šo prasmju apguve ietekmē vispārējos akadēmiskos

sasniegumus. Novērtēšana ir aktuāls diskusiju jautājums ne tikai augstskolas līmenī, bet arī starptautiskajās konferencēs, kuru tematika skar IKT izglītībā.

2. Jāatzīmē, ka informācijas komunikāciju tehnoloģiju sniegto iespēju neizmantošana vai neprasme tās izmantot, var radīt tā saukto digitālo izstumtību, kas rada risku neiekļauties sabiedriskajos un ekonomiskajos procesos. Autore secina, ka universitātes galvenie uzdevumi ir vēršami uz kognitīvo problēmu risināšanu un kritiskās domāšanas prasmju attīstīšanu darbā ar tehnoloģijām un informācijas apstrādi – tādējādi, vairāk orientējoties uz kognitīvu lēmumu pieņemšanu nekā uz tehnoloģiskām prasmēm.
3. Ir vairāki veidi, kā sekmēt informācijpratību, piemēram, veidot jaunu studiju priekšmetu „*Informācijas zinātne*”, apzināt un izvērtēt metodes, kā nodrošināt studējošo kognitīvo attīstību, informācijas komunikāciju tehnoloģiju izmantošanas iespējas studiju procesā ar mērķi sekmēt informācijpratību un tehnoloģiju pratību, kā arī e- studiju didaktikos aspektus, aktualizēt bibliotēku lomu prasmju veidošanā, veidot starppriekšmetu saikni u.c. Pētījumā noskaidrots, ka šajā jomā vēl ir daudz darāmā.

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THE FACTORS OF ACADEMIC PERSONNEL WORK APPEAL

AKADĒMISKĀ PERSONĀLA DARBA PIEVILCĪBAS FAKTORI

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Introduction. Education management is the sub-branch of management science which besides cognitive activity also investigates effective work of institutions of education system. The teaching staff's job satisfaction depends on the processes of management and administration, which accordingly has effect on education process, cognition activities of students and its results. Teaching staff is the most important study resource, available to students and that is why it is important that teaching staff itself is motivated and do the work which completely meets the interests and abilities.

In the work to solve organization problems the use of social technologies (sociotics and its western analogue Myers Briggs Type Indicator or MBTI) rapidly increases because the heads of enterprises and employees recognize their being useful. Knowledge of them facilitates negotiations about individual wishes and gives to the leader's rational structure about the needs of organization's people. In Latvia the Jung theory of types has not been widely used.

Methods. The aim of this research is to find out the academic staff opinion about the most desirable job offer and its connection with sociotypes of teaching staffs and their self-assessment about the present job's suitability to their abilities and interests. The research has used survey and test to identify the sociotype. The results of the research have been analyzed according to the viewpoints of sociotics about motive groups – the answers of introvert and extrovert trend sensory and intuitive functional types.

Results. The results of the research indicate the different factors of job appeal of extravert sensory and extrovert intuitive teaching staffs. Extrovert sensory would think about changing the job if the job offers higher position and better payment. Extrovert intuitive are more motivated by interesting, stable, creative work in which their being unique would be appreciated. Introvert sensory type are more willing to do the job which provides stability and prosperity. For introvert intuitive the sense of safety and peaceful work pace matters the most. When analyzing the research results about the suitability of teaching staff work to their abilities and interests according to the above mentioned groups, mostly – 80% of extrovert sensory type assess their work suitable to their interests and abilities. But only one fifth of introvert sensory type have assessed their abilities and interests. The results of introvert and extrovert intuitive are approximately the same, but the extrovert trend type assesses the situation more positively.

Conclusions. The research revealed the traditional situation that extroverts are more satisfied with the current situation than the introverts. As the leaders often are of extrovert trend, as it was found within the research, then according to K. G. Jung's theory of psychological types and the approach based on it suggestions, the managers should pay more attention to the needs of employees to understand better what differs from their natural approach. Besides academic teaching staffs the work of higher educational establishment is supported also by the general personnel. It would be useful if the next researches included also that part of the personnel.

Key-words: Teaching staff, Environment quality, Satisfaction, Motive groups.

Ievads

Izglītības vadība ir vadībzinību zinātnes apakšnozare, kura blakus kognitīvai darbībai pēta izglītības sistēmas institūciju efektīvu darbību. Katra augstākās izglītības iestāde kā izglītības sistēmas sastāvdaļa ir unikāla, bet kopēja tām ir pamatnodarbošanās – izglītības programmu īstenošana pedagoģiskajā procesā. Menedžments un administrēšana kā procesi rada docētāju noteikta līmeņa apmierinātību ar darbu, kas ietekmē izglītošanās procesu, studentu izziņas darbību un tās rezultātus utt. (Mukhopadhyay, 2005).

Izcilas organizācijas vada, attīsta un izmanto savu darbinieku potenciālu kā individuālā, tā arī grupu un visas organizācijas līmenī, tādējādi motivējot personālu un panākot, ka tas izmanto savas prasmes un zināšanas organizācijas izaugsmes veicināšanai – tā norādīts Eiropas Izcilības modelī EFQM (Uz EFQM...). Darba procesā cilvēku slēptā enerģija var izpausties dažādās pakāpēs atkarībā no mijattiecību kvalitātes. Jebkuram darba devējam, jebkura līmeņa vadītājam ir nepieciešams pilnveidot gan personīgās efektivitātes un sociālās kompetences, gan veikt pētījumus atsevišķu organizācijā strādājošo indivīdu līmenī veiksmīgu mijattiecību veidošanai. Darbinieku atšķirību apzināšanās, viņu vajadzību noteikšana ir būtiski svarīga jebkura uzņēmuma pārvaldībai (Forands, 2007).

Viens no instrumentiem, kas ļauj veikt pētījumus organizācijā indivīdu līmenī, ir socionika. Organizācijas problēmu risināšanā sociālo tehnoloģiju (socionikas un tās rietumu analoga MBTI – *Myers Briggs Type Indicator*) izmantošana strauji pieaug, jo uzņēmumu vadītāji un darbinieki arvien vairāk sāk atzīt to lietderību (Myers, 2000). Šo tehnoloģiju rezultāti un interpretācija saistīti ar to, kā cilvēki uztver informāciju, un kā viņi nosaka prioritātes, pieņemot lēmumus, t.i., ar tādiem būtiskiem personības aspektiem, kas ir pamatā vairumam darba uzdevumu. Indivīds tiek raksturots, izmantojot 4 dihotomijas, kuru poli ir: 1) introversija, kuru apzīmē ar burtu I (Introversion) vai ekstraversija, kuru apzīmē ar burtu E (Extraversion), kas norāda uz enerģijas ieguves veidu; 2) sensorika S (Sensing) vai intuīcija N (iNtuition), kas norāda informācijas uztveres veidu; 3) loģika T (Thinking) vai ētika F (Feeling), kas raksturo lēmumu pieņemšanas veidu; 4) racionalitāte J (Judging) vai iracionalitāte P (Perceiving), kas norāda uz dzīves veidu. Šīm pazīmēm savstarpēji kombinējoties, veidojas 16 četru burtu kodi, kas katrs apzīmē kādu noteiktu sociotipu.

Sociālās tehnoloģijas rosina gan pašatklāsmi, gan arī mudina respektēt cilvēku dabiskās atšķirības. To zināšana atvieglo pārrunas par katra individuālajām vēlmēm un sniedz vadītājam informāciju par organizācijas cilvēku vajadzībām. Piemēram, uz aktivitāti var rosināt gan pats darba raksturs, kas rada cilvēkam iespēju pašaktualizēties, gan arī iespējamais darba rezultāts, ja tas viņam šķiet pievilcīgs. Dihotomijas ekstraversija/introversija un sensorika/intuīcija nosaka motivējošā darba raksturu (Гуленко, 2005).

Šī kopējā pētījuma daļas mērķis ir noskaidrot akadēmiskā personāla viedokli par pievilcīgāko darba piedāvājumu un tā saistību ar docētāju sociotipu un pašvērtējumu par esošā darba atbilstību spējām un interesēm. Pētījumā tiek izmantota anketēšana un tiešsaistes varianta sociotipa noteikšanas tests.

Pētījuma metodes

Aptaujāti tika augstskolu docētāji, kas nodrošina tūrisma studentu programmas apgūšanu. 79 respondentu vidū ir 75% sieviešu un 25% vīriešu. Respondentu darba stāžs augstskolā – no 1- 47 gadiem – 27% ar 1-6 gadu darba stāžu docētāja amatā, 49% ar 7 – 14 gadu stāžu un 24% - ar 15 un vairāk gadu darba stāžu. No kopējā respondentu skaita 81% ir maģistru un 19% doktoru. Tā kā iepriekšminētās respondentu pazīmes neietekmē sociotipu izpausmes (MBTI Manual, 1998), tad tālāk atsevišķi tās netiek analizētas. Pētījuma norises laiks: 2007. gada decembris – 2008. gada janvāris.

Respondentu aptauju veidoja 1) 72 jautājumu tiešsaistes (on-line) tests sociotipa noteikšanai (Humanmetrics), 2) jautājums: *Kas Jums varētu likt domāt par darba nomaiņu (ja visi pārējie apstākļi ir ļoti labvēlīgi)?* ar dotām 4 iespējamām atbildēm un 3) aicinājums sniegt pašvērtējumu par darba atbilstību spējām un interesēm ar piedāvātiem atbilžu variantiem.

Rezultāti un diskusija

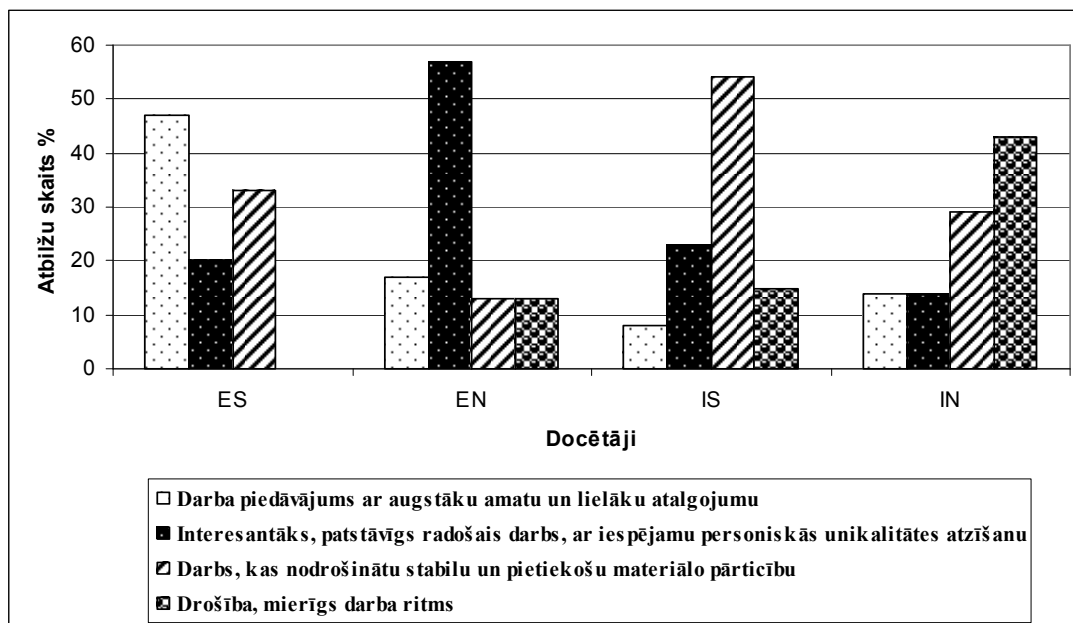
Testu sociotipa noteikšanai veica 79 respondenti, uz 2. jautājumu atbildēja 58, bet uz trešo - 61 respondents. Pētījuma rezultāti apkopoti 1. tabulā.

1. tabula
Docētāju sociotipu, darba pievilcības faktoru un darba atbilstības spējām un interesēm pašvērtējums

Sociotipi	Pievilcības faktori (docētāju skaits)				Atbilstības pašvērtējums (docētāju skaits)		Sociotipi	Pievilcības faktori (docētāju skaits)				Atbilstības pašvērtējums (docētāju skaits)	
	a	b	c	d	pilnībā	daļēji		a	b	c	d	pilnībā	daļēji
ENTP	0	1	0	0	1	0	ESFP	2	2	1	0	5	1
ISFP	0	1	2	0	0	3	INTP	0	0	0	0	0	0
ESFJ	2	1	3	0	4	2	ENTJ	0	5	0	0	3	2
INTJ	1	0	1	1	1	2	ISFJ	1	2	3	2	5	3
ENFJ	4	6	2	3	11	5	ESTJ	3	0	1	0	4	
ISTJ	0	0	1	0	0	1	INFJ	0	1	0	1	1	1
ESTP	0	0	0	0	0	0	ENFP	0	1	1	0	2	1
INFP	0	0	1	1	1	1	ISTP	0	0	1	0	0	1

Kopumā 35% respondentu priekšroku ir devuši atbildei, ka saistošāks šķiet interesantāks, patstāvīgs radošais darbs, ar iespējamu personiskās unikalitātes atzišanu, 29% - darbs, kas nodrošinātu stabilu un pietiekošu materiālo pārticību; 22% – darba piedāvājums ar augstāku amatu un lielāku atalgojumu un 14% - darbs, kurā valda drošība un ir mierīgs darba ritms. Tā kā respondenti ir docētāji, tad šāds atbilžu sadalījums šķiet likumsakarīgs.

Analizējot šī pētījuma rezultātus atbilstoši sociālo tehnoloģiju nostādnēm par motīvu grupām un apkopojot introvertās un ekstravertās ievirzes sensoro un intuitīvo funkcionālo tipu atbildes, var secināt, ka docētāju atbilžu procentuālais sadalījums par pievilcīgāko darba piedāvājumu norāda uz atbilstību citu pētnieku rezultātiem (MBTI Manual, 1998; Гуленко, 2005). No 4 iespējamām atbildēm 47 % no sensorajiem ekstravertiem norāda, ka par darba nomaiņu varētu likt domāt darba piedāvājums ar augstāku amatu un lielāku atalgojumu (skat.1.att.).



1.att. Ekstraverti sensoro (ES), ekstraverti intuitīvo (EN), introverti sensoro (IS) un introverti intuitīvo (IN) docētāju darba pievilcības faktori

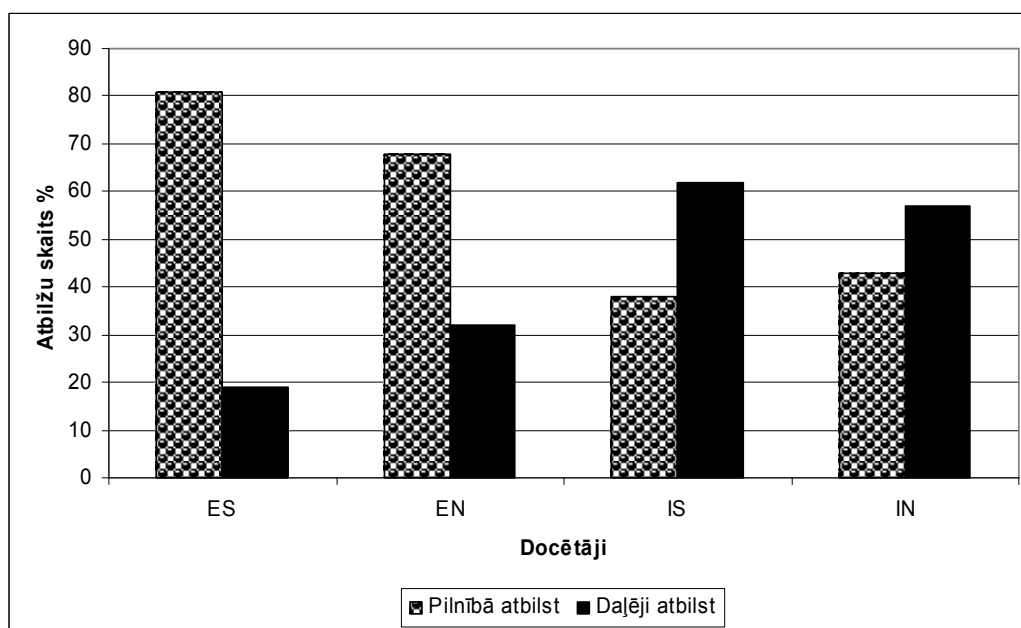
Kā norādīts literatūrā (MBTI Manual, 1998; Гуленко, 2005), sensorie ekstraverti (ES) lieliski realizē sevi tur, kur ir praktiski jādarbojas un arvien paplašinās kontaktu loks. Viņus stimulē statuss, prestižs stāvoklis sabiedrībā, veiksmīga virzīšanās pa dienesta kāpnēm, vara un ietekme, uzmanība un cieņa. Tie ir tādi sociotipi kā ESFJ, ESFP, ESTJ un ESTP. Darba grupās šie sociotipi visvairāk pievērš sev uzmanību. Šo tipu darbinieki dod priekšroku uzdevumiem, kas maksimāli pietuvināti sociālajai praksei un kuru risināšanas laikā tie justu turpmākās karjeras iespējamību.

57 % no intuitīvajiem ekstravertiem (EN) norāda, ka viņus saistītu interesantāks, patstāvīgs radošais darbs, ar iespējamu personīgās unikalitātes atzišanu. Atbilstoši citu valstu pētījumiem (MBTI Manual, 1998; Гуленко, 2005), intuitīvie ekstraverti pašaktualizējas netradicionālās vai pastāvīgi mainīgās darbības sfērās, kur nemitīgi paplašinās kontaktu loks. Šo tipu cilvēkus stimulē unikalitāte: neparastums, uzdevumu perspektivitāte, tā intelektuālā sarežģītība, piedāvāto projektu realizēšanas tālejošās un plašās sekas. Konkrētie tipi: ENTP, ENFJ, ENTJ un ENFP. Šī tipa cilvēki

rada vadītājam nemieru ar nestandarta domāšanu, vēlmi izrauties no pierastā rāmjiem. Tie ir intelektuālie līderi, jaunatklājēji, jaunu zinātņu pamatlicēji, idejiskie iedvesmotāji. Vadītājam, strādājot ar šo tipu cilvēkiem, ir svarīgi nenonivelēt tos, nelikt šķēršļus to meklējumiem, dot iespēju izklāstīt savas teorijas un diskutēt ar vadītāju.

54% sensoro introvertu (IS) vispievilcīgākais šķiet darbs, kas nodrošinātu stabilu un pietiekošu materiālo pārticību. Kā izpētīts (MBTI Manual, 1998; Гуленко, 2005), sensori introvertie ir cilvēki, kas pašaktualizējas un realizē sevi praktiska rakstura darbos ar pastāvīgu kontaktu loku. Tos stimulē labklājība: labs materiālais nodrošinājums, pārliecinātība par rītdienu, kārtība, komfortabli dzīves un darba apstākļi. Tie ir darba grupas pamats – ja tiem ir labi, tad viss attīstīsies stabili, bez ekstrēmām situācijām. Tie ir sekojošie tipi: ISFJ, ISTP, ISFP, ISTJ. Skaidrojot šo tipu darbiniekiem jaunus uzdevumus, vadītājam jāvelta īpaša uzmanība darba lietišķajiem aspektiem, profesionālismam un kvalitātei, jāpievērš uzmanība detaļām un sīkumiem.

43% intuitīvi introverti (IN) izvēlētos darbu, kurā valda drošība un mierīgs darba ritms. Intuitīvi introvertie (MBTI Manual, 1998; Гуленко, 2005) pašaktualizējas netradicionālās vai pastāvīgi mainīgās darbības sfērās ar nemainīgu, pastāvīgu kontaktu loku. Šo tipu cilvēkiem ir svarīgs pašvērtības faktors – ja tiek piedāvāta iespēja nodarboties ar to, kas ir nozīmīgs personīgi viņiem un veikt to viņiem pierastā tempā. Viņu galvās dzimst vispamatīgākās idejas un daudz pūļu tiek veltīts šo ideju izauklēšanai. Prestižs, vara, labklājība un intelektuālā līdera postenis šo tipu cilvēkus maz vilina. Tie ir INTP, INFJ, INTJ un INFP.



2. att. Ekstraverti sensoro (ES), ekstraverti intuitīvo (EN), introverti sensoro (IS) un introverti intuitīvo (IN) docētāju pašvērtējums par darba atbilstību spējām un interesēm

Analizējot pētījuma rezultātus par docētāju darba atbilstību spējām un interesēm atbilstoši motīvu iepriekšminētajām grupām (skat. 2.att.), visvairāk – 81% darbu par pilnībā atbilstošu spējām un interesēm novērtē ekstraverti sensorie tipi. Bet tikai 38% introverti sensoro tipu ir novērtējuši darbu kā pilnīgi atbilstošu spējām un interesēm. Salīdzinot introverti un ekstraverti intuitīvo docētāju atbilžu rezultātus, vērojama līdzīga aina – ekstravertās ievirzes tipi ir snieguši pozitīvāku vērtējumu. Izrādās, ka situācija ir tradicionāla. Khuns (Khun, 1981), pētot saikni starp tipu un apmierinātību ar darbu, secināja, ka ekstravertie darbinieki ir vairāk apmierināti nekā introvertie. Izskaidrojumu dod iedziļināšanās sociotipu tipu raksturojumos. Introvertajiem darba vidē tīk mierīgs darba ritms, sava telpa. Viņi iedziļinās detaļās, ir apmierināti ar darbu vienatnē. Šo tipu cilvēkiem pagrūti atcerēties cilvēku vārdus un sejas. Viņiem var būt komunikācijas problēmas un mijiedarbība ar citiem atņem daudz enerģijas. Introvertajiem ir raksturīgi meklēt iespēju komunicēt nelielās grupās vai viens pret vienu, viņi kautrējas izteikties sapulcēs (MBTI Manual, 1998; Hirsh & Kummerow, 2000). Sapulcēs parasti runā tikai ekstravertie, kas, salīdzinot ar introvertajiem, šķiet kompetentāki, jo viņi biežāk skaļi pauž savu viedokli, bet introvertie līdz ar to kļūst neapmierināti, jo viņu viedoklis netiek skaļi pausts. Ja uzņēmumā nenotiek ikgadējās pārrunas formālās novērtēšanas ietvaros, tad vadītājam bieži vien paliek nezināms, kāpēc introvertais darbinieks varētu būt neapmierināts. Ekstravertajiem tipiem patīk dažādība, viņi rīkojas operatīvi. Parasti labi māk komunicēt ar cilvēkiem, atklāti paužot savu viedokli. Viņiem patīk, ja apkārt ir cilvēki (MBTI Manual, 1998).

Atbilstoši sociālo tehnoloģiju ieteikumiem, vadītājiem ir jāiedziļinās tajās jomās, kas nav viņu pašu dabiskā uzvedība, lai sniegtu cilvēkiem to, ko tie no viņiem gaida (Parker, 44). Tā kā pētījumi liecina, ka skolās visu līmeņu vadītāju vidū vairāk ir NT un NF (MBTI Manual, 1998), tad tas var norādīt arī uz to, ka vadītājiem var būt svešas introverti sensoro vajadzības. Arī šajā pētījumā no 12 Biznesa augstskolas Turība dažādu līmeņu vadītājiem 50% ir NF sociotipu pārstāvju, bet 83% - ekstraverto vadītāju. Svarīga ir pašu vadītāju apmācība, lai attīstītu savu vadītāja potenciālu. Harvarda Biznesa skolas profesors J. L. Bowers (Bower), Dž. Kolins (Collins) un citi pētnieki, ir atklājuši, ka uzņēmumu sniegums ir ievērojami labāks, ja vadošajiem amatiem tiek laikus sagatavoti uzņēmumā strādājošie darbinieki, ja katram jaunam vadītājam ir savs mentors, kas palīdz mācīties no ikvienas situācijas, nodrošina nepieciešamos resursus un aizsargā no tiem, kas uzskata, ka netradicionāli domājošos ir jāierobežo (Bower, 2007).

Kā liecina pētījumi, jo vairāk vadītāji zina un izprot savu paša personību, jo vieglāk viņiem ir novērtēt savu ietekmi uz citiem (Walck, 160). McKenna un Martins (McKenna & Martin, 1992), veicot pētījumu ar 2000 dalībniekiem, secināja, ka 97% no iesaistītajiem pēc MBTI pamatkursa

apguves labāk saprot savus kolēģus un komandu, akceptē un labāk izprot katra priekšrocības, saskata iespējamību pilnveidot darba attiecības. Taču, kā rāda pētījumi, administratori un vadītāji/supervizori ir vairāk apmierināti ar darbu nekā pārējie docētāji, un tas nozīmē, ka viņi var kļūt bezrūpīgi un vienaldzīgi par citu problēmām (Hass, 2002).

Secinājumi

1. Pētījuma rezultāti norāda uz ekstraverti sensoro, ekstraverti intuitīvo, introverti sensoro un introverti intuitīvo docētāju atšķirīgajiem darba pievilcības faktoriem. Ekstraverti sensorajiem domāt par darba nomaiņu varētu likt darba piedāvājums ar augstāku amatu un lielāku atalgojumu. Ekstraverti intuitīvos vairāk motivē interesants, patstāvīgs radošais darbs, kurā tiktu novērtēta viņu personīgā unikalitāte. Introverti sensoros vairāk vilina darbs, kas nodrošina stabilu un pietiekošu materiālo pārticību. Introverti intuitīvajiem ir svarīga drošības sajūta un mierīgs darba ritms. Iespēju robežās ieteicams to ņemt vērā, organizējot izglītības iestādes darbu.
2. Pētījums atklāja tradicionālo situāciju, ka ekstravertie docētāji ir vairāk apmierināti ar esošo situāciju nekā introvertie. Tā kā vadītāji bieži vien ir ekstravertās ievirzes, kā tas tika noskaidrots arī šī pētījuma ietvaros, vadītājiem vairāk būtu jāiedziļinās savu padoto vajadzībās, lai labāk izprastu to, kas atšķiras no viņu pašu dabiskās pieejas. Ja jau Latvijā sociālo tehnoloģiju atklājumi palīdz pētīt starptipu attiecības tirdzniecības uzņēmumā, veikt neformālās hierarhijas un mazo grupu mikroklimata analīzi tūrisma uzņēmumos, izstrādāt darbinieka prasību profilu atbilstoši amata aprakstam finanšu iestādē (Zilite, 2007), tad šī teorija noteikti var palīdzēt pilnveidot mijattiecību kvalitāti arī izglītības iestādē. Tāpēc dažādu līmeņu vadītājiem būtu ieteicams apgūt sociālo tehnoloģiju (socionikas un MBTI) pamatkursu un izmantot to atklājumus savā darbā.
3. Tā kā augstskolas darbu bez akadēmiskā personāla nodrošina arī vispārējais personāls, tad turpmākajos pētījumos būtu lietderīgi iekļaut arī šo personāla daļu.

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**LLU SOCIĀLO ZINĀTŅU FAKULTĀTES MAĢISTRA STUDENTU
NOVĒRTĒJUMS PROFESIONĀLAJAI STUDIJU PROGRAMMAI
„SABIEDRĪBAS PĀRVALDE”**

**EVALUATION OF PROFESSIONAL STUDIES PROGRAMME „PUBLIC
ADMINISTRATION” BY MASTERS’ STUDENTS OF FACULTY OF
SOCIAL SCIENCES OF LLU**

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Abstract

Masters’ studies programme in the Latvia University of Agriculture „Public Administration” is elaborated on the basis of corresponding rules of the Cabinet and the state Standard of Second Level Professional Higher Education. Students evaluated the course of the programme and assumed that the programme supplies qualitative education and promotes successful integration into the labour market.

Key words: professional education, studies programme, employers, aims, tasks.

Aim of the research:

- to find out view of the 2nd year Master students on studies programme „Public Administration”
- to collect suggestions for improvement of the studies programme.

Masters’ studies programme „Public Administration” was developed by the Sociology Department of Faculty of Social Sciences (SZF) of Latvia University of Agriculture (LLU). It gives opportunity to take Professional Master’s in public administration and qualification of public administrator in 2 years (4 semesters) full time studies.

Professional higher education Masters studies programme „Public Administration” corresponds to the State Standard of Professional Higher Education, given in the rules Nr. 481 „Rules on the State Standard of Second Level Professional Higher Education” of November 20, 2001, by the Cabinet of LR. They are issued in accordance with clause 19 of versus 14 of Law on Education and rules Nr. 348 „Amendments in rules Nr. 481 „Rules on the State Standard of Second Level Professional Higher Education” of November 20, 2001”, by the Cabinet, on May 29, 2007.

Organization of LLU SZF Professional study programme „Public Administration” is regulated by the following norms:

1. rules Nr. 481 „Rules on the State Standard of Second Level of Professional Higher Education” of November 20, 2001, by the Cabinet of LR;

2. documents of Latvia University of Agriculture:

- Constitution, adopted by Convent of LLU on October 21, 1991, and approved by decree of Supreme Council of Latvia Republic on March 10, 1992;
- Constitution, prepared according to Law on Universities which was adopted at Saeima on November 2, 1995, and approved by Convent of LLU on February 16, 1996;
- Amendments of Constitution, approved by Convent of LLU on June 1, 2001, and on August 30, 2006;
- Amendments of LLU Constitution, adopted as law on August 30, 2006, are approved at Saeima on May 10, 2007, but the law with the mentioned amendments has come into force on May 25, 2007;
- decree Nr. 6-78 "Regulation on Masters Degree at Latvia University of Agriculture", Jelgava, February, 13, 2008

The aim of the Masters' studies programme is to prepare highly qualified, theoretically and practically educated, competent, and competitive specialists of social administration who would be able to form and evaluate public policies, as well as to provide the necessary knowledge and skills for future specialists of public administration which are going to take part in work organization of the state government and municipalities in co- operation with professionals of different institutions.

To achieve the aim, the tasks of the programme are as follows:

1. to secure acquirement of theoretical basis of public administration;
2. to provide acquirement of legal basis of public administration;
3. to introduce with structure of Latvia public administration, division of responsibility and functions, methodology of planning, implementation and analyses of strategy, as well as main procedures;
4. to introduce with foreign experience and examples of successful practice in the sphere of public administration and management;
5. to promote understanding of social processes in connection with work of the state government and municipalities and priorities of strategy planning;
6. to develop practical skills for work in governmental institutions.

The Professional Masters' study programme "Public Administration" has orientation to prepare students for work at:

1. state institutions of LR;

2. municipalities and their subordinated institutions;
3. non – governmental organizations;
4. European Union institutions;
5. private sector organizations.

In collaboration with employees of public administration institutions (Stationary office, Ministry of Agriculture, national administration school etc.), the faculty has all the preconditions to deliver necessary knowledge and skills for the future public administration specialists who are going to take part in work organization of the state administration and municipalities.

In the Masters' programme, special attention is paid to development of students' research skills, therefore, research work elaboration seminars, research methods seminars, seminars on argumentation and presentation art, as well as deepened acquisition of principles of public speech are envisaged within the special course of applied research methods and statistics, as well as in the process of Masters' works elaboration. The programme is professionally oriented; therefore great attention is paid to training. Master's students have opportunity to particularize practically in scientific and practical analyses of public administration problems under supervision of highly qualified readers.

The studies programme envisages acquisition of theoretical knowledge (lectures, independent work), development of practical skills (seminars, training), pedagogical training (leading of work groups) and performance of research work. It secures:

- opportunity to take professional Master's academic degree;
- opportunity to acquire wide range of compulsory, political and social knowledge;
- acquisition of skills to work with scientific literature and pose scientific issues;
- acquisition of skills to analyse solution ways and to make conclusions;
- acquisition of skills for organization of independent research and studies work;
- acquisition of basic skills for scientific work, execution of state official and managing specialist duties in the state institutions and doctoral studies.

The obligatory part of the programme includes also 10 weeks training at the work place.

In the course of the studies programme realization, references are received from employers and students.

References on the studies programme were submitted by Stationary office, National administration school and the Jelgava Region Council as employers. Contents of the studies programme was elaborated directly together with Stationary office which continuously consulted,

made suggestions on the elaborated professional standard. Generally, the studies programme was evaluated positively. Here are the main statements from reviews on the studies programme:

- the studies programme is essential, it is to be positively evaluated and supported because present employees have insufficient knowledge on work specifics of national administration and municipalities, therefore time and means have to be consumed for professional preparation of employers;
- studies courses of the studies programme on spheres of main official and administrator;
- the studies programme is elaborated basing on professional standard which corresponds to demands of modern labour market in this specialty;
- acquiring the studies programme, students can get diverse knowledge and understanding in professional sphere.

The students stressed that the essential elements of the studies programme “Public Administration” enabled them to:

- broaden their horizons;
- made it easier for them to understand work issues of national level;
- to be more useful at work;
- to become diverse;
- to stress actualities of public administration.

Summarizing students’ answers on different questions of the questionnaire, the following answers were obtained:

1. Answers to the question: “**What knowledge and skills were the most useful in your work?**”:

- studies courses allowed us to solve problems successfully the acquired solution forms in practical work: management, psychology and theories of public administration were the most useful;
- the acquired knowledge helps to evaluate situations in work more objectively and to understand our role;
- the acquired knowledge helps to understand not only everyday work processes but gives real career opportunities.

2. Following answers on impact on professional work were given to the question “**How did the Master’s studies promote personal development?**” Master’s students assume what the studies have given:

- a lot of new information;
- widened horizons;

- better understanding of work issues;
- better confidence in oneself;
- modern and appropriate knowledge;
- higher self – confidence;
- more confidence because of better understanding of work;
- new contacts;
- more listening to fellow workers to understand their needs.

3. Answering to the question “**Would you recommend to the others to study in the programme “Public Administration”?**”, the students have given sound answers “Definitely, yes” with exception of one answer “Possibly”.

Evaluating the contents of the Master’s students questionnaires, we have to note that realization course and delivered knowledge of the studies programme “Public Administration” generally correspond to wishes and expectations of Master’s students. Only Financial management should be added to the block of economical subjects.

Conclusions

1. Information by questionnaires and references shows that the programme “Public Administration” secures the necessary knowledge.
2. The taken education helps to integrate in labour market successfully, especially in the field of public administration.
3. It is necessary to broaden block of economical subjects with the Financial Management course for further development of the programme.

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AUSTRIA PROCUREMENT LAW AND THE PRINCIPLES OF THE BEST VALUE AND PERFORMANCE IN THE FIELD OF PUBLIC PROCUREMENT AND PUBLIC PRIVATE PARTNERSHIPS

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Abstract

The duty of best value is implemented in practice through Best Value Performance plans which authorities must prepare for each financial year. The performance of best value authorities is judged against their own performance in previous years and against the targets that they have set for improvement. Public Authorities must also conduct periodic Comprehensive Best Value reviews (analyses) that compare their service provisions with that of other local authorities and relevant businesses and with their own previous performance. At interval determined by the local authority – an original plan for five-yearly reviews having been dropped. This ideal status is not respected in many Public Contracting Authorities in the Czech Republic and in other countries. Mentioned and the criterion for best value procedure and performance are analysed in this paper in relation to Austria Procurement Law.

Key words: Public contracts, PPP projects, Public Private Partnerships, principle of best value, principle of best performance, Austria Procurement Law

Introduction

Austria plays a significant role in EC public procurement law. In fact, since its accession to the European Community, a disproportionately large number of decisions by the European Court of Justice ("*ECJ*") regarding public procurement have involved Austrian parties: These decisions have contributed significantly to the interpretation, clarification and development of the EC procurement regime.⁸⁴ Furthermore, there is a continuing revolution in Austrian public procurement law caused on the one hand by the EC requirements, particularly in the form of Public Procurement Directives⁸⁵ ("*Directives*") and ECJ case law and, on the other hand, by the hundreds of decisions the Austrian special public procurement offices render every year.⁸⁶ In this context, this article provides a brief

⁸⁴ Inter alia, ECJ case C-81/98, *Alcatel Austria*, clarifying that member states are under an obligation to provide for review procedures in respect of decisions awarding contracts; ECJ case C-324/98, *Teleaustria*, in which the ECJ ruled that certain types of contracts not covered by the Directives are to be advertised even if this is not required by the Directives in order to enable the services market to be opened up to competition and allow for the impartiality of the procurement process to be reviewed.

⁸⁵ Council directive 2004/17, co-ordinating the procurement procedures of entities operating in the water, energy, transportation and postal sectors ("*Utilities Directive*"), [2004] O.J. L134/1, and Council directive 2004/18, co-ordinating the procurement procedures for the award of public works contracts, public supply contracts and public service contracts ("*Public Sector Directive*"), [2004] O.J. L134/14.

⁸⁶ According to the activity report 2007 of the Federal Public Procurement Office ("*BVA*"), 106 applications for review and 92 applications for preliminary injunction were filed in 2007 (available at www.bva.gv.at); the BVA is a court for the purposes of Art. 234 ECT. It ensures that review procedures are at least available to any person having or having had an interest in obtaining a particular public contract and who has been or risks being harmed by an alleged infringement. However, it is important to note that the BVA is only competent for disputes in relation to contracting authorities on the federal level. On the regional level, particular tribunals for each of the nine Austrian provinces exist. The number of applications regarding the nine Public Procurement Offices amounts to approximately the same number as those assigned to the BVA.

overview of the most important issues regarding Austrian public procurement law at the moment, also demonstrating how lessons learned could, eventually, be applied to other EC member states.

CONTINUING revolution of the Austrian Federal Public Procurement act

The Austrian Federal Public Procurement Act (*Bundesvergabegesetz* – "*PPA*") was originally introduced in 1994 in conjunction with Austria's accession to the European Economic Area. Ever since then, the Austrian legislature has decided on various substantial revisions to the PPA, whereas, in particular, the PPA 2002 introduced a new area in Austrian public procurement law, establishing a uniform procurement regime for the federal state, the provinces and the municipalities, not only for purchases above certain thresholds but also for those below such thresholds. However, the EC Procurement Directives 2004 (the so-called "*legislative package*") required or rendered further adaptation possible, for instance, the introduction of new procurement methods, like the comparative dialogue or the dynamic purchasing system, which were transposed into Austrian law by the PPA 2006. Recently, on 1 January 2008, the so-called "Amendment 2007"⁸⁷ of the PPA 2006 entered into force and, in particular, due to reasons related to the new EC Remedy Directive⁸⁸, which must be transposed into national law by 20 December 2009, the "Amendment 2008" of the PPA 2006 is already pending.

Procurement below EC thresholds

General

The Directives only apply to contracts above EC thresholds.⁸⁹ In this spirit, the Austrian legislature has implemented various simplified methods for procurements below the EC threshold in order to save transaction costs and to provide contracting entities with more flexibility. However, although contracts below the EC threshold are not covered by the Directives, contracting authorities must, in principle, according to settled ECJ case law, also procure contracts below EC thresholds in line with the fundamental EC Treaty principles. Specifically, these principles include non-discrimination, equal treatment, transparency and proportionality.⁹⁰

In this regard, in a recent interpretative communication, the EC commission clarified this issue and stipulated that the EC treaty and its fundamental principles are only applicable if they have any relevance to the internal market, meaning that contract awards must have "a sufficient

⁸⁷ Bundesgesetz über die Vergabe von Aufträgen ("Bundesvergabegesetz 2006 idF 2007 – PPA 2006), Federal Legal Gazette (BGBl) 17/2006.

⁸⁸ Council directive 2007/66 with regard to improving the effectiveness of review procedures concerning the award of public contracts ("Remedy Directive"), [2007] O.J. L354/31.

⁸⁹ See Commission regulation 1422/2007 in respect of its application thresholds for the procedures for awarding contracts [2007] O.J. L317/34.

⁹⁰ See, for instance, ECJ case C-57/01, *Makedoniko Metro*; ECJ case C-231/03 *Coname*.

connection with the functioning of the Internal Market."⁹¹ Also, it stated that a contracting authority must decide on a case-by-case basis whether a contract is relevant to the internal market, and, in the case of an affirmation, such contract has to be awarded in compliance with the fundamental principles derived from EC law. Under "special circumstances, such as a very modest economic interest at stake", there would be no interest in companies on the part of other EC member states to participate in a tender and therefore "the effects on the fundamental freedoms are [...] to be regarded as too uncertain and indirect" in order to require the application of the fundamental principles derived from primary EC law.

Award procedures

The Austrian legislature has suggested the possibility of using a negotiated procedure with prior (nationwide) publication for all service and supply contracts with estimated values below the EC threshold, and for works contracts up to €350,000.⁹² In this regard, contracts may also be awarded by framework agreements, inasmuch as these agreements were concluded after the aforementioned negotiation procedure.⁹³

The use of the restrictive procedure without prior publication is permitted only if the contracting authority is aware of a sufficient number of suitable undertakings in order to ensure free and fair competition, and if the estimated value of the works contracts does not reach €120,000 (€80,000 in the case of contracts for supplies and services).⁹⁴

Below EC thresholds, a contract may be awarded by means of a negotiated procedure without prior publication if the estimated contract value does not amount to €80,000 (€60,000 in the case of service and supply contracts).⁹⁵ This award procedure also may be used in the case of a bargain opportunity available for a very short time period only.⁹⁶ In addition, the negotiated procedure without prior publication is permitted in cases in which no suitable tenders have been submitted in the course of a restricted procedure without prior publication and the original conditions of the tender have not been altered substantially.⁹⁷

⁹¹ Commission, "Interpretative communication on the Community law applicable to contract awards not or not fully subject to the provisions of the Public Procurement Directives", O.J. C 179/2.

⁹² See Section 38 (1) of the PPA 2006.

⁹³ See Section 40 of the PPA 2006.

⁹⁴ See Section 37 of the PPA 2006.

⁹⁵ See Section 38(2)(2) f PPA 2006.

⁹⁶ A bargain opportunity is defined as the opportunity to make a purchase considerably below usual market prices; see Article 38(2)(3) of the PPA 2006.

⁹⁷ See Section 38(2)(4) f the PPA 2006..

In the course of legislative deliberation, a flexible procedure for awarding intellectual services was diligently sought.⁹⁸ Ultimately, the legislature decided to adapt a section of the PPA 2002 recognising the particularities of these kinds of services.⁹⁹ Hence, contracting authorities may use the negotiated procedure without prior publication involving only one undertaking, to the extent that the carrying out of a commercial competition¹⁰⁰ cannot be justified economically by the costs involved therein, and the estimated contract value does not exceed 50 per cent of the relevant EC threshold. In the view of the author, this special award method recognises the needs of those involved in a procurement procedure, especially by obtaining vital market input in order to achieve best value for money, and is therefore particularly welcomed.¹⁰¹ However, this procuring method seems to contradict relevant jurisprudence of the ECJ since the principle of transparency requires "a degree of advertising sufficient to enable the market to be opened up to competition"¹⁰² when, in fact, in this case no appropriate information is disseminated prior to the awarding of the contract.¹⁰³ Therefore, the contracting authorities must assess the relevance to the internal market in light of the individual circumstances of each case.

Another way to award contracts under the PPA is the so-called direct award.¹⁰⁴ In this process, goods, services or works may be purchased directly from undertakings without a formal procedure. This type of procedure is available for contracts with an estimated value of €40,000 or less. For these awards, the capability of undertakings involved has to be confirmed, at the latest, at the moment the contract is concluded.¹⁰⁵ Possible price inquiries are to be documented adequately. In addition, some EC co-financed projects may be directly awarded.

Nullity of Direct awards

A further hot topic in Austrian (and EC) public procurement law is the legal consequence of a contract being awarded to an economic operator without any transparency or prior competitive tender (so-called *de facto* award or direct award). In this regard, on its face, the PPA 2006 contains

⁹⁸ These are, for instance, services provided by architects and engineers, or the advertising industry.

⁹⁹ See Section 38(3) f the PPA 2006.

¹⁰⁰ The meaning of this term might be interpreted in the sense of cost-effectiveness.

¹⁰¹ Arrowsmith, "The Problem of Discussions with Tenderers Under the EC Procurement Directives: the Current Law and the Case for Reform" (1998) 7 P.P.L.R. 75; Steinecke, "Public Procurement and the Negotiated Procedure – a Lesson to Learn from US Law" (2001) 22 E.C.R.Rev. 331.

¹⁰² ECJ case C-324/98 *Teleaustria*.

¹⁰³ In addition, the Austrian legislature justifies the implementation of this award procedure on grounds of the ECJ ruling in *Parking Brixen*, ECJ C-458/03, from which it deduces the legitimacy of such a procedure if limited to awards under a certain fraction of the EC threshold; in this case, 50% was considered to be appropriate. See Explanatory Notes to Article 38(3) of the PPA 2006.

¹⁰⁴ See Section 41 of the PPA 2006.

¹⁰⁵ See Section 41(2)(2) of the PPA 2006.

an outstanding innovation. Based on the ECJ case *Stadt Halle*¹⁰⁶, there is the (temporary) possibility to set aside concluded contracts *ex nunc* subsequent to a decision by a reviewing body. This possibility is, however, limited in two ways: first, the contract has to be awarded directly to a single undertaking, without another undertaking participating and, secondly, the award must be in manifest breach of the PPA.

Furthermore, according to the European Commission's view, an illegal direct award of contracts is "the most serious infringement of EU procurement law". Therefore, the new Remedy Directive explicitly regulating this issue must be transposed into national law by 20 December 2009. Pursuant to the Remedy Directive, national review bodies will be empowered to render such contracts "ineffective" after their conclusion. Only in cases involving overriding reasons relating to a general interest will such contracts remain in force, if national review bodies confirm their validity. However, if a national review body decides that these contracts are to remain in force, it must alternatively apply penalties, whereas these alternative penalties must be effective, proportionate and dissuasive. Also, such penalties may entail the shortening of the duration of the contract or the imposition of fines on the contracting authority. The time limit for applying for the ineffectiveness of a public contract is fixed at 30 calendar days after publication of the contract award notice. In (the very likely) event that no such notice has been published at all, the deadline for filing the application for ineffectiveness of a public contract is six months after the conclusion of such contract.

VERIFICATION of Suitability to pursue A professional activity

Starting with the PPA 2002, the Austrian legislature regulated the recognition or equivalence of the suitability to pursue a professional activity. Any economic operator wishing to take part in a public procurement procedure was therefore requested to (i) prove its enrolment in one of the professional or trade registers in its state of residence and, (ii) to have such proof of suitability recognised or made equivalent by the competent Austrian authority. In this regard, the Austrian public procurement review bodies, as well as the Austrian Superior Administrative Court, rendered a variety of decisions regarding the moment at which a company from one of the EC member states has to apply for such recognition or equivalence and at what moment such recognition or equivalence must be confirmed by the competent authority. According to settled case law, an economic operator must – depending on the tender procedure – principally apply for the recognition or equivalence of its suitability to pursue a professional activity prior to the deadline for submitting the bid; the proof that it actually did so also may be provided after the deadline for submitting the

¹⁰⁶ ECJ case C-26/03 *Stadt Halle*.

bid. What is crucial is the existence of the proof at the moment the contract is awarded. If no such proof can be provided, the contracting authority must reject the bid.

The recognition of professional qualifications has been newly-arranged by EC Directive 2005/36, which was to be transposed into national law by 20 October 2007.¹⁰⁷ In Austria, these EC requirements have partly been implemented by an amendment of the trade regulations and by an act on architects and consulting engineers. However, the total implementation of such requirements has yet to be performed, meaning that there is currently a (non-transparent) mix of national law and directly applicable EC law to deal with. Pursuant to EC Directive 2005/36, a service provider moving to Austria (the host member state) may pursue its profession on a temporary and occasional basis. The recognition or equivalence, as to the suitability to pursue such professional activity, is no longer required. In fact, regarding architects and consulting engineers, service providers from EC member states (and Switzerland) are entitled to provide temporary and occasional service – the provider is only obliged to provide the contracting authority with particular information prior to the fulfilment of such service.¹⁰⁸ As regards service providers that fall under the trade regulation regime, such service provider must, in principle, notify the Federal Ministry of Economics and Labour of the Republic of Austria prior to the first time such service is provided, attaching certain proof. The Ministry therefore issues a document certifying that the company has fulfilled the requirements as specified in EC Directive 2005/36. A list of economic operators entitled to fulfil cross-border services may be viewed on the Ministry's webpage.

Given that the above-mentioned EC requirements have not been included in the "Amendment 2007" of the PPA, it is questionable whether a contracting authority must verify the economic operators from EC member states' suitability to pursue a professional activity or whether such authority only must do so if it doubts the operators' suitability. Furthermore, the problem exists that neither the written confirmation of the Ministry nor the possibility of retrieving the information from the Ministry's webpage guarantees that a foreign company is, in fact, entitled to fulfil a contract in Austria. Also, the consequences of a falsely issued confirmation by the Ministry are yet not clear. Therefore, a clarifying attempt at reaching a solution in the course of the "Amendment 2008" of the PPA 2006 is sought, and is already in process.

¹⁰⁷ Council directive 2005/36 on the recognition of professional qualifications, [2005], O.J. L255/22.

¹⁰⁸ For instance, if the service provider is registered in a commercial register or similar public register, the register in which such provider is registered and its registration number; if the activity is subject to authorisation in the member state of establishment, the name and address of the competent supervisory authority; its VAT identification number.

Preclusive effect

The rationale behind the system of a contestable decision versus a non-contestable decision (of the contracting authority) is to structure the procurement procedure in such a way as to achieve the carrying out of an effective remedy procedure. As a result of this system, the procurement process is divided into different phases, whereas every phase ends with a contestable decision. In the event that such decision is not challenged or not challenged successfully, it is deemed effective and thus becomes final and absolute.¹⁰⁹ Therefore, economic operators only have the possibility of challenging a decision by the contracting authority once; this applies, for instance, to the tender documents themselves. In case a decision by the contracting authority is no longer challengeable (and thus final and absolute), the reviewing bodies also are not entitled to challenge illegalities *ex officio*. Otherwise, the entire concept behind the observance of deadlines with regard to review procedures would be meaningless.

According to the settled case law of the various procurement offices, principally any defect in tender documents that was not (successfully) challenged has a preclusive effect.¹¹⁰ In practice, however, there is considerable debate as to whether any divergence from the PPA or even an illegality is truly capable of being precluded. Recent jurisprudence indicates that a "break-through" with regard to this preclusive effect can only be considered in cases in which an evaluation of the economically most advantageous tender (on the basis of the tender documents) is not possible at all. This is the case, for instance, if award criteria are not weighted at all or not adequately specified.¹¹¹ It is my view that breaches of the very fundamental principles of the EC-Treaty also may not become final and absolute. For instance, a provision in a tender document stipulating that only economic operators from a particular EC member state are entitled to submit a bid constitutes an apparent violation of the basic prohibition against discrimination on grounds of nationality (Art. 12 of the ECT); it is argued that such serious infringement may not have a preclusive effect and may therefore be challenged even after the deadline for challenging the tender documents.

Remedy System

Power to File a Complaint

According to Section 323 of the PPA 2006, only a person having or having had an interest in obtaining a particular public supply contract and who has been or risks being harmed by an alleged infringement is entitled to apply for a review procedure. Consequently, only companies that could

¹⁰⁹ With regard to the legitimacy of contestable decisions and their preclusive effect, see ECJ case C-470/99 *Universale Bau* and ECJ case C-327/00 *Santex*.

¹¹⁰ See for instance BVA 5. 8. 2005, 4N-70/05-26. and BVA 10. 8. 2007, 17F-5/05-23.

¹¹¹ UVS Bgld 28. 12. 2006, K VNP/12/2006.005/016.

suffer damages may initiate a review procedure. In this regard and according to the settled case law of the Austrian Superior Administrative Court (*Verwaltungsgerichtshof*), the power to file a complaint must be denied if a request for participation/ bid is out of the question to be selected. In this case, no damages could be suffered and therefore the complaint must be rejected.¹¹² In this regard, the Court recently stated that "*a bidder not being able to submit a bid which comes into consideration for a contract award as regards a duly accomplished tender dossier, is not meriting protection and therefore may not claim that other or all bidders had to be excluded.*"

This (very strict) approach is not without controversy. In particular, in light of the high degree of complexity of tenders, it is often virtually impossible for companies to submit a "perfect" request for participation or bids that are in absolute compliance with the requirements. However, even minor mistakes, that is slight changes or variances from the tender documents, can result in a denial of the power to lodge a complaint and, consequently, in the mandatory rejection of such complaint. In particular, this is noteworthy since a request for a remedy by a company that submitted an inaccurate request for remedy also must be rejected if all requests for participation/ bids are inaccurate. Hence, also in the case of a mandatory cancellation (*ex lege* cancellation), a request for remedy must be rejected and therefore giving a contracting authority a considerably (arbitrary) degree of discretion. This could namely result in the contracting authority selecting, from the spectrum of non-complying bids, one bid (a company) that it prefers, even for non-objective reasons, whereas aggrieved bidders would not have the possibility of successfully challenging the contracting authority's decision (their requests for remedy would be rejected since they submitted erroneous bids themselves and therefore could not suffer any harm). A violation of the entire concept behind EC public procurement law – to award a contract according to the fundamental principles, in particular the principles of transparency and non-discrimination to the most advantageous bidder – would be the consequence.

This option is highly disputable, particularly in light of an effective remedy system. In fact, it is the Remedy Directive's purpose "*to strengthen the existing mechanisms, both at the national and Community level, to ensure the effective application of Community directives relating to public procurement, in particular at a stage when infringements can still be remedied.*" To that effect, member states are required "*to guarantee that unlawful decisions of contracting authorities can be subjected to effective review.*"¹¹³ In this regard, the ECJ has already held on various occasions that

¹¹² VwGH 28.3.2007, 2005/04/0200.

¹¹³ ECJ case C-230/2002 *Grossman Air*; see also ECJ case C-81/98 *Alcatel*; case C-470/99 *Universale-Bau* and Case C-410/01 *Fritsch, Chiari & Partner*.

the requirement of effective judicial protection must entitle applicants or tenderers having or having had an interest in obtaining a contract to ask for review of any decision to eliminate an applicant or tenderer.¹¹⁴ Moreover, the principle of effectiveness already requires that it not be impossible or excessively difficult to obtain judicial protection.¹¹⁵ Also, in my view, the principle of equal-treatment already grants rejected companies the right to challenge a decision to award a contract if a contracting authority is actually obliged to cancel a tender procedure.¹¹⁶ Otherwise, it would be within the discretion of the contracting authority to award a contract or to cancel a procurement procedure, which, however, is contrary to effective judicial protection since, due to the lack of an adequate review mechanism, compliance with the basic standard of transparency cannot be effectively guaranteed.¹¹⁷

In view of the fact that this issue is not to be qualified as a *act claire*¹¹⁸ the Austrian Public procurement offices have discretion to refer this issue to the ECJ pursuant to Art. 234 of the TEC for a preliminary ruling; the Superior Administrative Court, being a court of last resort, however, would – at least in my view – have been obliged to do so.

Review of the decision to cancel a tender procedure below THE EC THRESHOLD

By virtue of the PPA 2006, the catalogue of so-called contestable decisions has been amended. Following the ECJ holding in *Koppensteiner*¹¹⁹, the decision of a contracting authority to withdraw an invitation to tender was henceforth held to be contestable. By analogy, a mandatory standstill period in order to provide tenderers with the possibility of challenging this decision (the decision to cancel a tender) was implemented. This applied to tenders above as well below EC thresholds. However, in 2006 the Austrian Superior Constitutional Court (*Verfassungsgerichtshof*) decided that, as regards tender procedures below EC thresholds, a contracting authority must not adhere to the two-stage procedure regarding the cancelation of a tender.¹²⁰ Moreover, the contracting authority is entitled to directly cancel a tender without having issued a (contestable) decision indicating that it intends to cancel such tender.

¹¹⁴ ECJ case 222/86 *Heylens*.

¹¹⁵ ECJ case C-327/00, *Santex*.

¹¹⁶ ECJ case C-19/00 *SIAC* and ECJ case C-448/01 *EVN*.

¹¹⁷ ECJ case C-324/98 *Teleaustria*.

¹¹⁸ The theory of *acte claire* is that “if a provision is unequivocal there is no need to interpret it”; see ECJ case 283/81 *CILFIT*.

¹¹⁹ ECJ case C-15/04 *Koppensteiner*.

¹²⁰ VfSlg. 17.867/2007.

This is particularly remarkable, since the ECJ in *Teleaustria*¹²¹ and *Alcatel*¹²² stressed the importance of the possibility of reviewing the impartiality of the procedure. However, if the contracting authority decides to immediately terminate a tender (through cancellation), this requirement is obviously not fulfilled. Therefore, it is argued that the Superior Constitutional Court was obliged to refer this issue to the ECJ pursuant to Art. 234 of the TEC for a preliminary ruling.

BAIL

One of the most important reasons for the "Amendment 2007" of the PPA 2006 was a decision by the Austrian Superior Constitutional Court annulling one of the regulations of the PPA 2002 as it pertains to bail.¹²³ In particular, the court found it to be an infringement of the principle of efficiency of the review procedure that for each request concerning the identical tender, multiply maximum bail amounts had to be paid. Furthermore, the court held that the absence of the (partial) reimbursement of bail in the event that the applicant revokes its request for remedy violates the law.

As a consequence, the Austrian legislature reformulated the provision of the PPA at issue. From the entry into force of the PPA 2006, the fee charged for an interim injunction henceforth amounts (only) to 50% of the fixed sum. In case an applicant files an additional request for remedy, (only) 80% of the fixed sum is due; if the applicant revokes its request for remedy prior to the oral hearing, 50% or 80% of the bail, respectively, is reimbursed.¹²⁴

Access to the procurement file

In practice, it is often essential to verify on the one hand whether competitors have submitted requests for participation/ bids in full compliance with the tender documents and/or, on the other hand, if the contracting authority applied a non-discriminatory approach when examining the different request for participation/ bids.

For that reason, it is essential to obtain access to the contracting authority's procurement documentation and all relevant records, whereas, in fact, the Austrian review bodies often do not grant such access at all; such prohibition is principally justified by the protection of trade and business secrets.

In this regard, the ECJ, however, very recently (on 14 February 2008) held that the applicant in a review procedure is entitled to inspect and comment on the evidence and observations submitted to the reviewing body.¹²⁵ It follows that, in a review procedure in relation to the awarding of public

¹²¹ ECJ case C-324/98 *Teleaustria*.

¹²² ECJ case C-81/98, *Alcatel Austria*.

¹²³ VfGH, G-124/06, V-44/06-6.

¹²⁴ The relevant time point is the announcement of the setting of the oral hearing.

¹²⁵ ECJ case C-450/06 *Varec*.

contracts, the body responsible for such review procedure must be able to decide that the information in the file relating to such award should not be communicated to the parties or their lawyers. However, such decision may only be resolved if it is required by community law in order to ensure the protection of fair competition or the legitimate interests of economic operators.

Therefore, a body responsible for review procedures may restrict the applicant's access to a file only insofar as it is necessary to protect the business secrets of the applicant's competitors. Hence, it is prohibited by law for a national review body, in particular in light of the principles of fair trade and fair competition, to generally refuse access to a file. In fact, such access may only be limited in very narrow cases; for instance, in order to protect business secrets. In any case, the possibility exists that the national review body will not disclose business secrets or any other confidential information, for instance if such confidential information is protected by way of blacking out or covering certain parts of the documents to be protected.

The Austrian review bodies apply a "cautious approach" to accessing procurement files in order not to risk disclosing business or trade secrets. This "cautious approach" is due to an extensive focus on the confidentiality of the documents and information provided by the economic operator in question. However, in light of the recent judgement of the ECJ, it is argued that one should not accept a global denial of access to a file without appealing such decision. Moreover, one should insist on being provided with comprehensive reasoning as to why particular parts of the file are confidential and therefore are not to be disclosed.

Conclusions

1. The Austrian public procurement regime continues to act aggressively, remaining rigorous in comparison to other EC member state's sets of rules. In particular, specialist tribunals with power to grant interim measures and set aside contracts contribute considerably to compliance with the principle of the state under the rule of law.
2. The Austrian public procurement law remains a highly regulated and complex area of law. On one hand, the legal obstacles facing an aggrieved tenderer who wishes to challenge a procedure are quite low, so that the hundreds of rulings of specialist public procurement tribunals contribute fundamentally to the interpretation, clarification and further development of the Austrian procurement regime.
3. On the other hand, the Austrian public procurement regime stays in a constant state of flux, which renders a comprehensive understanding of this field of law virtually impossible. Only one year after the PPA 2006 – which brought the procurement law in line with EC

requirements – the amendment 2007 entered in force. In face of the new EC Procurement Remedies Directive, the amendment 2008 of the PPA 2006 is already pending.

4. The PPA 2006 and its amendment 2007 already provide for various contemporary features, such as a special procurement regime "lightly" below EC thresholds or the possibility to request the nullity of direct awards, which some EC member states are introducing only now. However, there is a variety of hot topics that still need to be resolved. In particular, in light of an effective remedy system, one should reconsider the lack of access to judicial proceedings in case a contracting authority is obliged to cancel a tender procedure.
5. In any case, the Austrian Superior Administrative Court has been asked to refer crucial issues to the ECJ for a preliminary ruling according to Art. 234 of the TEC and not to refrain from entertaining this possibility, which has contributed considerably to the development of EC public procurement law.

DOUBLE DICHOTOMY OF VALUE IN PROJECT MANAGEMENT

ДВОЙНАЯ ДИХОТОМИЯ ЦЕННОСТИ В УПРАВЛЕНИИ ПРОЕКТАМИ

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Abstract

Value of project is shown in the value of project product and value of project management. Dichotomy of value can be defined as: expression of value (monetary/non-monetary) and state of value (tangible/intangible). Monetary component of value expresses quantitative descriptions of project product and project management, expressed by cost and benefit indexes. Nonmonetary component of value expresses quality descriptions of project product and project management, shown in properties of product: technical and functional. Tangible component of value – the tangible assets of the interested persons, created as a result of project activity. Intangible component of value – the intangible assets of the interested persons, created as a result of project activity: intellectual capital, competence of project participants. In the matrix 2x2 both dichotomies are combined, selecting quadrants, determining scopes of evaluation of efficiency (success) of project. The choice of quadrant in relation to a concrete project is determined by the type of project which, in the same queue, is determined by the product of project.

Key-words: dichotomy, value, project management, monetary, tangible.

Introduction

Estimation reliability is determined by accordance of expectation of the item of evaluation to the chosen criteria of evaluation. Activity-based cost analysis, balanced scorecard and economic value added are not specific for some kind of activity. Applying them to estimation of any single project is difficult. Fact of the added value creation in a project is accepted apriori (PMCC, 2001). The problem of evaluation (as it is presented in publications) comprises application of terminology of political economy (operating with abstract categories) to concrete practical actions without consideration of the essence of these categories (Miles, 1989). References to the value of notions of «value», «utility», «cost» and to other categories even in the publications of methodological level are built on the principle of their value in an explanatory dictionary. Whereupon authors pass to the already resulted methods of determination of the added value or value creation chain (Масленников & Крылов, 2006). But the question remains: what is the efficiency of the project management taking into account this added value? The answer to this question requires examination of the value created in a project, shown in the results of the project, acknowledged by all interested persons.

Research Methods

Transdisciplinary approach to theory of value and project management methodology based on formal logics was used.

Results

Application of the notion of utility to estimation of the project efficiency allows, on one side, to bring in clearness in the picture of quality descriptions of project efficiency, and, on the other side, allows to extend transdisciplinary communication of methodology of project management to the political economy, especially for political economy fundamentals there are interpretations of notions «product», «cost», «value», «added value».

The added value is often used as an object of evaluation through the indexes of the economic (EVA) or market (MVA) added value of object of domain. In any case the question is about the use of the notion the «added value» in relation to the future (delivered) stream of value. This added stream of value (utility) is a part of stream of value generally, as the added value does not arise from nowhere. In the given context for determination of efficiency it is necessary to pay attention not on deviations from the planned result, but on those changes which will be produced or will happen in the value of object. If the value does not change – an object does not function or is not viable. Formal observance of management efficiency requirements in the terms “of time” and “of budget” are not complete equivalent of notion «value of project».

In relation to the subject domain of project management all listed above is as follows : subjects determining the value of project – aggregate of the interested persons, each of which has the sources of value, structure of value and criteria of evaluation. In this context, concerning satisfaction of the interested persons, it is necessary to understand the criterion of success of the project as satisfaction of realized in a project needs of the interested persons.

The participant of project is satisfied, if the equivalent of his efforts spent in a project is delivered, and participation is recovered in project. That is, principles of exchange are observed: principles of equivalence and compensation. What will be acknowledged by the concrete participant of project as an equivalent of ones own efforts and which compensation of his benefit participation in a project, relies on two basic parameters: type of project and type of participant. For example: value of participation in a project for an investor in commercial and social projects is different; the choice of project financing form is produced by an investor on the basis of comparison of value (innovative projects by standard computations of investment attractiveness).

The problem of evaluation as expressions of some aggregate of indexes (quantitative and/or qualitative) of project value shows that the N participants of project have different understanding of the same positions in the issue of evaluation since determination of maintenance of project and to the complete use of available possibilities of the project management. Thus a necessity in the

evaluation arises in different periods of time in relation to the project life cycle. These temporal periods have different duration and nature.

For the participants of project the process of the added value creation has substantial differences: the product of project is configured (Польшаков & Лашук, 2005) without changing owner and being in the single process of management (project management). As a result, creation of the added value in a project by means of the project management is an aggregate of co-operations of the interested persons, each of who assists the other to receive the added value so far as creates it.

By other words under the value (by utility) of the project it should be understood the heterogeneous set of indexes, which is the aggregate of great numbers of evaluation of utility of the interested persons.

As a project nature carries an innovative character which is delivered through project's new state, it must reflect the quality changes of value in the quantitative estimation (PMCC, 2001). That is the terms of participation of the interested persons in the project must reflect the change of its quality state during time when persons engage the project.

For every interested person the determination of value of participation in a project takes place at some instance of time, in relation to which it is possible to say that value is fixed. Therefore, determining project success from the point of view of any interested person at any point of project life cycle, it appears expedient to use notion – “value of project” in its qualitative and quantitative description. Qualitative description of value consists of consumer properties of its transmitter (consumer value). Quantitative description of value consists of expression of value in some form. Value is «perceived» coming from the state of transmitter: tangible or intangible (Wideman, 1998). Both states are estimated by the interested person variously. Thus value for an interested person is always divided into monetary and non-monetary value.

The dichotomy division is needed, because the interested person at determination of expedience or effectiveness of participation in the project must eliminate the possibility of contradictions in the evaluation. For example, monetary component of the project value, presented by the NPV and IRR indexes, in a project on a new product development cannot be acknowledged by an investor by the basic criteria of choice. The quality of a new product is not reflected in direct sense of this word. Position of the investor here is important as the interested person of project, but not only as an owner of money. Investor, as well as any interested person, must define the component of value which corresponds to his anticipation of sufficient and necessary condition for participation in the project.

Determination of the components of value must be coherent. Expression and state of value dichotomy has to be considered as single whole – double dichotomy of value. In this case the interested person finds out four components (or classes). Every class has clear scopes and contains double sign of value classification (Figure 1): monetary/tangible, monetary/intangible, non-monetary/tangible and non-monetary/intangible.

		Expression of value	
		Monetary	Non-monetary
State of value	Tangible		
	Intangible		

Figure 1: Double dichotomy of value

Every quadrant of value in a dichotomy matrix is independent unit of evaluation. The interested person can identify value in different quadrants as a project value consumer. The mixed position of determination of value multiplies the risk, but the dichotomy division comes forward as stabilizing factor, compelling to make choice between opposite positions.

Monetary component of value expresses quantitative descriptions of product of project and project management, expressed by cost and benefit indexes. Nonmonetary component of value expresses quality descriptions of the product of the project and the project management, shown in properties of the product: technical and functional. Tangible component of value – the tangible assets of the interested persons, created as a result of project activity. Intangible component of value – the intangible assets of the interested persons, created as a result of project activity: intellectual capital, competence of the participants of the project.

Discussion

Understanding of interested persons what form the constituents of the project added value is determined by the value of the project, provides basis for the evaluation of project prospects. Determination of the ability to achieve the purpose by means of the realization of project must be based on the ability of project to add the value during implementation of project and in a post-project period.

Conclusions

1. Each of the interested persons has the access point and exit from a project, produces estimation of the value of the project and its change during the project life cycle on the value of project product or on the value of project management.
2. Determination of project success factors and key performance indicators in the project management must be built on the descriptions of value, according to the definite type of project; properties are set by the product of the project.

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INNOVATIVE MANAGEMENT PROCESSES IN PUBLIC HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

INOVATĪVI PĀRVALDES PROCESI VALSTS AUGSTSKOLĀS

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Introduction. Innovation in public administration usually is considered impossible or strictly limited because the public administration is regulated by normative documentation, typical hierarchy, bureaucratic culture and political support. Since M. Weber the public administration is characterized by stable organizational structures, fixed functions, strictly regulated employees' roles and specialization. The Republic of Latvia State Administration Law states that the public administration is organized into a united hierarchy system and all public institutions are included into this system. When countries and societies entered the 20th century, it was revealed that the classical bureaucratic state administration model is useful for a stable and slowly changing environment. Many factors, such as global economic and social changes, determined the necessity for a change and innovative administration and management processes in public administration organizations. New Public Management (NPM) which is characterized as a new approach in public sector management prioritizes management skills, management of resources and activities, flexible administration which concentrates on effectiveness and achievement of goals and objectives. The public administration reform was first undertaken by Great Britain, New Zealand and Australia. These countries emphasized such management elements as performance control and evaluation, orientation to result not process, orientation to client and use of outside services – cooperation between private and public sectors. Also, development of horizontal communication, information technologies, activities' transparency. Public higher education institutions are part of the public administration system. Public higher education institutions are brought under strict regulations, but because of their specific status (autonomy and self-governance), they have certain flexibility. The flexibility provides space for new management processes which can be introduced to increase the performance effectiveness.

The **objective of the paper** is to determine the higher education institutions' (public universities) status within the public administration structure and to analyze why public universities can and need to undertake innovative management processes. The current research involves only analysis of local and international literature and documents within the stated topic. Further research plans are connected with defining and classifying of innovative management processes and their evaluation in regard to effectiveness of performance.

The **research object**: public higher education institutions, the **research subject**: innovative management processes in public universities. **Main conclusions**: public universities are state intermediate institutions with a secondary public status; public universities' self-governance gives the public universities decision making freedom but it also requires high level of responsibility; administrative and management processes can't be separated from the performance results – process and result are cohesive concepts.

Key words: innovative management processes, public higher education institutions, public universities, process vs. result

Introduction

Public administration is often characterized as a rigid and inflexible mechanism which is not oriented to public needs. Public organizations are blamed for using too many resources which are not balanced with their performance results. At the same time, public organizations say that they are not eligible to make changes in their performance, that their performance is strictly regulated by normative documentation and organizations are part of a strict hierarchic system where there is no place for creativity and innovativeness. Public higher education institutions are part of the public

sector. The author of this paper is of opinion that public universities have possibilities to improve their administration and management processes. The purpose of a broader research is to define and analyze various management processes connected with planning, decision making, organization, control and evaluation. It is expected that analysis will highlight some innovative management processes which could serve as good practice examples in improving public universities' performance effectiveness and results.

Research Methods

Monographic method and document analysis method.

Results and Discussion

Considering the fact that the society is not satisfied with the performance and results of the public sector, the 20th century scholars and administrators started to think about new public management methods in public administration. New Public Management (NPM) is defined as an approach to managing public service sector which prioritizes managerial as opposed to professional skills and which includes resource and performance management at its heart. Innovative public administration or management processes are new elements introduced into the public sphere in the form of new knowledge, new organizational, management and processual skills (*Osborne S.P., 2005*). Many scholars see the public management as a new, economically driven perspective on the operation of government. The NPM by its advocates are seen as a reform attempt aimed at reemphasizing the professional nature of the field versus its academic, moral or disciplinary characteristics. A few public administration theorists advocate a bright line differentiation of the professional field from related academic disciplines like political science and sociology. But, in general, it remains interdisciplinary in nature.

What is the philosophical idea and reason for introducing the concept of an innovative management process? Innovative management processes represent discontinuity with the past. For much of the last century, public organizations were the embodiment of stability. Invariably integrated as part of government as a whole, these organizations were classical Weberian hierarchical bureaucracies. The organizational emphasis was upon incremental growth and development and upon a planned approach to the administration of public services. As the 20th century drew to a close, the picture began to change. The classical public service bureaucracies had been well suited to a stable and slow changing environment. A range of factors in the late 20th century, such as global economic changes, demographic changes and consequent growth of a

managerial approach rather than administrative approach to public sector administration conspired to change this environment. Changes in expectations from citizens, society became more sophisticated, requiring greater focus on choice and quality in public sector. Also, political changes which marked paradigmatic change against the hegemony of the state in meeting expressed public needs and towards more complex approaches which increasingly required the governance of multiple relationships between service providers. A range of above mentioned factors led to a change in nature of public sector management (*Osborne S.P., 2005*). The same tendencies are emphasized in literature sources about an organization as an institutional research subject. It has been stated that nowadays organizations become more depended on each other globally, the functioning quality and effectiveness depend on a united performance of all organizational elements. If any of the elements functions with low quality, all system works with defects. (Ābele J., Bariss V., 2008).

As it is seen from the above statements, innovations are coming alongside with economic and social changes in the society. Public organization management system is becoming more diverse and complex. Change and innovation are overlapping and closely connected phenomena. However, it is important to be clear about where they converge and where they diverge. Change is a broader phenomena that involves growth and development of one or more of a number of elements of a public service. These include – the design or structure of the process, management and administration of the process and skills required to provide and manage the process. By contrast, innovation is a specific form of change, it is discontinuous change (*Osborne S.P., 2005*).

Latvian public administration started to go through significant changes in public administration system in the Summer 2008. The Latvian government initiated several economy measures and announced that Latvian state will have a balanced budget. Discussions organized by public officials and the Government Control Office raised public interest on issues concerning the use of public administration material and financial resources, number of human resources in the public sector, duplication of functions, efficiency of public sector work and others. Discussions reflected that the public sector needs to undertake several significant changes in regard to its organizational work. The main principles to be improved are the following: activities are focused to results not to processes, transparency of activities and results, economical use of material and financial resources. Along with these as if very simple and understandable principles, several measures were undertaken in the public sector – decreasing of personnel in public sector by 5-10%, balanced salary system for the same or similar position levels, no financial bonuses, public sector staff reduction and others. The same above mentioned Government Control Office has expressed

that public entities' performance is oriented to process, not results. This process is supported by huge financial resources. Public employees don't work with the idea how to work better, how to improve their activities in the public sector. All public activities can be characterized as contracts, different ways of allocating public sector money. Nobody is interested why we invest in buildings, equipment and human resources. That is very much connected with the fact that the public sector does not have a clear future vision, strategic planning in economy, education, health care and other sectors.

In order to go on with the research it is necessary to define the management process. What is the definition of a process in the public administration organization's performance? Management process can be defined as the following:

- series of elements form a united structure,
- the structure shows the logical and normative arrangement between elements,
- the structure shows interconnection among elements.

Process management is the ensemble of activities of planning and monitoring the performance of a process. Process management is the application of knowledge, skills, tools, techniques and systems to define, visualize, measure, control, report and improve processes with the purpose to effectively reach the organization's objectives. That is also considered a development, implementation and improvement of the organization's effectiveness (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Process_management). Although the term "process" has got a negative connotation in public sector performance, the author of this paper is of opinion that through improving administration and management processes, the public sector will reach more effective performance and results. Processes and results are not separated concepts. Another idea of this paper is to show that although public sector entities work in strict accordance with normative laws and regulations, there is a space for innovative management processes. The purpose of introducing innovative management processes is to improve public sector efficiency in achievement of concrete objectives proved by quantitative results.

Democracy relationships between the government and the society determine that the society gives responsibility to the government to implement various administrative tasks. Various legal and organizational forms are the instruments to implement these administrative tasks. The state, respectively, its authorities are expected to choose the most effective instruments. Instruments as such – different legal entities representing the public law, e.g. state administration or state mediate administration entities do not have any self-value, because they represent the state in its broader sense. The principle of a united state administration is defined also by the Republic of Latvia State

Administration Law: the central state administration and the mediate state administration works according to united principles and form a united hierarchic system. State entities do not have their own interests, they are eligible to use a certain order to formulate society interests (Levits, 2002). It has to be mentioned that the state as a legal body of the public law takes the secondary responsibility for the mistakes and material losses which are caused by public entities.

The public higher education institutions are state intermediate institutions with a secondary public status. Both the central public administration and the intermediate public administration are organized using principles of subsidiary. The Republic of Latvia Higher Education Institutions Law determines that higher education institutions are higher education and science organizations implementing academic and professional study programs, science and research. Higher education institutions are autonomous education and science institutions with self-governance rights. The universities' autonomy is characterized by the division of power and responsibilities between the public institutions (e.g., the branch ministry) and the university administration. Within the public administration structure the state universities are subordinated to the state administration sector, but the public universities obtain the secondary legal body status (*atvasinātas publisko tiesību juridiskās personas statuss*) which determines the autonomy of universities. The university administration decides on the ways and instruments how to implement its goals and objectives. The university administration is responsible for the education quality, rational and goal oriented use of material and financial resources, following democratic principles, laws and regulations which determine university performance. Within the mentioned terms, the university has the right to determine its own ways of administration and management, following its goals and objectives and the legislation. On the one hand, universities find it attractive because they can decide on their performance very much on their own. The state and society development concept says that very strict normative regulations are not fair, not according to the principles of justice and applying of normative regulations should not be a mechanical process. But on the other hand, the self-governance makes the university responsible for the administration and management processes - are they right, are they appropriate, does university has long – term development planning and many other issues connected with self-administration. Responsibility to undertake university management processes more and more defines that the university leaders need managerial skills, education and experience more than academic oriented skills.

The new changes in public sector ask for a new classification of organizations. One of the new types of organizations is the intellectual organizations. An intellectual organization is such organization whose existence is completely dependent on the intellectual competence of the

personnel. This definition differentiates an intellectual organization from those organizations whose existence is more dependent on techniques and technologies than people's capacity. Intellectual organization is characterized by non-standard production or services. Thus, work of an intellectual organization is focused on personality – the service provider (academic and administrative staff) has to be creative and socially expectable. The higher education institutions are typical representatives of the intellectual organizations. Leaders of the intellectual organizations need to have two types of competences – professional competence and entrepreneurship competence. Professional competence is characterized by the knowledge in organization's performance field. High professional competence creates higher education institution's advantage in competitiveness. The entrepreneurship competence is characterized by the leader's ability to ensure increase in value. A true professional pays attention to the performance quality but an entrepreneur pays attention to the forecasts of expenses and their compensation in the future (*Niedrīte V., 2006*). The author of the paper has stated above that the higher education institution leaders need more managerial than academic skills. Prof. Niedrīte, a Head of the Management Science Department at the Faculty of Economics and Management at the University of Latvia defines that professional and entrepreneurial skills are needed, emphasizing that the university leaders need to be business oriented managers who are able to forecast expenses and how these expenses will be compensated. This statement very much goes together with issues raised at the 21st century international academic space that universities are not only higher education and science institution but also business organizations (university administration need to manage the organization as businesses do it).

Higher education institutions' management processes have become more popular especially during the 20th century 90ies, since the number of inhabitants willing to obtain the higher education has increased. There are 127 050 students study in public and private higher education institutions in 2007/2008 study year in Latvia. There are 552 students on 10 000 inhabitants. That is the second highest index in the world. A higher index is in Canada (580 students/10 000 inhabitants). There are 19 public higher education institutions in Latvia. At the same time competitiveness among the higher education institutions is growing – that is determined not only by the Latvian labor market dynamics but also by the demographic situation in Latvia. During the 20th century 90ies there was a decrease in birthrate, thus, the number of students in full time studies decreases and will continue to decrease also in the following years. At the same time the higher education will be demanded also in the future. There will be a higher demand for the education quality, demand for other forms of education, e.g., long-life education. The higher education quality processes can't be separated from the university management processes. Qualitative education services are possible only in a

coordinated and effective decision making and implementation environment. Innovative university management processes will promote the development of study and science quality.

Conclusions

1. Professor in public management Stephen P. Osborne in his research has pointed out that when countries and societies entered the 20th century, it was revealed that the classical bureaucratic state administration model is useful for a stable and slowly changing environment. Many factors, e.g., global economic and social changes, determined the necessity for a change and innovative management processes in public administration organizations;
2. The public higher education institutions are state intermediate institutions with a secondary public status. Both the central public administration and the intermediate public administration is organized using principles of subsidiary. Public higher education institutions obtain the secondary legal body status (atvasinātas publisko tiesību juridiskās personas statuss);
3. Public universities find it attractive that they have the right to determine the self-governance instruments independently. But it makes the university responsible for the administration and management processes - are they right, are they appropriate, does university has long – term development planning, etc.
4. Management process is series of elements forming a united structure. It shows the logical and normative arrangement and interaction between elements. Process management is the ensemble of activities of planning and monitoring the performance of a process. Process management is the application of knowledge, skills, techniques and systems to define, visualize, measure and control processes with the purpose to effectively reach the organization's objectives;
5. “Process” and “result” are not separable concepts. Through improved, innovative management processes public universities will improve their performance efficiency. The higher education quality processes can't be separated from the university management processes. Qualitative education services are possible only in a coordinated and effective decision making and implementation environment. Innovative university management processes will promote the development of study and science quality.

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DAŽĀDĪBA UN NORMALITĀTE: ZINĀTNISKIE UN BIOĒTISKIE ASPEKTI

DIVERSITY AND NORMALITY: SCIENTIFIC AND BIOETHICAL ASPECTS

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Abstract

Concerning bioethical issues, the claims that some action or practice is morally wrong because it is “unnatural” typically are widely supported by general public. At the same time, all such arguments are frequently characterized as unscientific and dogmatic by experts as well as by liberals who emphasize positive value of diversity and the right to choose according to personal values. These liberal and post-modern views are typically based on assumption that all judgments about normality, health and disease are value judgments: to call a condition unhealthy is only to express disapproval of it according to dominant cultural values. How well-founded is to speak about human nature, normality and disease as a scientific and universal concepts? Although the significance of value dimension concerning views about normality and disease is undeniable, the conceptions of contemporary life sciences do not contradict the idea that essential and universal characteristics of the species exist. In the case of the human species these universal characteristics can be characterized not only in biological but also in ontological and ethical categories. The use of the concept of “human nature” does not conflict with the fact of individual variation, but variation within limits of species-typical normal functioning can be separated from variation that is beyond these limits. In this aspect there is a distinction between a therapy whose only purpose is to restore species-typical normal functioning and enhancement of some desirable characteristics. There is a well-founded anxiety that as a result of enhancing some specialized characteristics the autonomy of an individual, the openness to diverse experience, the right to open future could suffer.

Key words: bioethics, normality, disease, health, normal functioning, genetic enhancement, the right to an open future.

Ievads

Runājot par bioētikas problēmām, saskaņā ar bieži dzirdamu viedokli dažādas darbības vai prakses ir vērtējamas atbilstoši tam, cik tās ir “dabiskas” vai “normālas”. Tiek runāts par normālu ģimeni, uzvedību vai seksuālo orientāciju. Parasti dabiskums un normalitāte tiek pielīdzināta veselībai, bet novirzes no normas – slimībai. Cik pamatoti ir šādi uzskati? Kas ir “normalitāte”, “veselība” un “slimība”? Šī raksta mērķis ir mēģināt rast lielāku skaidrību par tādu jēdzienu kā “normalitāte”, “cilvēka daba”, “veselība” un “slimība” pamatotu lietojumu.

Konstruktīvisms attiecībā uz jēdzieniem “normalitāte”, “veselība”, “slimība”

Minētie sabiedrībā izplatītie uzskati no ekspertu puses parasti tiek kritizēti kā novecojuši un dogmatiski. Mūsdienu dzīvības zinātnes uzsver cilvēka kā bioloģiskas sugas mainību un daudzveidību. Tiek uzsvērts, ka, piemēram, nevar runāt par kādu vienu pēc kāda absolūta kritērija “labāko” genotipu. Arī fenotipiskā līmenī nav pamata runāt par to, ka pastāv kāds viens “labāko” vai “dabiskāko” pazīmju kopums. Visur mēs sastopamies ar lielāku vai mazāku individuālās mainības

amplitūdu (Hull [1986] 1998). Šāds uzsvars šķiet diametrāli pretējs idejai par vienotu cilvēka dabu, tās būtiskajām īpašībām, sevišķi, ja ar cilvēka dabu saprot kādu vienotu normatīvu ideālu.

Ticību cilvēka dabas būtisko īpašību eksistencei mazināja arī XX gadsimta sociālo zinātņu, sevišķi antropoloģijas, liecības. Antropologi, iepazīstot kultūru daudzveidību, ir sastapušies ar līdzīgu situāciju – dažādās kultūrās var sastapt atšķirīgas domāšanas paradigmas, morāles normas un vērtības. Tādējādi tas, ko mēs uzskatām par cilvēka dabu, ir nekas vairāk, kā tikai viens no attīstības variantiem, kurš ir bijis raksturīgs Eiropas kultūrai.

Arī tādi XX gadsimta filosofijas virzieni kā eksistenciālisms un poststrukturālisms noraidīja ideju par kādu cilvēka dabas būtību jeb esenci. Mūsdienu liberāļi un postmodernisti tieši dažādību parasti uzsver kā pozitīvu vērtību.

Runājot par tādiem jēdzieniem kā veselība, slimība, normalitāte un cilvēka daba, par izplatītu pārliecību bioētikā un sociālajās zinātnēs ir kļuvusi nostādne, ka izpratni par šiem jēdzieniem nosaka nekas vairāk kā konkrētā kultūrā un sociālajā vidē pieņemtās vērtības, normas un varbūt arī aizspriedumi. Saskaņā ar šo pieeju spriedumi par to, kāds stāvoklis atzīstams, piemēram, par veselību vai slimību, ir vērtības spriedumi, t.i., nosaukt kādu stāvokli par slimību nozīmē neko vairāk kā atzīt to par nevēlamu. Tādējādi izpratne par veselību un slimību ir sociālo un kultūras vērtību radīta, tāpēc šo viedokli var saukt par konstruktīvismu. Turklāt šīs vērtības dažādās kultūrās var atšķirties, tāpēc šāds viedoklis ir cieši saistīts ar kultūrrelatīvismu – uzskatu, ka dažādās kultūrās pieņemtās vērtības un normas ir nevis ētiski pareizākas vai nepareizākas pēc kāda absolūta kritērija, bet vienīgi atšķirīgas no citās kultūrās pieņemtajām vērtībām un normām.

Medicīnas sociologi, antropologi un vēsturnieki pievērš uzmanību gadījumiem, kad konkrētas slimības tiešām šķiet sociālo normu radītas. Sevišķi tas attiecas uz mentālajām slimībām. Kā vienu no piemēriem var minēt t.s. uzmanības trūkuma-hiperaktivitātes “slimību” (*attention deficit-hyperactivity disorder, ADHD*), kas pirmo reizi tika aprakstīta kā slimība ASV 1980. gadā (Fukuyama, 2002, 47). Runa ir par pusaudžiem (galvenokārt zēniem), kas rada disciplīnas problēmas skolās. Konstruktīvistu skatījumā šis piemērs parāda, kā izpaužas sociālo problēmu medikalizācija: tas, ko agrāk uzskatīja vienkārši par nepaklausību un sliktu uzvedību, ir kļuvis par slimību. Kāpēc notika šāda pārmaiņa? Farmācijas industrija radīja jaunus medikamentus, kas mazināja pusaudžu negatīvās izturēšanās iezīmes; atzīstot šo stāvokli par slimību, skolotāji un vecāki varēja ar mazāku piepūli kontrolēt šādu pusaudžu uzvedību (Fukuyama, 2002; Conrad, [1975] 2004).

Konstruktīvisma kritika

Šādi piemēri, kas parāda kultūras un sociālo faktoru lomu slimību definēšanā, ne visiem bioētiķiem un filosofiem šķiet pietiekami pārliecinoši, lai no tiem vispārinātu radikālu konstruktīvismu attiecībā uz jēdzieniem veselība un slimība. Piemēram, ko lai šajā kontekstā saka par plaušu vēzi vai tādām agrīnām neārstējamām neirodeģeneratīvām slimībām kā Teja-Saksa slimība, kuras rezultātā bērns gada vecumā zaudē redzi un nenodzīvo ilgāk par pieciem gadiem (Kitcher, 1996)? Grūti iedomāties, ka šādu stāvokļu definēšana par slimību ir vienīgi kādu specifisku sociālo vai kultūras faktoru radīta.

Turklāt tas, ka stāvoklis tiek atzīts par nevēlamu, nav pietiekams kritērijs, lai to varētu definēt kā slimību: cilvēks var nebūt apmierināts ar savu figūru vai pirkstu veiklību (piemēram, salīdzinājumā ar izcilu pianistu pirkstiem), taču šādas nepilnības netiek definētas kā slimības (Boorse [1975] 2004, 79).

Viedokli, ka veselības un slimību definēšana ir nekas vairāk kā vērtībspriedumi par vēlamiem un nevēlamiem stāvokļiem, ir grūti savienot arī ar vispārpieņemto pārliecību, ka var pamatoti runāt ne tikai par mājdzīvnieku un kultūraugu (šajā gadījumā veselību un slimības varētu definēt arī no cilvēkam vēlamo īpašību viedokļa), bet arī par savvaļas dzīvnieku un augu slimībām, kaut arī dzīvnieki (un vēl jo vairāk augi) nespēj vērtēt to vai citu stāvokli kā vēlamu un nevēlamu (Ibid., 80).

Radikāls konstruktīvisms un kultūrrelatīvisms attiecībā uz izpratni, ko uzskatīt par veselību un slimību, var novest arī pie ētiski visai apšaubāmām konsekvencēm. Piemēram, vecāku vēlme radīt sev līdzīgus bērnus var izpausties arī kā mūsdienu medicīnas iespēju izmantošana, lai selektīvi izvēlētos bērnu ar iedzimtu defektu: kurlmēmi vecāki daudzos gadījumos vēlas kurlmēmus bērnus, un pēdējos gados ASV bijuši pat aktīvas rīcības gadījumi, lai šāda varbūtība būtu lielāka (piemēram, veicot mākslīgo insemināciju ar kurlmēmu spermas donoru). Šāda rīcība tiek attaisnota, balstoties uz radikālu konstruktīvismu un kultūrrelatīvismu: nedzirdīgums tiek uzskatīts nevis par defektu, bet par kurlmēmo minoritātes kultūridentitātes sargātāju (Mandija 2002, Buchanan et. al. 2000, 281–284).

Veselība kā sugai raksturīgā organisma normālā funkcionēšana

Iepriekšminētie iebildumi pret konstruktīvismu attiecībā uz jēdzieniem veselība un slimība liek secināt: lai gan daudzos gadījumos nav noliedzama kultūras un sociālo faktoru loma, jāmeklē arī citi, universālāki kritēriji veselības un slimības jēdzienu izpratnē. Jājauc – kāpēc, kā to parasti atzīst arī konstruktīvisma aizstāvji, dažādu kultūru izpratnē par to, kādi stāvokļi ir atzīstami par slimību, ir daudz kopīga (Engelhardt, Wildes, 2004)?

Konstruktīvisma kritiķi atbildi parasti meklē dzīvības zinātņu koncepcijās, uzskatot, ka jēdzieni veselība un slimība ir definējami attiecībā uz cilvēku kā bioloģisku sugu (*Homo sapiens*) kopumā, neatkarīgi no specifiskiem sociālajiem un kultūras faktoriem. Šo pieeju mēdz dēvēt par **naturālismu** attiecībā uz jēdzieniem veselība un slimība. Saskaņā ar šo pieeju bioloģiskā līmenī mēs varam runāt par **sugai raksturīgo organisma normālo funkcionēšanu**. Sugai raksturīgās normalitātes atzīšana neizslēdz arī individuālo mainību, taču var nošķirt mainību sugai raksturīgās organisma normālas funkcionēšanas robežās, un mainību jau kā slimību jeb patoloģiju. Tas, ka šo robežu ne vienmēr var novilkt ar ļoti augstu precizitāti, nenozīmē, ka tās vispār nav (te vietā atgādināt angļu rakstnieka Semjuela Džonsona izteikumu – krēslas esamība nenozīmē, ka nav atšķirības starp dienu un nakti).

Idejai par veselību kā sugai raksturīgu organisma normālo funkcionēšanu nepieciešami tālāki precizējumi (Boorse [1975] 2004, Boorse 1997). Ar bioloģisko funkciju šajā gadījumā jāsaprot īpašības, kurām ir cēloniska nozīme organisma izdzīvošanas un vairošanās nodrošināšanā. Šāda pieeja ir nevis vērtējoša, bet aprakstoša, jo var aprakstīt dažādu organisma sastāvdaļu un īpašību nozīmi šo mērķu (izdzīvošanas un vairošanās) sasniegšanā neatkarīgi no tā, kādu vērtību mēs piešķiram šiem mērķiem. Vēl viens precizējums: organisma sastāvdaļu funkcijas jāvērtē saskaņā ar to bioloģisko konstrukciju (*design*; šī jēdziena lietošana nenozīmē saprātīga konstruktora postulēšanu, jo bioloģiskā konstrukcija var būt arī evolūcijas un dabiskās izlases rezultāts), kas raksturīga sugai. Šis precizējums ir nepieciešams, lai saprastu, kāpēc jebkura atkāpe no pilnības vēl nav slimība. Piemēram, cilvēki nav atzīstami par slimiem ekstremitāšu reģenerācijas spēju trūkuma dēļ, jo šāda spēja vienkārši neietilpst cilvēka sugai raksturīgajā organisma bioloģiskajā konstrukcijā. Arī par bioloģisko konstrukciju var runāt aprakstoši, t.i., neatkarīgi no tā, vai šo konstrukciju mēs vērtējam kā labu vai sliktu.

Cilvēka daba kā normatīvs jēdziens

Pret tikko aplūkoto pieeju var izvirzīt iebildumu, ka tā pārlieku bioloģiski izprot cilvēka dabu. Atšķirībā no augiem un dzīvniekiem cilvēka dzīvei ir arī citi mērķi un vērtības, ne tikai izdzīvošana un vairošanās. Taču šī pieejas atbalstītāji to nebūt nenoliedz. Cilvēki, kas cieš no slimībām bioloģiskā izpratnē, var būt garīgi aktīvi un radoši, un tātad no cilvēcisko vērtību viedokļa varbūt pat veselāki par vairākumu. Var atcerēties, ka, piemēram, ne viens vien izcils mākslinieks ir cietis no epilepsijas vai maniakāli-depresīvās slimības. Iespējams pat, ka šie cilvēki būtu ne tik radoši pie labākas veselības (Boorse [1975] 2000, 85). Angļu valodā pastāv nošķīrums starp jēdzieniem slimība kā *disease*, kas ir pretstats veselībai kā normalitātei no funkcionālās bioloģijas

viedokļa, un slimība kā *illness*, kas raksturo slimības izraisīto subjektīvo stāvokli. Cilvēks var justies vesels, pat ja viņa organismā attīstās slimība (kā *disease*), vai cilvēks subjektīvi nejūtas slims, jo slimības izpausmes ir viegli kontrolējamas; un, pretēji, cilvēks var justies slims (slimības kā *illness* izpratnē), pat ja cēloni (slimību kā *disease*) neizdodas identificēt. No kāda stāvokļa atzīšanas par slimību bioloģiskā izpratnē (kā *disease*) nav izdarāmi nekādi viennozīmīgi secinājumi cilvēcisko vērtību aspektā. Tomēr, neskatoties uz minētajām iebildēm, grūti noliegt, ka vērtība ir arī cilvēka veselība no funkcionālās bioloģijas viedokļa (kā pretstats *disease*).

Tomēr var iebilst, ka šāds viedoklis ignorē principiālu filosofisku problēmu – vai vispār ir pamatoti normas, mērķus, jābūtību vienkārši izsecināt no novērojumiem par esošo cilvēka dabu? Uzmanību šādai problēmai jau XVIII gadsimtā pievērsa Deivids Hjūms. Darbā “Traktāts par cilvēka dabu” (“*A Treatise on Human Nature*”, 1740) Hjūms garāmejot minēja, ka daudzi autori sāk ar cilvēka īpašību un izturēšanās aprakstiem, bet tad nemanot pāriet uz šo pašu īpašību atbalstīšanu (vai noliegšanu), neievērojot, ka saiklis “ir” (*is*) nav identisks saiklim “vajag” (*ought*). Mūsu aplūkotās problēmas gadījumā var iebilst, ka ir notikusi nepamatota pāreja no faktiem par cilvēka veselību funkcionālās bioloģijas izpratnē (*is*) uz veselību kā vērtību, pēc kuras vajadzētu tiekties (*ought*). XX gadsimta pirmajā pusē viedoklis par neiespējamību atvasināt vērtības no faktiem kļuva par valdošo nostādni.

Tomēr XX otrajā pusē šī nostādne ir bieži tikusi kritizēta. Jāpiebilst, ka arī Hjūma minētā ideja par neiespējamību atvasināt jābūtīgo no esošā var tikt interpretēta dažādi (Donnelly, 2007). Piemēram, iespējams, ka Hjūms ir uzskatījis par neiespējamu veikt šādu pāreju vienīgi kā loģisku *a priori* secinājumu, taču tas nenozīmē, ka jābūtība nevar tikt atvasināta no empīriski iegūtām zināšanām par cilvēka dabu.

Kā alternatīvu *is/ought* problēmas izpratnē var minēt atgriezušos interesi par ontoloģiju, kas tuvāka Aristoteļa un Akvīnas Toma pieejai. Antīkajā, kā arī viduslaiku filosofiskajā domā nebija krasi nošķirti ontoloģiskie jautājumi par esošo un ētiskie jautājumi par jābūtīgo. Esošais tika aplūkots arī kā labais ētiskajā nozīmē. Tādējādi, lai saprastu, kas ir cilvēkam labais ētiskā nozīmē, bija jādomā par esošās cilvēka dabas būtību. Šādā skatījumā, runājot par dzīvību, sugas būtisko īpašību un spēju attīstība (*ought*) jau ir ietverta esošajā (*is*) (Donnelly, 2007). Starp faktiem un vērtībām nav nepārkāpjamas robežas – daudzi fakti par dzīvo dabu ir it kā vērtību piesātināti.

Gadījumos, kad sugas būtiskās īpašības un spējas nav raksturojamas vienīgi bioloģiskās kategorijās, veselība funkcionālās bioloģijas skatījumā var vienlaikus būt arī ontoloģiski un ētiski nozīmīga. To, ka par sugas būtiskajām īpašībām var runāt ne tikai bioloģiskā līmenī, var ilustrēt ar šādu piemēru. Iedomāsimies, piemēram, visādā ziņā veselu, “normālu” cilvēku, kurš visu mūžu jau

kopš mazotnes ir pavadījis ieslodzījumā. Turklāt, šis cilvēks ir pilnībā izolēts, nekad nav varējis uzzināt pat par pašu iespēju būt brīvam. Mēs, protams, pieņemam par pašsaprotamu, ka šāds stāvoklis ir nepieņemams un šim cilvēkam ir tiesības būt brīvam. Taču, kā gan mēs to varam zināt? Šo konkrēto indivīdu taču mēs nekad neesam redzējuši brīvībā. Arī viņš pats nekad nav varējis salīdzināt ieslodzījumu ar brīvību. Vienīgā atbilde ir, ka tas izriet no mūsu zināšanām par cilvēka būtiskajām īpašībām un konkrētajam indivīdam šādas tiesības ir kā indivīdam, kas pieder pie cilvēkiem kā sugas (Oderberg, 2001, 180).

Nobeigumā gribētu minēt kādu bioētikas problēmu, kuras izpratnē aplūkotais temats var būt nozīmīgs. Vispāratzīts medicīnas mērķis ir terapija kā cilvēkam raksturīgās organisma funkcionēšanas atjaunošana. Taču pieņemsim, ka nākotnē biotehnoloģiskas iejaukšanās rezultātā var rasties iespēja iejaukties ne tikai šādā līmenī, bet arī pastiprināt (*to enhance*) kādas esošās cilvēka spējas, tādas kā fizisko veiklību, labsajūtu vai atmiņu (piemēram, veicot ģenētiskas manipulācijas embrija stadijā). Vai un ciktāl vajadzētu realizēt šādus pozitīvās eigēnikas mērķus, ja pastāvētu šāda iespēja?

Šādas iespējas atbalstītāji uzsver, ka ir grūti novilkt robežu starp terapiju (*therapy*) un pazīmju pastiprināšanu (*enhancement*), sevišķi ja runājam par cilvēka kognitīvajām spējām (Wolpe [2002] 2004). Autorprāt, no iepriekš aplūkotās pieejas attiecībā uz cilvēka organisma funkcionēšanu jāsecina, ka šāda robeža pastāv, lai gan dažkārt to nevar novilkt ar absolūtu precizitāti. Taču arī šādas robežas atzīšana pati par sevi neatrisina jautājumu par ētiski pieļaujamās iejaukšanās robežām pastiprinot kādas pazīmes.

Neskatoties uz šķietamo konservatīvismu, ideja, ka nevajadzētu mainīt cilvēka dabas būtiskās iezīmes, joprojām nav zaudējusi savu ietekmi. Daudziem cilvēkiem ir gandrīz vai “instinktīva” nepatika pret ideju par pārcilvēka radīšanu ar iejaukšanos ģenētiskā līmenī. Līdzīgi kā sabiedrības attieksmē pret cilvēka klonēšanu, arī šajā gadījumā negatīvai attieksmei ir pamatā spontāna, emocionāla daba. Varbūt tomēr tā pauž kādas nozīmīgas pirmsteorētiskās intuīcijas, kuras gan nav viegli precīzi noformulēt.

Var pieņemt, ka pamatā šādām intuīcijām ir pārlicība, ka cilvēka daba, kuru veido daudzveidīgi elementi – prāts, griba, emocijas, savā daudzveidībā ir arī vienots veselums. Problēma, kas parādās pozitīvās eigēnikas sakarā, ir – vai pastiprinot atsevišķas cilvēku spējas, mēs neizjauksim šo cilvēka dabas vienotību, kā arī nepadarīsim cilvēka dabu vienveidīgāku un vienusīgāku. Galvenais, kas rezultātā var zust, ir indivīda spēja autonomi realizēt dažādus mērķus, iespējas piedzīvot daudzveidīgu pieredzi un būt atvērtam dažādām iespējām.

Tātad pazīmju vai īpašību pastiprināšanas gadījumā ir pamats ievērot īpašu piesardzību, domājot arī par iespējamiem negatīviem blakusefektiem šādas iejaukšanās rezultātā. Šādā aspektā parādās terapijas un pazīmju pastiprināšanas nošķīruma praktiskā nozīme.

Par kritēriju, kas ļautu izvairīties no minētajiem negatīvajiem attīstības scenārijiem, var kalpot bērnu tiesības uz atklātu nākotni (Buchanan et. al., 2000). Pieņemsim, ka nākotnē parādīsies efektīvas un drošas iespējas ar iejaukšanos ģenētiskā līmenī veikt ne tikai ģenētisko slimību ārstēšanu, bet arī kādu īpašību vai spēju pastiprināšanu. Šajā gadījumā bērnu tiesībām uz atklātu nākotni jābūt vismaz minimālai prasībai, kas ļautu atšķirt ētiski pieļaujamu šāda veida iejaukšanos no ētiski nepieļaujamās. Atklātu nākotni neapdraud tāda īpašību pastiprināšana, kura neierobežo indivīda paša izvēles iespējas nākotnē. Savukārt, ētiski nepieļaujama būtu kādu specializētu īpašību pastiprināšana, kas sašaurinātu izvēles iespēju un iespējamās pieredzes amplitūdu, un tādējādi ierobežotu bērna tiesības uz atklātu nākotni.

Secinājumi

1. Pastāv būtiski iebildumi pret radikālu konstruktīvismu un kultūrrelatīvismu attiecībā uz jēdzieniem “normalitāte”, “veselība” un “slimība”. Funkcionālās bioloģijas koncepcijās balstītais naturālisms attiecībā uz šo jēdzienu izpratni šķiet pamatotāka alternatīva.
2. Vienlaikus nav noliedzama arī nozīmīga kultūras un sociālo faktoru loma šo jēdzienu izpratnē. Turklāt cilvēka dzīvē nozīmīgas ir arī citas vērtības, ne tikai veselība bioloģiskā aspektā. Tāpēc no kāda stāvokļa atziņas par slimību bioloģiskā izpratnē nav izdarāmi nekādi viennozīmīgi secinājumi attiecībā uz citām indivīda un sabiedrības dzīvē nozīmīgām vērtībām un normām.
3. Esošo cilvēka dabu ar tās būtiskajām īpašībām var uzskatīt ne tikai par dabaszinātnisku, bet arī par normatīvu jēdzienu, jo šīs īpašības var raksturot ne tikai bioloģiskās, bet arī ētiskās un ontoloģiskās kategorijās. Līdz ar to nav pareizi krasi nošķirt esošo cilvēka dabu no ētiskās normativitātes.
4. Aplūkotā pieeja attiecībā uz jēdzieniem “normalitāte”, “veselība” un “slimība” var palīdzēt konkrētu bioētikas problēmu izpratnē un risināšanā. Kā piemēru var minēt tādu aktuālu bioētikas problēmu kā nošķīruma starp terapiju un pazīmju pastiprināšanu pamatojums un praktiskā nozīme.

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GENDER REPRESENTATION: PECULIARITIES AND EXPRESSION WITHIN TRADITIONAL RELIGIOUS CONFESSIONS IN LATVIA

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Abstract. Modern social psychology is a synthesis of several paradigmatic sciences. Paradigm of “gender and mental culture” is connected with different scientific branches of social psychology.

Gender representation as a social construct starts to form in childhood in result of sex identity and gender socialization. It is connected also with features of differential concepts of genders as one of ways of real world acknowledgement. Gender representation is a line of concepts and arguments that explains states and percepts of representatives of the two genders in society. This concept is connected with gender identity and self consciousness, gender roles and norms, peculiarities and differences. Gender is connected with socially and culturally formed and inculcated differential features of women and men.

Social psychology of gender offers several approaches and methodic for research of gender representation features. Facts and data of the doctoral work witness that the chosen research is unique because social psychological phenomenon like interaction of religious mental culture and human gender representation is observed.

Novelty of the research is confirmed by the results that acknowledge that basis of gender representation is a scheme of gender consciousness and it is connected with correlation of categories of mental culture.

Keywords: gender, representation, stereotypes of sexes, gender culture and mental culture.

Introduction

Gender consciousness is a very important process in human life, because the gender is the status that determines our status totality in future. Gender influences forming of our identity and self-determination type of personality (*Andersen M. L., Skarpitti F.R., 1989*).

It is asserted in theory of sexual development by S. Bem that in the case of differentiation of gender identity, features characteristic for both genders form to men and women. In her work “Theory and Measurements of Androgen”, the scientist assumed that masculinity and femininity are two different measurements that are possessed by both men and women and it was called “psychological androgen”.

Scheme theory of gender appeared in beginning of 80-ies of the 20th century. S. Bem considers that gender schemes are a part of cognitive schemes repertoire. Development of individual cognition processes, ability to interpret and predict information about gender features and relationships depend on peculiarities of gender schemes processing. Gender schemes determine suitable and appropriate behavior for each gender. There is consideration that actuality of gender schemes changes with children development (*S. Bem, 1984*).

In research by K. Deaux (1985) and A. Igli, women “playing” masculine roles were evaluated as masculine but men accepting women’s roles - as feminine. Adherents of social learning theory consider that gender identity happens only after a child has learned behavior of definite gender. Cognitivists agree with the idea that in the beginning a child clears identity of his/her gender

and after that starts to behave correspondingly to the roles of his/her gender. It would be correct to assume them as two details of single process supplementing each other. Theories by different scientists observe the process by different views: theory of gender typification - by the view of educators, theory of self- categorization - by the view of child and it stresses the aspects that are not unequivocal in different levels of psychosexual development (*Deaux K., 1985*).

Gender representation is a kind of sexual relationships that are oriented towards men and women behavior in system of social relationships in macro level: group of men or women - society (state, culture). Gender stereotypes have important role in explanation of relationships of men and women. Actually, gender stereotypes are standardized concepts of behavioral models that corresponds the definitions “masculine” and “feminine”. Similar explanation is offered by American psychologist D. Matsumoto: “Gender stereotypes- psychological and behavioral characteristics that are traditionally ascribed to men or women”. Different gender stereotypes accents are offered in these definitions. Gender stereotypes are shown as a cultural component and as socially psychological characteristics of personality (*Matsumoto D., 2002*).

In the space of culture, cultural norms determining people gender social relationships and echo of interactions are expressed in society. In this form of culture, social values, ideal images and common regulatory gender behavior forms are fixed. All together it forms social culture of gender relationships or gender culture. In gender culture, knowledge is expressed as principles of elaboration of gender behavioral norms in society, their common life, activities and interaction. Knowledge is the primary but values are the secondary cultural aspects. (*White L.A., 1959*)

Cultural types like religion, philosophy and art are included in mental culture. The most characteristic form of culture- communion of knowledge and values is at the first place. It does not mean that there are no regulative activities in this culture because rules actually are mean for mental values forming. Mental culture is “image of cognition- values” in the spatial understanding of culture.

Mental culture has some features that differs it from other spheres of culture:

1. Unlike technological and social cultures, mental culture is non - utilitarian (selfless). Its basic statements are connected with “mental joy” - beauty, knowledge and smartness. It is needed to people by itself, not for solving external tasks.
2. A person receives creative freedom in mental culture. Human mind is not connected with practical considerations, it can depart from reality.

3. In mental culture, creative activities become special mental world that is made by strength of human thoughts. This world is much richer, it is full of imagined figures and exists by its own rules; thus it influences our lives - maybe even more than real world.

4. Mental culture is sensual because it reacts sensitively to external circumstances. It can recognize the tiniest changes in human life. It is not practical, maybe that is why people consider it a burden in hard living circumstances, and that is why mental culture suffers most in times of social mutiny. Mental culture needs social care. If people stop to show interest, it loses its functions and steps back to shelves of libraries and museums, it becomes a dead culture.

The main idea of the research is connected with will to clear aspects of expression peculiarities of gender representation of representatives of different traditional religious confessions of Latvia. The theme is unique because, at first, there are different religious confessions in society of Latvia that are considered to be traditional. They are Evangelically Lutheran, Rome Catholic, Orthodox, Baptist and Old - believers. At second, the singularity is connected with social changes since Latvia regained its independence fifteen years ago that renewed not only civil but also religious freedom of the people.

Gender representation is a form of collective consciousness, men and women, as big social groups, attitude different functioning aspects in society. Analysis of social concepts of big groups permits to mark out and research their psychological characterizations regarding sexual relationships. Contents of representations in different cultures are different because form and contents of thinking is closely connected with communication and interaction, with harmony or disharmony in different social groups.

Gender representation has its peculiarities as to any social concept. At first, each social concept is an image with interacting sensual and rational elements. At second, each social concept is an element of symbolisms. At third, social concept is able to build reality. At fourth, social concepts are closely connected with language and culture (*Paivio A., 1996*)

Gender representation is a line of concepts and statements that explain positions and social status of women and men in society. Knowledge of roles is performed by men and women in society, what is their prediction and behavioral models to be demonstrated to the others. Gender representation is a kind of relationships between sexes that is oriented towards behavior of men and women in system of social relationships in macro level: gender groups- mental culture.

Research

Research methods devoted to research design and the obtained data were summarized and interpreted of the research that shows obviously that there are formed correlations of “femininity - masculinity” consciousness category components and there are formed correlations of mental culture: “feminine - masculine” symbols, norms and values.

Research focuses on gender representation as a socially psychological fact can be observed as a cognitive scheme of gender consciousness that is comprised of such components as consciousness of “femininity – masculinity” that are shown as IS- Androgenic coefficient.

Basing on “Androgenic theory” by S. Bem and the calculated indices of “feminity - masculinity” of IS- androgenic coefficient, we can conclude that:

- **“Masculine”** features is possessed by all groups of representatives of traditional religious confessions but the following groups are typically “masculine” with IS- coefficient indices (<-1): Lutheran men (-1.29) and women (-1.23) from Zemgale, Catholic women from Latgale (-1.16) and men from Zemgale (-1.03), Baptist men from Zemgale (-1.32), Old Believers’ men (-1.29) and women (-1.12) from Zemgale.
- **“Feminine”** features is not remarkable because there is no IS- coefficient ($<+1$).
- **“Androgenic”** is possessed by representatives groups of traditional religious confessions with IS coefficient $[+1; -1]$; they are all groups that are included in this range: Lutheran women (-0.28) and men (-0.14) from Latgale; Catholic women (-0.92) from Zemgale and men (-0.49) from Latgale; Orthodox women (-0.66), (-0.75) and men (-0.93), (-0.98) from Latgale and Zemgale; Baptist women (-0.25), (0.7) from Latgale and Zemgale and men (0.27) from Latgale; Old Believers’ women (-0.08) and men (-0.05) from Latgale. (See Figure 1)

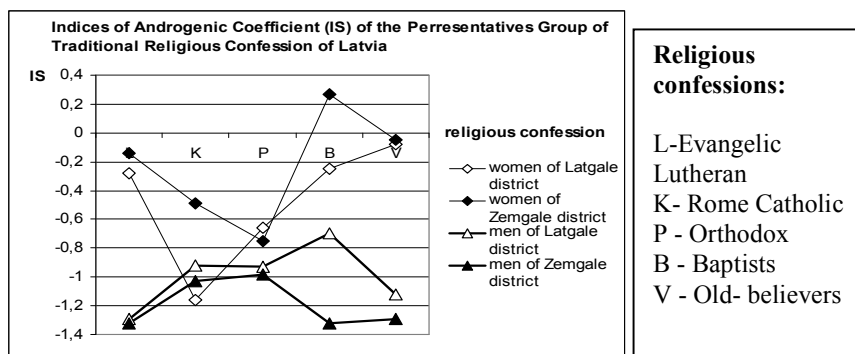
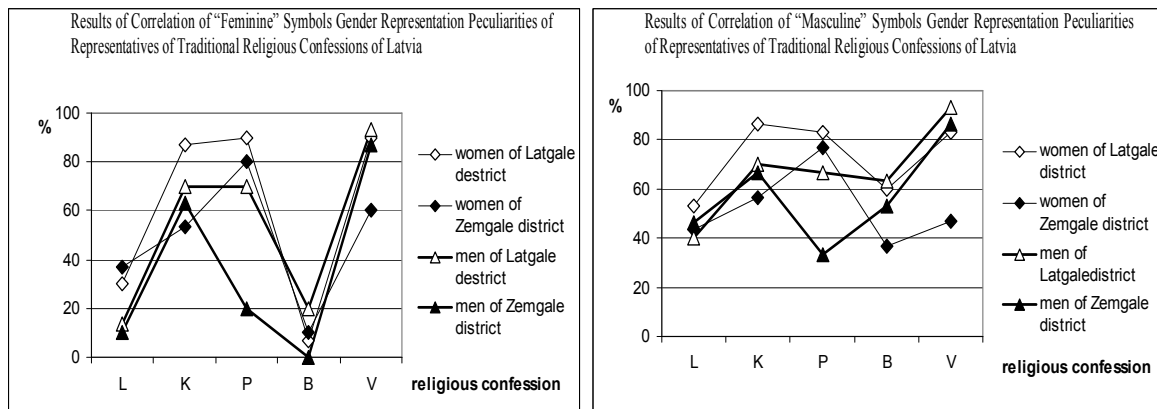


Figure 1. Peculiarities of gender representation feature of the Representatives Groups of Traditional Religious Confessions of Latvia (Indices of Androgenic Coefficient (IS))

SPSS Data statistical analysis interpreting with describing using EXCEL program, showed peculiarities of gender representation of representatives of five different traditional religious confessions in the aspect of mental culture; the statements were set using facts from structured interviews with clergymen – experts that were divided in six categories of gender and mental culture. Representation and mental culture of “feminine-masculine” symbols of the representatives groups of traditional religious confessions parameters are indicative:

- **“Feminine” symbols** – highest perceptions are found expressed to Old Believers, Orthodox and Catholic women and men of Latgale and Zemgale; lowest to Lutheran, Baptist women and men of Latgale and Zemgale;
- **“Masculine” symbols** - highest perceptions are found expressed to Catholic, Orthodox, Baptist and Old Believer women and men of Latgale and Zemgale; lowest to Lutheran, Baptist women and Orthodox and Lutheran men of Zemgale; (See Figure 2)



Religious confessions:

L-Evangelic Lutheran; P – Orthodox; K- Rome Catholic; B - Baptists ; V - Old- believers

Figure 2 Gender Representation and the Feature Expression Aspects of “Feminine-Masculine” Symbols of Mental Culture of the Representatives Groups of Traditional Religious confessions of Latvia

Gender representation and mental culture of “feminine-masculine” values of the representatives groups of traditional religious confessions parameters are indicative:

- **“Feminine” values** – highest perceptions are found expressed to Catholic women, Orthodox, Baptist and Old Believer women and men of Latgale and Zemgale; lowest to Lutheran women and men, Catholic men of Latgale and Zemgale;
- **“Masculine” values** –highest perceptions are found expressed to Lutheran, Catholic, Orthodox, Baptist and Old Believer women and men of Latgale and Zemgale districts; (See Figure 3)

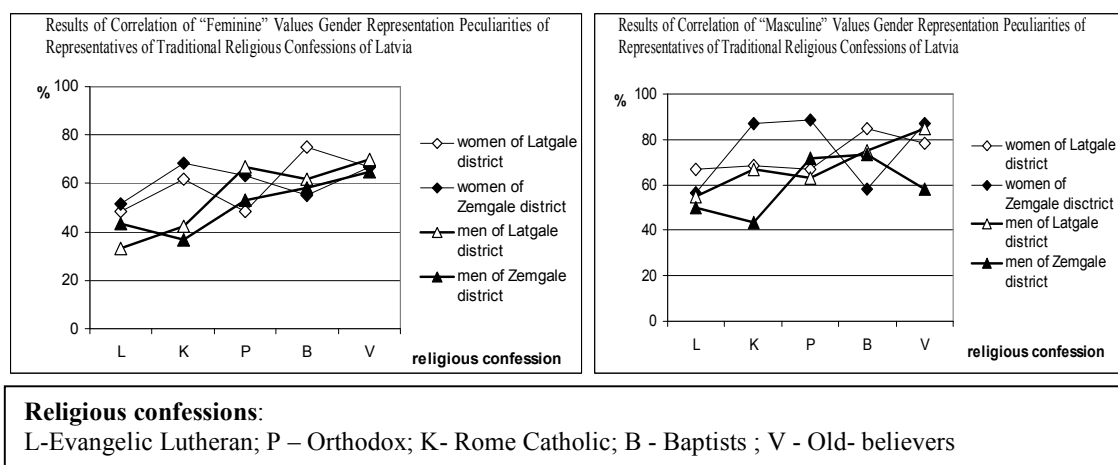


Figure 3. Gender Representation and the Feature Expression Aspects of “Feminine-Masculine” Values of the Representatives Groups of Traditional Religious Confessions of Latvia

Gender representation and mental culture of “feminine-masculine” norms of the representatives groups of traditional religious confessions parameters were indicative:

- **“Feminine” norms** – highest perceptions are found expressed to Lutheran, Catholic, Orthodox, Baptist and Old Believer women and men of Latgale and Zemgale;
- **“Masculine” norms** –highest perceptions are found expressed to Orthodox women and men, and Old Believer women of Zemgale, that should be prior perceptions to Old Believer men of Latgale; the lowest are found to Lutheran, Catholic, Baptist women and men of Latgale and Zemgale, that should be prior perceptions to Orthodox women and men and Old Believer women of Latgale. (See Figure 4)

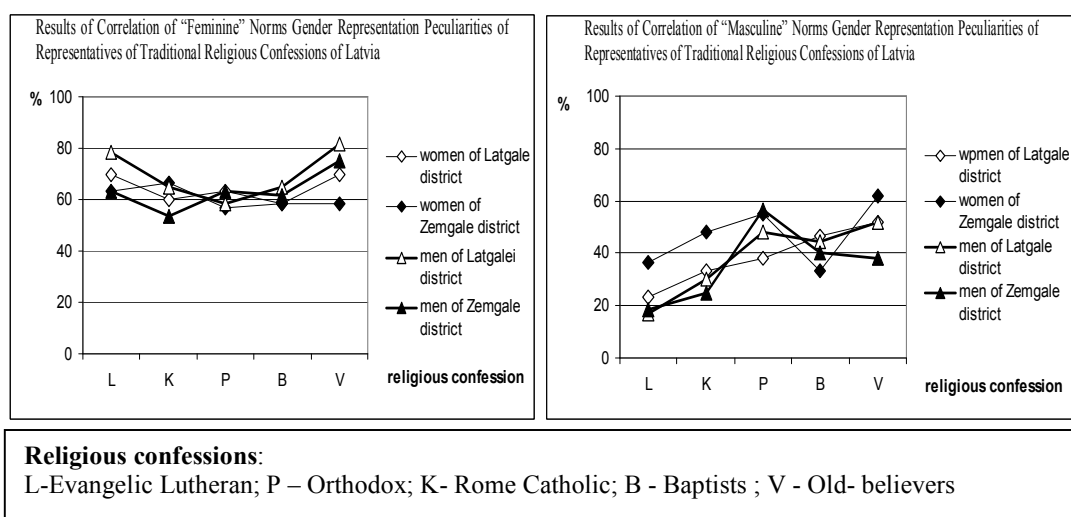


Figure 4. Gender Representation and the Feature Expression Aspects of “Feminine-Masculine” Norms of the Representatives Groups of Traditional Religious Confessions of Latvia

The research is determined unique for object und subject, psychology scientific methods and methodology of dates processing. The research of peculiarities gender representation and it is expositions the phenomenon of social psychology that is demonstration not only a set of peculiarities, but as expression of mental culture aspects.

Conclusions

Gender as a component of symbolism is the basis of social organization of modern society is, its include notions like femininity and masculinity. Actually it is a gender representation as a wider perception of cognitive and behaviorally psychological features of men and women behavior.

Peculiarities of gender representation as a set of cognitive categories determined as gender cognitive scheme. Gender representation peculiarities of traditional religious confessions of Latvia are determined by findings of the research that in both regions and in the represented groups of women and men are different. Analyzing the dates of the research it is possible that to Old Believers' women and men, Orthodox men, Lutheran women, Baptist men of Zemgale and Catholic women from Latgale are mainly analogical in attitudes and have "maskuline" concepts in comparison with other groups of traditional religious confessions representatives.

Comparative data and tendency of indicators analogy are proving stability of concepts of women und men groups that belong to ones confessions. Representatives of traditional religious confessions of Latvia so such as: Catholic, Orthodox and Baptist were "negative" asymmetry and Lutheran and Old Believers' – "positive" asymmetry that is demonstrated the analogy of their answers.

Gender cognitive scheme is a "cognitive map", where the results of the research are structured. Comparative date tendencies proved of representatives groups of traditional religious confessions: Old Believers' women and men from Zemgale region and Catholic women from Latgale region support "masculine" concepts and they think that system in society patriarchal should be prior. Principal differentiation of "masculine" and "feminine" and gender polarization are in the basis of those percepts.

Gender representation is a set of collective concepts that in social context for the representatives of religious confessions is also connected with mental culture. Mental culture is "image of cognitive values" in spatial understanding of culture. Any culture includes normative behavioral forms, it exists both in individual and social consciousness. Cultural forms determining social relationships of genders and response of correlations in society are expressed in cultural space. Social values and "ideal images", as well as common regulatory behavioral norms of gender

symbols are set in this cultural form. Symbols, values and norms as a set are typical categories of gender and mental culture.

Symbols of mental culture are important in all traditional religious confessions, but most symbolism of “mental images” is seen at representatives of Old Believers’ and Catholic confessions. Normative behaviors rules are observed by all representatives of traditional religious confessions, but facts of the research show that Baptist and Old Believers’ persons from Latgale region perform them mostly.

The obtained facts and data of the research acknowledge that gender representation peculiarities the representatives groups of traditional religious confessions of Latvia are determined by gender cognitive scheme that is a set of gender attitudes, concepts and stereotypes.

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WHO'S AFRAID OF ISIAH BERLIN?

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Introduction. Isiah Berlin is perhaps the most famous intellectual Latvia has ever produced or exported, but ironically he is hardly known or thought of in Latvia at all. Why is this?

Methods. I will examine him as a thinker and the psychology of Latvian universities and try to find reasons why they make for a bad marriage.

Results. Isiah Berlin was a famous Oxford don, is highly respected in good English speaking universities but in Latvia he is almost fatally unknown. There must be a reason for this state of intellectual affairs. The results will be the insights the essay unfolds in its pilgrims progress, if any.

Conclusions. This paper will look at some of the reasons why this strange state of affairs exists and what this says about Latvian universities.

Key words: intellectual, Latvian universities, pedagogical questions

The question the essay asks is: who is afraid of Isiah Berlin? What does this mean? Simply put Isiah Berlin is perhaps the most famous and highly respected intellectual – scholar of Latvian origin who ever graced the hallowed halls of academia. If this is so and it is so why does nobody in Latvia pay any attention to him? Why is he so unknown and forgotten in Latvia when American universities regard him very highly as do English universities? He was after all a highly respected thinker – writer and a famous Oxford don. Where are the statues of him in Latvia, where are the streets named after him, the books written about him, the television specials, the university courses that study his works? Nowhere, thats where.

Can it be because he wrote in English and not in Latvian or perhaps that he was more culturally Jewish than Latvian? Who knows, but the fact remains that Latvian universities pay very little attention to their own great writers, if they have any; at least not in the ‘sweetness and light’ tradition of good American and English universities and also their reading requirments in the humanities are many times less.

Actually this essay is not about the philosophical system of Isiah Berlin, for he was not a philosopher but a philosophical historian of philosophical ideas. Of course he does have beliefs and philosophical ideas which I suppose may described as being in the liberal intellectual – political tradition, but the purpose of this essay is not to examine them and certainly not the history of ideas which is his life’s study and work for that is far beyond the keen both of this essay and the humble abilities of the author of this plebeian exercise.

The question at hand is more of a pedogogical one if you will. It goes something like this. Why do Latvian universities neglect reading to such a large degree? If the question has any basis in

fact then the example of Isiah Berlin will be an excellent one for he was a great reader while degree programmes in the humanities in Latvian universities in fact require very little reading.

So what is or where is the core problem? A typical Latvian student comes to a Latvian university with a distinct antipathy to reading and thinking and is not at all encouraged by the university to change his or her mind. Also they come to a university in which there are small libraries, a bad book store and few course requirements to read.

The American university bookstore system could serve as an excellent example of how to do it right for it is a very simple and effective system. A professor orders books for his courses from the university bookstore before the school year starts. The student goes to the bookstore and there he sees copies of the books required for the course he is taking stacked in a nice pile, and he buys what is needed. What could be more logical? Then he goes to class and the profesor says read such and such a book and if he wishes to do well he does so. There are lectures in the class about the book, papers to be written and even a test or two. In a normal liberal arts course the number of books to be read varies from approximately five to ten. They are of course usually very high quality books written by brilliant writers like Isiah Berlin. If one was a student in a good American university the Isiah Berlin book most likely to be assigned would be the Hedgehog and The Fox, a famous book about Tolstoy and Dostoyevsky. Does any Latvian university in any course whatsoever, have as required reading The Hedgehog and The Fox? I doubt it very much. If it was required reading for a Latvian university class would anybody read it? I doubt it very much.

When Latvian universities do read they live on exerpts from books. The profesor takes a book, makes copies of a few pages for the students and thats it. Move on to the next book. I suppose that's better than nothing but it is very close to nothing. The habit of reading high quality books is simply not inculcated into the Latvian student. Rather the Latvian student is an excellent example of the joys of Cliff's Notes types of reading. For this unfortunate situation everyone seems to be at fault, both the system and the student. Another reason is that Latvian is a small language and that few high quality books have been translated into Latvian. It is not economically feasible to do so. The result is that anyone who wants to read high quality books has to read them in a different language, as for instance English; a situation which no doubt threatens the Latvian basis of Latvian education.

So since there is very little high quality reading being done in Latvian universities naturally they pay very little attention to a great reader like Isiah Berlin. He is for them a foreign and strange animal even though he is a native son. Also there is something hysterical and dictatorial about Latvian psychology and the Latvian language which is in conflict with great reading which requires

a Shakesperian openness and self – questining and irony about the human condition. A psychology and language which is willing if you will, to bite its own tail, to expose its own self-lies as far as possible as it attempts to capture, however briefly, elusive insights and truths into the human condition.

What can change the situation for the better? The American university reading system would be a great step forward but then many classes now held in Latvian would have to use a lot of foreign language material also. (The internet will do only in part for most books, because of copyright laws, are not on the internet.) Also the intellectual- spiritual atmosphere of a typical Latvian university will have to change. Presently there is a rather deadening, mechanical atmosphere, a professional college atmosphere which might be semi-acceptable if the opposite end of the spectrum existed also, but which, for a few exceptions as the LLU philosophy department, does not. The acquirement of rather deadening facts and diplomas dominate and the fires of intellectual-spiritual inquiry burn very low. The intellectual – spiritual searching which should be a natural part of the university lies fallow and a kind of pragmatic cynism prevails. Even the young teaching staff tend to be zombie- like and the old, old. The electrical spiritual- intellectual energy of Isiah Berlin is severly missing. And without this spiritual-intellectual energy the university is not a place of ‘sweetness and light’ but only a few steps more active than a graveyard.

So why don’t Latvian universities have in place an advanced reading system? In part the reason may be economical, in part becouse they simply don’t know about it, in part because if put in place it would threaten the Latvian language, and in part becouse of general apathy.

So perhaps someone truly is afraid of Isiah Berlin, both consciously and unconsciously. Do Latvian students read the books of great writers in class and then read brilliant critics like Isiah Berlin and for instance his seminal *The Hedgehog and the Fox*? As said, probably not. Very few are prepared to do so or are willing to do so. Nor is the reading system set up so that they can do so with relative ease. To send them to some uncomfortable reading room somewhere far away through storm and snow where there are only one or two copies of a book which they can only keep for an hour is not a good way to create happy and productive readers. And what is even more strange, Latvian educators think that this reading system is absolutely normal. Under this system if the student did not hate reading before they certainly would begin to do so after the third or so visit to the reading room.

But universities should be producing well-read people or at least people who wish to be well-read. Even if universities world wide are tending more and more to becoming Professional colleges they should at least have as one of their goals to create fairly well-read professionals. To be

brilliantly read like Isiah Berlin is not necessary for everyone but one can use him as an example and thus understand that reading high quality books is a very good thing for both mind and soul.

Isiah Berlin should be held up as an example one can emulate to a certain degree as of course other major figures of Latvian cultural history can be emulated as Zenta Maurina, Krisjanis Barons etc. American and English universities celebrate their cultural heroes and thus a goodly percentage of their graduates end up, over a life-time, as fairly well-read people I still remember the excitement the discovery of a brilliant writer would cause among my friends while I was still a high school student. (A discovery that had nothing to do with the high school.) Here I see no such excitement in the air. Here, with occasional exceptions there is only boredom and disinterest in the air.

So instead of thinking about reading in terms of Edward Albee's *Who's Afraid of Virginia Woolf*, where the two protagonists hate each other and verbally and psychologically torture each other one should think of reading as an excellent friend which enables one to overcome one's rather serious cultural and genetic limitations and allows one to have a much richer life experience than one would otherwise have. Presently the Latvian student does not wish to take advantage of such an ennobling opportunity and the Latvian university does not offer such intellectual-spiritual riches.

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BORROWINGS IN OJIBWAY LANGUAGE IN LOUISE ERDRICH'S NOVELS AS A MEANS OF CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION

ЗАПОЗИЧЕННЯ З МОВИ ОЖИБВЕ У РОМАНАХ ЛУЇЗИ ЕРДРІХ ЯК ЗАСІБ КРОСКУЛЬТУРНОЇ КОМУНІКАЦІЇ

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Introduction

In the era of globalization the attempt to draw the world's attention to cultural diversity is reflected in such phenomenon as multiculturalism. The USA is a perfect example of this cultural blending. Multiethnic tendencies are shown in the literary work of contemporary American authors of different cultural backgrounds. The beginning of Native American Renaissance in 1960s contributed much to the development and promotion of indigenous writers' fiction. Louise Erdrich is a modern prominent writer. She is a mixed-blood, half-Indian (her mother is of Ojibway¹²⁶ origin) and half German American (from her father's side). Native American world perception, mythology, cultural beliefs, traditions and customs are reflected in her prose. The material of this research makes L. Erdrich's cycle devoted to North Dakota Indians. Such novels as *Love Medicine*, 1983, 1994, *The Beet Queen*, 1986, *Tracks*, 1988, *The Bingo Palace*, 1994, *Tales of Burning Love*, 1996, *The Antelope Wife*, 1998 form the cycle mentioned. In her work the writer touches such important problems as cultural diversity, national identity, self-realization of a personality in the conditions of rapidly changing multiethnic society, etc. The paper offered is devoted to investigation of Chippewa borrowings functioning in L. Erdrich's prose.

The following **methods** are used in the research:

- *comparative-historical* and *cultural methods* to make complex analysis of indigenous prose;
- *phenomenological method* to understand the writer's world perception to explain L. Erdrich's usage of borrowings in Ojibway;
- *receptive-esthetic* and *contextual-stylistic text analyses* to study the inner semantics of the author's discourse;
- content-analysis method to transform verbal information of the novels into meta-verbal to explain protagonists' behavior determined by their systems of values engraved deeply on a subconscious level.

The **ideas** of the following domestic and foreign scholars make the theoretical basis of the research: M. Tlostanova, G. Vizenor, L. Stookey, L.M. Silko, K. Lincoln, D. Cryer, J. Bruchac, P.G. Beidler, G. Barton, D. Morrison.

Results. The borrowings in Chippewa language used in L. Erdrich's fiction perform several functions:

- draw the attention of Non-Indian community to the urgent problems of Native Americans, promoting and saving the indigenous culture;
- convey hidden cross-cultural information "enciphered" in L. Erdrich's novels;
- forecast protagonists' future preparing readers to perceive the writer's main ideas;
- are connotatively colored elements showing the novelist and her characters' expressivity and concernment.

Conclusions. Taking into account the results obtained, we consider it reasonable to keep investigating Native Americans' fiction. Indigenous mentality differs much for Non-Indian. For researchers and readers of not Native origin not to misinterpret the work of Indian authors, it's necessary to be aware of cross-cultural peculiarities and beliefs. Borrowings are a helpful "tool" used by the writer to convey the hidden cross-cultural messages.

Key Words: Cultural diversity, national identity, borrowings in Ojibway language, cross-cultural differences, Native Americans, connotatively colored elements, protagonist, multiculturalism, indigenous writers' prose, Indian mythology\ folklore

Introduction

¹²⁶ Ojibwa (Ojibwe/ay), Chippewa, Anishinaabeg – synonymic names of the Indian tribe.

In the era of globalization the attempt to draw the world's attention to cultural diversity is reflected in such phenomenon as multiculturalism (Tlostanova, 2000). The USA is a perfect example of this cultural blending. Multiethnic tendencies are shown in the literary work of contemporary American authors of different cultural backgrounds. The beginning of Native American Renaissance in 1960s contributed much to the development and promotion of indigenous writers' fiction.

The term "Native American Renaissance" belongs to a prominent literary critic and anthropologist Kenneth Lincoln. He considers that indigenous literature must be independent from American (Lincoln, 1983). Indians' attempt to establish their own literature was regarded as separatism manifestation. Craig Womack, a well-known literary critic rejects this opinion and proves that Native Americans' desire to have their own literature – is their legal right to express and realize themselves freely recorded in the US Constitution and ratified by the Supreme Court of America. He admits that in comparison with other literatures spread on the Continent it is Indian literature which is truly "American" as Indians are Native American dwellers. Except that, in his opinion, Indian literature must not be a constituent of the general American literature bulk (American Indian Studies, 1999: 24).

Lincoln points out that there are "Indian literatures" as each tribe possesses a unique, precious cultural heritage reflected in their folklore. In this research the term "Indian literatures" is substituted by "Indian literature" because even in this way it can reflect cultural versatility of each particular tribe.

In the first half of the 20th century these were mainly anthropologists who investigated ethnic literature. Only since the late 70-s of the previous century Native Americans' work research has become a part of literary studies and linguistics. It started exactly at that time when Franz Boas and the first generation of his followers began to develop such a branch of anthropology as ethnography which studies the uniqueness of each indigenous group (American Indian Studies, 1999: 30-75).

Craig Womack is sure that "Indian" criticism takes into account intellectual value of a tribe which is based on an exceptional mythological Native American mentality, their colonization and racism resistance, search of identity. He thinks that critical works of "white" scholars is one more try to "colonize" Indians, only in an intellectual sphere. The scientist highlights one more reason why "Non-Indian" critics must take into consideration the works of indigenous authors: ethnic literature reflects the US native-born essence and perception of the world. They are not only equal in rights with Americans, but also thoroughly know indigenous culture, thus, as Tuhiwai Smith, a native-born

literary critic considers, can interpret Native fiction without distortion of the original meaning (American Indian Studies, 1999; Stookey, 1999).

Indigenous researchers regard the majority of “Non-Indian” critics’ works as not historically trustworthy. A famous Indian writer L.M. Silko shares this opinion and says that of Indian work analysis deepening is possible only having enough knowledge of the relevant culture, understanding the traditions of a certain geographical region where Native Americans live (Silko, 1986: 86). This research is an attempt to analyze the work of Louise Erdrich taking into account historical and cultural context which helps to preserve the writer’s ideas.

Louise Erdrich is a modern prominent Native American writer. She is a mixed-blood, half-Indian (her mother is of Ojibway¹²⁷ origin) and half German American (from her father’s side). Indian world perception, mythology, cultural beliefs, traditions and customs are reflected in her prose. The following masters of literature as Mark Vinz, Cynthia MacDonald, Richard Howard, Charles Newman, Edmund White, M.L. Rosenthal, Toni Morrison, Kay Boyle, Peter Matthiessen, Anne Tyler, Rosellen Brown, Philip Roth highly evaluate her work.

Very many L. Erdrich’s works were published among The Best American Short Stories Series. For her fiction and poetry the writer was also awarded with many literary prizes, among them are: Academy of American Poets Prize, 1975; National Endowment for the Arts Fellowship, 1982; Sue Kaufman Prize for Best Fiction from the American Academy and Institute of Arts and Letters, 1984; Los Angeles Times Award for Fiction, 1985; Great Lakes Colleges Association Award for the Best First Work of Fiction for her novel “Love Medicine”, 1985; O’ Henry Prize, 1987; Western Literary Association Award, 1992, etc. (Stookey, 1999: 6)

The material of this research makes L. Erdrich’s cycle devoted to North Dakota Indians. Such novels as *Love Medicine*, 1983, 1994, *The Beet Queen*, 1986, *Tracks*, 1988, *The Bingo Palace*, 1994, *Tales of Burning Love*, 1996, *The Antelope Wife*, 1998 form the cycle mentioned. In her work the writer touches such important problems as cultural diversity, national identity, self-realization of a personality in the conditions of rapidly changing multiethnic society, etc. The paper offered is devoted to investigation of Chippewa borrowings (“Ojibwemovin” – the Ojibwe word for he language) functioning in L. Erdrich’s prose. The use of Native language by indigenous authors received little commentary. This fact proves the topicality of the research offered. Elizabeth Cook-Lynn investigating this question, suggested having a glossary at the end of each work containing Native American borrowings.

¹²⁷ Ojibwa (Ojibwe/ay), Chippewa, Anishinaabeg – synonymic names of the Indian tribe.

Indian folklore and rich cultural and spiritual heritage of Anishinaabe tribe lie in the background of the writer's novels. This indigenous community has several synonymic names. In "Tracks" old Nanapush addresses his people "Anishinaabe" which from their language means "original and spontaneous people" (Algonquian, Native dwellers of Great Lakes district named the tribe). Contacts with Europeans changed it to "Chippewa" which meant "people who live southwards to the Lake Superior". Later the name Ojibway (-a; -e) appeared which means "Northern Anishinaabe". Living in North Dakota, Erdrich used term "Chippewa" popular on this territory, having moved to Minnesota she changed it for "Ojibwa" which is appropriate there (Vizenor, 1984: 13)

The key to understand her novels appropriately is taking into account Native American mentality peculiarities and multiculturalistic manner of fiction creation. The writer suggests urgent problems solutions by means of past honoring and customs and traditions fulfilling. Louise Erdrich is a fighter for national identity, culture and history preservation. She warns the reader about the danger of cultural assimilation in the conditions of globalization which erases differences in cultures unifying them, from one hand, but at the same time this causes cultural decay, loneliness and detachment of a personality from the other, which often results in minor ethnoses total "dissolving" in the dominating culture.

Peter J. Beidler and Gay Barton the researchers of L. Erdrich's work created a reader's guide to her prose which gained essential readership. They highly evaluate the writer's experimental manner of writing, a wide range of bright and interesting characters, so-called labyrinth of intrigues and passions her reader is emerged from the first pages. Beidler and Barton highlight the masterly interweaving of humor, lyrics, mysticism and realism in L. Erdrich's work.

During her studies at college the writer studied Native American culture, special attention was devoted to the tribe she originates from, Ojibway. Her profound knowledge of indigenous culture influenced her work greatly. As Louise also was brought up in Catholic traditions, Christian world perception is reflected in her novels parallel to traditional Indian beliefs. The writer's grandfather, Patrick, is a typical example of such a combination of faiths as Cryer writes (Cryer, 1986: 20): the old man confessed to religions at once, Catholicism and Chippewa religion. As L. Erdrich reminisces, his faith was so genuine that he made Pipe of Peace smoking ritual during Catholic ceremonies (Bruchac, 1987: 78). This peculiarity of L. Erdrich's mentality is reflected in her protagonists' characters who become true Catholic missionaries though confessing a hybrid faith. More over, in "Tracks" the writer traces the main character's faith evolution. Pauline (one of the three main heroes) is a sincere Christ's follower in spite of her Chippewa religious background. It

shows that 500-years-old Catholic expansion and the deep-rooted history of Ojibway tribe are reflected in Erdrich's fiction.

The following **methods** are used in the research:

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The reasons Louise Erdrich uses Ojibwe borrowings:

- 1) Ojibwe is the second language for her, she reflects her progress in mastering it in her novels. Agnes\Damien from "The Last Report on the Miracles at Little No Horse" is the literary embodiment of the novelist, the protagonist experiences the same difficulties as she does. As a result, the learning of the language influenced her development as a writer. This is what she states about it: "Slowly the language has crept into my writing, replacing a word here, a concept there, beginning to carry weight" (Erdrich, 2000).
- 2) Her use of language may be comic as in the case of mischievous Nanapush (the trickster), but mainly it is used to educate her readers to show that Ojibwemovin is a **living** language.
- 3) In the first version of "Love Medicine", 1984 there were no Ojibwe borrowings, though in the expanded version of it, dated 1993 there are plenty of them. For instance, the character of "Love Medicine" Eli calls himself "Ekewaynzee" ("Akiwenzii") which means "old man". Maybe L. Erdrich's commercial success afforded her to use "old language". As for the other novels, there is no Ojibwemovin in "The Beet Queen", only some of it in "Tales of Burning Love" and "Master Butchers Singing Club". There are many Ojibwemovin borrowings in "The Last Report on the Miracles at Little No Horse", "Antelope Wife", "Four Souls" and "The Painted Drum".

- 4) Ojibwemovín for Natives has a protective power. In “The Bingo Palace”, for example, characters Gerry Nanapush and Lipsha speak it for the former not to be revealed by the police.
- 5) A person’s responsibilities are usually pronounced in old language. In “Tales of Burning Love” drunk Jack setting the fire in his newly built house says “booshkay neen” (“booshke giniin”) which means “it’s up to you, it’s your decision”.
- 6) In “Antelope Wife” powerful characters usually speak Ojibwemovín. Readers can guess about the meanings of some of the borrowings, but not all. An old woman killed by Scranton says to him “daashkikaala” – “cracked apart” which means that after committing the crime the protagonist becomes spiritually broken, cursed, – “cracked apart” (Erdrich, 2001: 213). To keep readers’ interest Louise Erdrich gives only vague translation of the phrases used in the episode.
- 7) Sometimes (as it happened in “The Last Report on the Miracles at Little No Horse”) there is no translation of Ojibwemovín at all. The writer gives several extended passages only with her general hints.
- 8) L. Erdrich changes the spelling of some of Ojibwe borrowings (the same as characters’ names, for example, “Nanabozho” (the name of the great Indian trickster) she substitutes by “Nanapush”, etc. Ojibwemovín was originally a spoken, not a written language, there is neither alphabet of its own, nor standard English spelling for many words. Spelling becomes complicated by differences in dialects: instead of *p – b* or *d* can be used; *k* is substituted by *g*; *z* – by *s*; *j* by *tch*; *a* – by *aa*, *ii* – by *ee*, etc. Canadian forms differ from the US ones. Dictionaries can not catch all the changes. Speaking about the reasons the writer does it, here are some of them: 1) probably she doesn’t want all non-Indian readers know some expressions, thus, her works become only for the “chosen”. She stated that in private correspondence with Beidler and Barton (Beidler and Barton, 2006); 2) Evidently, in her novels there is some information meant only for Ojibwe people, this important message is expressed in their Ojibwemovín, sacred for them; 3) L. Erdrich may want to encourage people to learn their old language showing that it’s NOT rudimental.

Results

The borrowings in Chippewa language used in L. Erdrich’s fiction perform several functions:

- draw the attention of Non-Indian community to the urgent problems of Native Americans, promoting and saving the indigenous culture;

- convey hidden cross-cultural information “enciphered” in L. Erdrich’s novels;
- forecast protagonists’ future preparing readers to perceive the writer’s main ideas;
- point out connotatively colored elements showing the novelist and her characters’ expressivity and concernment.

Conclusions

1. To add dictionaries to the novels with various forms of spelling, especially where the context is not clear. However, differences in spelling (*neshke* / *neshkey* / *nashke* = “look, behold”) cause problems locating the word;
2. Readers have to have background knowledge in order to guess about the “ciphered” word correctly (for example, Kitchi Manitou, Indian Supreme God may be spelt as *kitchi manitiminin* / *gichi-manidoo* / *kitchi manitiminin*);
3. The writer plays with her readers to keep them interested to draw the attention of Indian (non-Indian) readers. She encourages Natives to study their old language because learning language testifies about the revival of culture.

Taking into account the results obtained, we consider it reasonable to keep investigating Native American fiction. Indigenous mentality differs much for Non-Indian world perception. For not Native-born researchers and readers not to misinterpret the work of Indian authors it’s necessary to be aware of cross-cultural peculiarities and beliefs. Borrowings are a helpful “tool” used by Louise Erdrich to convey the hidden cross-cultural messages.

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HAPPINESS IN THE CONTEXT OF LATVIANS

LAIME LATVISKĀ KONTEKSTĀ

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Abstract

The article inspects the question of Latvian identity, tradition and conditions of its development, the personality self, self-esteem and the conception of happiness. Methods used for the output of information are observational research and content analysis.

National identity is a bordering feeling which unites individuals and separates the categories of “we” and “they”. The sense of national identity gives the individual a chance to become aware of the personal self through the prism of specific national culture. To understand the essentials of a nation, it is necessary to take into consideration 1) historical evidence; 2) analysis of contemporary situation; 3) forecasts of future processes.

The self consists of the relationship between the individual and the society, it develops in the interaction of private and public spheres. Self-esteem and self-reflection are significant aspects of the self. Being aware of the personal uniqueness, the individual still preserves the sense of belonging to a certain community. The social standing is the main factor of personal perception of values, feeling of comfort and happiness.

Research of happiness is nowadays one of the interdisciplinary research trends in social sciences. The notion of “happiness” designates affective and cognitive aspects of a general situation. The philosophers are trying to formulate what is a “happy life”, the psychologists are attempting to distinguish different types of happiness and to make them measurable, and the economists are researching the connection between the income and happiness.

This article deals with the problem interpreting the happiness in context of Latvians regarding philosophical, psychological and economical aspects.

Conclusions:

1. There are two notions of happiness: a) Laima as a goddess; 2) happiness as a pleasurable life.
2. The comprehension of happiness is determined by intellectual and psychical factors.
3. The happiness is connected to social and material factors.

Keywords: Latvian identity, the self, happiness.

Ievads

Laimes jēdziens ir visaptverošs, daudzveidīgs, katram zināms, bet vienlaikus arī neizdibināms un mūžīgs. Rietumu, kā arī Austrumu kultūras vēsturē var saskatīt dažādas teorijas un koncepcijas, kā arī ceļus un virzienus, kas raksturo laimi, ved uz laimi, vai vismaz ļauj tai tuvoties. Laimes koncepts ieņem svarīgu vietu antīkajā filosofijā, kur kā galvenais laimes nosacījums tika izvirzīta sevis pazīšana un dzīves māksla. Laime ir piepildīta dzīve, kurai ir jēga tikai tad, ja ir skaidrība par to, ko no tās gribam un kā iegūstams tas, ko dzīve var dot. Tātad, cilvēka liktenis ir atkarīgs no viņa zināšanām, no viņa spējas disciplinēt savas domas, jo doma ir tā, kas padara cilvēku skumju vai priecīgu, laimīgu vai nelaimīgu. Kā spilgtu piemēru varētu minēt Sokrātu, kura dzīves stils un apstākļi pēc vispārpieņemtiem standartiem nekādi neatbilda priekšstatam par laimīgu cilvēku. Nebūtu daudz tādu, kuri par savu darbu atteiktos no atalgojuma. Kad kāds no Sokrāta skolniekiem viņam pārmeta, ka, valkādams pieticīgas drēbes, ēzdams parastus ēdienus, staigādams

basām kājām, viņš saviem skolniekiem māca ne tik vien kā pieticīgu, bet pat nožēlojamu dzīvi, Sokrāts atbildēja, ka laime nav greznībā, bet gan dzīvē bez vajadzībām. Arī stoīķis Epiktets, neskatoties uz savu smago likteni un nabadzību, jutās laimīgs, jo viņa laimes pamats bija viņa domas, saskaņā ar kurām labāk ar saprātu būt nelaimīgam, nekā bez saprāta laimīgam.

Laires jēdziens plaši skatīts daudzu filosofu darbos. Piemēram, Aristotelis ar laimi saprot dvēseles aktivitāti, kurā izpaužas tikumība. I. Kants definē laimi kā stāvokli, kad viss notiek pēc cilvēka vēlēšanās un gribas. H. Spensers norāda, ka ikvienai tautai un ļaužu grupai ir atšķirīga laimes izpratne. Varētu teikt, ka ētikas vēsturē viens no populārākajiem virzieniem ir eidemonisms (no gr. *eudaimonija* – svētlaime, laime), kas visu ētiku veido kā laimes mācību. Tas arī saprotams, jo, kā jau 1. gadsimtā teicis Seneka, laimīgi grib dzīvot visi. Pat stoīķis, atsakoties no daudzām tādām lietām, ko citi uzskata par laimes priekšnoteikumu, gūst baudu savā attieksmē. Visi tiecas pēc laimes, atšķiras tikai izpratne un ceļi uz šo mērķi. Acīmredzot ne velti pētījumos par laimi akcentētas, ka pastāv simtiem laimes definīciju.

Ar laimi visbiežāk saprot augstāko baudu mērķa sasniegšanā, kur par galvenajiem laimes nosacījumiem tiek uzskatīta veselība, tuvākie cilvēki un darbs. Taču lielu lomu spēlē arī šķietamie ceļi uz laimi – manta un bagātība, sabiedriskais stāvoklis, slava vara, baudas un izpriecas, lielos vilcienos – panākumi dzīvē. Bet ne vienmēr, sasniedzot mērķi un gūstot panākumus, iestājas cerētā laimes izjūta. Tāpēc ētikas aspektā par vienu no augstākajām laimes izpausmēm tiek uzskatīta indivīda saskaņa ar savu sirdsapziņu.

Empīriskie laimes pētījumi

Vārds „laime” apzīmē vispārēja stāvokļa afektīvos un kognitīvos aspektus. Tas ļauj šo fenomenu gan poetizēt, gan arī mēģināt pakļaut zinātniskai izpratnei filosofijas, psiholoģijas, socioloģijas, ekonomikas un fizioloģijas aspektos. Empīriskos pētījumos par laimi var runāt par laimes kritērijiem, par to, vai laime ir izmērāma, vai tai ir „dzimums”, vai tā ir atkarīga no cilvēka individualitātes, vēsturiskajiem apstākļiem vai nacionālās piederības.

Katrā no zinātnēm laimes pētījumiem tiek izmantotas specifiskas metodes, bet visbiežāk tiek ņemti vērā atsevišķu cilvēku izteikumi par to, kā viņi vērtē savu dzīvi, vai viņi ir apmierināti. Interesanti atzīmēt, ka pētījumos iegūtie dati zināmā mērā atšķiras no parastiem ikdienas vērojumiem, “kuluāru” sarunām, kur cilvēki bieži vien akcentē savu neapmierinātību ar dzīvi, sevi, apkārtējiem. Toties situācijā, kad konkrēti jāatbild uz jautājumu – vai tu esi laimīgs vai nelaimīgs -, vairums aizdomājas, un atzīst, ka tomēr ir drīzāk laimīgi nekā nelaimīgi.

Aptaujas metode, kurā reprezentatīvās izlases respondentiem tiek jautāts par to, cik viņi ir apmierināti ar savu dzīvi, atbildei parasti piedāvā dažādas skalas, piemēram, no 10 (pilnīgi

apmierināti) līdz 1 (pilnīgi neapmierināti), kā arī no 1 līdz 4, kur 1 – laimīgs, 2 – drīzāk laimīgs nekā nelaimīgs, 3 – drīzāk nelaimīgs nekā laimīgs, 4 – nelaimīgs. Šo reprezentatīvo laimes aptauju priekšrocība ir to plašā izplatība. „World Value Survey” šodien aptver gandrīz 80% pasaules iedzīvotāju. Ieskatīsimies tabulā, ko sniedz pasaules datu bāze jautājumā par to, cik daudz cilvēku jūtas apmierināti ar savu dzīvi (skala no 1 līdz 10).

<i>Augstākie rezultāti</i> > 7,7		<i>Vidējie rezultāti</i>		Igaunija	Latvija	Lietuva	<i>Zemākie rezultāti</i> < 4	
Dānija	8,2	Filipīnas	6,4	5,1	4,7	4,6	Armēnija	3,7
Šveice	8,1	Indija	6,2				Ukraina	3,6
Austrija	8,0	Irāna	6,0				Moldova	3,5
Īslande	7,8	Polija	5,9				Zimbabve	3,3
Somija	7,7	Dienvīdkoreja	5,8				Tanzānija	3,2

(Sk. World database of happiness)

Var redzēt, ka visvairāk apmierināti ar savu dzīvi ir ekonomiski attīstītu valstu iedzīvotāji. Taču jāatzīst, ka šādu aptauju rezultāti tomēr nedod pamatu tālejošiem secinājumiem par laimi, jo laime nav atkarīga tikai no ekonomiskajiem rādītājiem. Tā lielā mērā ir subjektīvs fenomens. Ne visi grib būt laimīgi vienādā veidā, bet tas nozīmē, ka pastāv ļoti atšķirīgas laimes izpratnes un kritēriji. Piemēram, vācu filozofs V. Šmids atzīmē, ka mūsdienās laimes jēdziens visbiežāk tiek definēts „caur” labsajūtu, labu noskaņojumu, tādējādi sekojot Dž. Loka 1690. gadā izteiktajam apgalvojumam, ka daba cilvēkā ielikusi „tiekšanos pēc laimes” un „pretošanos ciešanām” (Šmids, 2008).

Pētot laimes izpausmes, dažādu nozaru zinātnieki, savākuši tūkstošiem visdažādāko kultūru un indivīdu ziņojumus, secināja, ka laime lielos vilcienos ir starpkulturāli vienāds stāvoklis. Piemēram, Ķīnas mājsaimniece jūt līdzīgi Holivudas aktierim, jo „visu laimīgo” ziņojumos kopīgs bija tas, ka viņi visi jutās *viegli*, spārnoti, ikdienas rūpju neiespaidoti. Ja laimes stāvokli saista ar viegluma sajūtu, nav pamata domāt, ka bagātie ir laimīgāki un „līdinās” biežāk nekā nabagie, ka gudrie un izglītotie ir laimīgāki par mazāk zinošajiem. Izvēršot šo izpratni, atliek secināt, ka laimes stāvoklim nav nekā kopīga ar ārējiem faktoriem vai sociālām īpatnībām. Tomēr, kā jau iepriekš minēts, ir arī cita veida secinājumi, kas liecina par to, ka attieksme pret laimi un tās izpausmēm var būt atkarīga no indivīda piederības kādai no lielajām grupām, tostarp arī nācijai. Piemēram, amerikāņi uzskata par savu pienākumu būt laimīgiem un šo laimi ārēji demonstrēt. Francijā, gluži pretēji, ir nepiedienīgi afišēt savu laimīgumu. Š. de Golls pat esot izteicies, ka tikai idioti ir laimīgi.

Arī vācieši un ziemeļu tautu pārstāvji labprātāk akcentē savu „pasaules sāpi”, laimei un priekam atstājot intīmākas izpausmes.

Pētījumos par laimi ne reti tiek uzsvērts, ka nepastāv specifiski, nozīmīgi laimīguma faktori un ikviens pats izšķiras par to, vai jūtas laimīgs vai nelaimīgs.

Ikdienā bieži dzirdams apgalvojums – cik cilvēku, tik laimes izpratņu, jo laime ir subjektīva, individuāla, svārstīga, pretrunīga. „Neviens nevar izrauties no savas individualitātes. Viņa iespējamās laimes mēru jau iepriekš ir noteikusi viņa individualitāte” (Šopenhauers, 2006, 19.). Tomēr personības patība ietver sevī indivīda un sabiedrības attiecības. Tā veidojas publiskā un privātā lauka mijiedarbībā. Apzinoties savu neatkārtojamību, indivīds saglabā piederības sajūtu konkrētai kopienai, kur nacionālā identitāte ir kā robežizjūta, kas apvieno indivīdus un nošķir kategorijās „mēs” un „viņi”. Nacionālās identitātes apziņa dod cilvēkam iespēju caur specifisku tautas kultūras prizmu apzināties savu patību un veidot pašvērtējumu.

Refleksija par latvisko laimes izpratni

Lielu ieguldījumu latviešu tautas dzīves gudrības izpētē devis P. Birkerts. Plašā pētījuma „Latvju tautas dzīves gudrība” pirmais sējums veltīts laimes problēmas detalizētai izpētei. Autors, balstoties uz latviešu tautas sakāmvārdiem, parunām un citiem folkloras materiāliem, tiecas pierādīt, ka latvieši ir ne vien dziedātāja, bet arī domātāja tauta, jo „...latvju tautas gara mantās, resp. folklorā, sevišķi viņas sakāmvārdos, ir nesalīdzināmi vairāk filozofijas kā kura katra, pat vislielākā individuālfilozofa darbos”(Birkerts, 1937, 4.). P. Birkerta grāmata sastāv no četrpadsmit nodaļām, kurās skaidrots laimes jēdziens un tās būtība, laimes iedarbība uz cilvēku, laimes gaita, tautas gudrība par nelaimi, laimes un nelaimes fiziskie faktori, kā arī laimes un nelaimes materiālie, psihiskie, intelektuāli-ideoloģiskie, sociālie, ētiskie faktori. Interesantā rakursā skatīta individuālā ētika un „dzīves takts” kā laimes un nelaimes faktori. Ar dzīves taktu Birkerts saprot, dzīves mākslu, prasmi tikt ar cilvēkiem un ar tiem sadzīvot. Dzīves māksla satur tautas atziņas par laimi un tās sasniegšanu: „neskrej laimei pakaļ skriešus”, „neskrien tīši nelaime”, „nepalaid muti”, „labāk pa priekšu par cūkšanu un tad par kungu nekā otrādi”, „ja tu negribi, lai tevi cūkas apēd, tad netaisies starp sēnalām”, „neej otra pirtī pērties”, „kas vecumā grib jauns būt, tam vajag jaunībā vecam būt”, „kā tu citam, tā cits tev”, „labs nāk ar gaidīšanu”, „dari ko darīdams, apdomā galu”(Birkerts, 1937).

Rūpīgi vāktie folkloras materiāli vispārinātā veidā atspoguļo tautas gudrību. Te nevar noliegt to, ka individuālo laimes izpratni nosaka attiecīgajā sabiedrībā valdošie stereotipi un vērtības, kas mudina meklēt laimi ārpus sevis. Saskaņā ar seno latviešu ticējumiem galvenā mūža lēmēja un noteicēja ir Laima, kas savā ziņā līdzinās citu tautu likteņu dievēm, bet viņas darbības lauks ietver sevī arī paša indivīda aktivitātes un nopelnus. Laimas svarīgākais uzdevums – lemt cilvēka likteni,

iezmēt viņa mūža ritumu, bet tas nebūt nenozīmē, ka visi tiek padarīti vienādi laimīgi. "Es savai Laimīnai, /Mūžam laba nevēlēju, /kam tā manu mūžu lēma /Uz asaru avotiņu" (Birkerts, 1937). Arī Z. Freids atzīmējis, ka „radīšanas” plānā acīmredzot nav ietverts nolūks darīt cilvēku laimīgu, jo visi tiecas pēc laimes, grib ne tikai kļūt laimīgi, bet arī tādi palikt. Taču tas praktiski nav iespējams, kaut vai tāpēc, ka „laime pieder tam, kas ar sevi ir mierā”, „laime iesākas tur, kur vēlēšanās beidzas”. Būt mierā ar sevi, spēt pielāgoties apstākļiem, mainīt sevi nevis apstākļus, akli nesekot savām vēlmēm, neuzķerties uz „baudas āķa” – tas viss raksturo nobriedušu, iespējams, arī laimīgu cilvēku. Bet vairumā gadījumu ilgošanās pēc laimes ir spēcīgāka par laimes izjūtu un katra apmierināta vēlme rada tikai mirkļa labsajūtu. Kā saka R.Kaudzīte, „Laime, ka laimes nava pasaulē” (Kaudzīte, 1973, 125.).

Runājot par latvisko laimes izpratni, sastopamies ar vairākiem izplatītiem pieņēmumiem, kuri tiek gan apstrīdēti, gan arī uzturēti un attīstīti. Galvenokārt tas ir mīts par 700 gadu ilgo sveštautu ietekmi, kas neļāva tautai veidot un dzīvot patstāvīgu politisku un sabiedrisku dzīvi. „Lai arī viņiem netrūkst nekādu gara dāvanu, bet sabiedriskās tieksmes trūkuma dēļ viņi nav neko ievērojamu sasnieguši.. Eiropā nevarētu minēt nevienu tautu, par kuru latvieši nebūtu glēvāki. ..Viņi ir mīkstsirdīgi, bailīgi, bērnīšķīgi, poētiski, fantastīgi un pilnīgi padevīgi savam liktenim. ..Kā kāds augs viņš ir iesakņojies savas dzimtenes zemē, kas ir viņa paradīze, par spīti visām mokām un raizēm, ko šī paradīze viņam dod. ..Nogrimuši savu slavas un bēdu dziesmu valstī, viņi aizmirst reālās dzīves nelaimi” (Šmits, 1940, 1012.-1013.). Būdams apspiests un nabags, katrs vairāk pievēršas sev un domā tikai par savu individuālo labumu. Arī P. Birkerta pētījums, pamatojoties uz folkloras materiāliem, parāda latvieša individuālisma tieksmes. ”Katrs pats savas laimes kalējs”, ”Kad laimes zirgs stāv pie tava staļļa, tad ved viņu pie savas siles” (Birkerts, 1937).

Nabadzība un trūkums, protams, nevairo ne atsevišķa indivīda, ne arī tautas pašapziņu. Tāpēc mūsdienu latvietim piedēvētā skaudība, mantrausība un karjerisms, iespējams, sakņojas vēsturiskajos apstākļos, jo attiecība starp ienākumiem un apmierinātību ar dzīvi ir viens no biežāk minētajiem laimes raksturotājelementiem. P. Birkerts norāda, ka bagātība ir viena no visvairāk kārotajām lietām pasaulē, par ko liecina arī šī jautājuma vispusīgais atspoguļojums latviešu tautas dzīves gudrībā. Te bagātība raksturota gan laimes, gan nelaimes aspektā. Bagātība dod cilvēkam iespējas apmierināt gan dabas dotās, gan arī sociālās vajadzības, padara viņu brīvāku un līdz ar to arī laimīgāku, tiesa, pie nosacījuma, ka materiālā labklājība kalpo kā ideāls, uz kuru tiekties, nevis kļūst par pašmērķi. „Lops zin savu mēru, tik cilvēks vien to nezina”, „Jo vairāk medu ēd, jo rūgtāka mute” (Birkerts, 1937.). Bagātība vilina cilvēku, kamēr viņam tās nav, bet iegūta nereti sagādā vilšanos un nedod cerēto laimi, jo manta ir kā jūras ūdens – jo vairāk dzer, jo vairāk slāpst. Tiesa, arī

bagātība un nabadzība ir relatīvs jēdziens, jo manta pati par sevi ir nedzīva, tās vērtību nosaka attieksme. Raksturojot latvieti vēsturiskā kontekstā, redzam, ka bagātība nav primārais laimes priekšnoteikums, drīzāk pat pretēji - par bagātību runā ar zināmu ironiju vai pat nepatiku. Iespējams, tā ir viena no latviskās mentalitātes izpausmēm, jo šāda attieksme popularizēta arī daudzos literāros darbos, kur labie latvieši ir nabadzīgie latvieši, bet „bagātie radi” ir ļaunuma iemiesojums. Bagātais Akmentiņš nav cienīgs iekarot Kristīnes sirdi, jo tur jau iemājojis plencis un tukšinieks Edgars, ”Ezera sonātes” Laura atsakās no stabila, materiāli nodrošināta vīrieša, acīmredzot savas dzīves jēgu redzot pienākumā pret „pavieгло” Riču. Par šādas attieksmes kvintesenci var uzskatīt populāro K. Skalbes pasaku par vērdiņu, kur nabadzīgais pirtnieks Ansis atrod laimes vērdiņu, kas, tiklīdz izdots, tūlīt atgriežas atpakaļ. Varētu jau priecāties, ka kādam ir paveicies, bet, kā zinām, stāstā ir cita morāle: Ansis caurām dienām sēž tirgū pie naudas mijēju galda un maina savu vērdiņu, tādējādi iedzīvodamies zeltā un sudrabā. Viņam jau pieder puse pilsētas, bet Ansis nav laimīgs, jo nevar pārstāt mainīt savu vērdiņu, lai nepalaistu garām jaunas bagātības. Kļuvis bagāts, viņš ir zaudējis savas pozitīvās īpašības. Latvijā augsni šādai attieksmei, iespējams, sagatavoja hernhūtisma tradīcijas, kas sludināja nepretošanos ļaunumam, nesaistīšanos ar materiālo pasauli.

Minētie piemēri liecina par tādu kā savdabīgu mazohismu, laimi ciešanās, kas tiek uzskatīta par vēl vienu, latvietim raksturīgu, pasaules uzskata iezīmi. Pati par sevi ciešanu pastāvēšana ir objektīva: ķermenis ir pakļauts sāpēm un lemts sabrukšanai, ār pasaules ietekme ir neprognozējama un daudzos gadījumos nepārvarama, attiecības ar līdzcilvēkiem nes sev līdzī ne tikai prieku. „Tā patiešām ir vislielākā ačgārnība – tiekties pārvērst šo posta izrādes vietu par izpriecas vietu un par mērķi izraudzīties nevis iespējami mazākas sāpes, bet gan baudījumus un priekus, kā daudzi gan rīkojas. Daudz mazāk aļoas tas, kas drūmā skatījumā šo pasauli redz kā sava veida elli un tāpēc tiecas tikai pēc tā, lai rastu tajā ugunsdrošu istabu” (Šopenhauers, 2007, 91.). Tradicionālā izpratnē ciešanas ir laimes pretnostatījums, nelaimes izpausme. Bet par vienu no latviskā pasaules uzskata paradoksiem varam uzskatīt ciešanu pārvēršanos par būtisku laimes faktoru. Lielos vilcienos tas ir saprotams, jo, ja nebūtu bēdu, mēs nezinātu, kas ir prieki,- ciešanas cilvēku norūda. Latvietim ciešanas ir kaut kas vairāk, tas ir savdabīgs dzīves stils, gadsimtiem ilgi kultivētais „bārenītes sindroms”. Raksturojot latvisko mentalitāti, mēdz akcentēt to, ka latvietis pārsvarā ir emocionāls, jūtu cilvēks, kuram ilgošanās pēc laimes ir spēcīgāka par laimes izjūtu. Sapņojot par laimes putnu un prātojot par to, „kur mīt mana ziemeļmeita”, latvietis lielāko dzīves daļu ir „hroniski nelaimīgs”, jo viņa ideāli, saskaroties ar dzīves realitāti, nereti lemti bojāejai. J. Poruka Ansis, neatradis savas pērles, aiziet no šīs pasaules nesaprasts un arī nesapratis, kur ir viņa vieta un kur mīt viņa laime. Dauka aizairējas līdz horizontam, bet tā vietā, lai noskaidrotu, kas aiz tā slēpjas, un irtos atpakaļ,

viņš iet bojā. V. Plūdoņa atraitnes dēlam, kura ciešanu kauss jau pašos pirmsākumos ir piepildīts, arī nav lemts īstenot savus sapņus. Šādu piemēru latviešu literatūrā nav mazums. Pat mūsu varonis Lačplēsis neuzvar Melno bruņinieku. Tiesa, viņš arī nezaudē, bet gals vienalga ir traģisks.

Ciešanu iespējamība var likt cilvēkam piezemēt savas pretenzijas uz laimi un justies laimīgam, ja vismaz ir izdevies izvairīties no ciešanām.

Gan literārie darbi, gan tautas folklorā parāda laimes izpratnes daudzveidību un pretrunīgumu. Var teikt, ka sapņi un ideāli ir būtisks laimes priekšnoteikums, bet vienlaikus arī nelaimes avots. Sapņi par ideālu, kuru sasniegšana iestāsies cerētā laime, nereti sagādā vilšanos, jo varbūt pārāk daudz spēka patērēts ceļā; ideāls tuvplānā vairs nešķiet tik pievilcīgs un to jau sāk aizēnot nākamā vēlme. Tāpēc viena no spilgtākajām atziņām laimes pētījumos ir tā, ka laime nav ilgstošs process. „Ikdienas māte raušus necep”, „Laime nepastāv mūžīgi”. Visam gan dabā, gan cilvēka dzīvē ir savs ritms, un arī laimes plūdumā ir kāpumi un kritumi. Situācijas ilgstamība rada pieradumu, izraisa apnikumu un vienaldzību. Laime biežāk tiek saprasta kā epizodisks fenomens, kurš praktiski nepakļaujas kvantificēšanai – vairāk laimes, ļoti daudz laimes, nebeidzama laime, maza, vidēja vai liela laime – , tie ir tikai vārdi, kuriem nav objektīva seguma.

Redzams, ka ir ļoti daudz aspektu, kā pētīt laimi un kā interpretēt un izmantot pētījumos gūtos rezultātus. Taču visos gadījumos izkristalizējas kopīga atziņa – ikvienam ir tiesības uz laimi un tai vienmēr būs subjektīva orientācija. Empīriskie laimes mērījumi nenosaka no ārpuses, kas cilvēkam dzīvē būtu jāvērtē visaugstāk. Tie tikai fiksē cilvēka subjektīvo apmierinātību vai neapmierinātību ar dzīvi. Tiesa, pastāv arī tā saucamie laimes indikatori, piemēram, Apvienoto Nāciju Attīstības programmas sastādītais „Cilvēces attīstības rādītājs”, kurā paredzēti tādi kritēriji, kā vidējais ienākumu līmenis, vidējais dzīves ilgums, izglītības līmenis. Tomēr gala rezultātā tikai cilvēks pats var novērtēt savu apmierinātību, laimes vai nelaimes mēru. Nemeklē laimi citur – laime ir pie tevis pašā.

Secinājumi

1. Laimes problēmai ir sena vēsture, kuras aizsākumi meklējami antīkajā filosofijā.
2. Vārds „laime” apzīmē vispārēja stāvokļa afektīvos un kognitīvos aspektus. Tas ļauj šo fenomenu gan poetizēt, gan arī mēģināt pakļaut zinātniskai izpētei.
3. Empīriskiem laimes pētījumiem socioloģijas, psiholoģijas, ekonomikas ietvaros, pamatā tiek izmantota aptaujas metode.

4. Pētījumu rezultāti ļauj izdarīt dažādus, zināmā mērā atšķirīgus secinājumus: laimes izpratne ir iekšēja, subjektīva vai arī to nosaka indivīda piederība kādai no lielajām grupām, tostarp arī nācijai.

5. Latviskajā laimes izpratnē dominē individuālisms un ciešanu motīvs.

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ENVIRONMENTAL CULTURE – AN ESSENTIAL COMPOUND OF THE EUROPEAN LIFE-STYLE

VIDES KULTŪRA – BŪTISKA EIROPEISKĀ DZĪVESVEIDA SASTĀVDAĻA

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Abstract. Contemporary philosophy and sociology denies sharp opposition between humans and the forms of natural environment, acknowledging that 1) human beings themselves manifest one the highest forms in the development of life; 2) in the process of socialization pragmatic life-style causes real dangers to diverse natural ecosystems because of the achievements of civilization, science and technology. High technologies replace primitive and brutal forms of production in the post-industrial society. As a result new global forms of consumption and satisfaction of vital needs are developing, characterized by ecological products, life in sustainable natural environment. The culture of a healthy life-style.

Key words: European standards of quality of life, human rights and forms of socialization, environmental values, cultural forms of social life and organization.

Tēmu „Vides kultūra – būtiska eiropēiskā dzīvesveida sastāvdaļa” var skatīt no trīs aspektiem: **filosofiskā, sociālā un kultūrvides didaktiskā** aspekta.

Mūsdienu **filosofija** un socioloģija noraida krasu cilvēka un dabiskās vides formu pretstatījumu, atzīstot, ka 1) cilvēks pats iezīmē vienu no dzīvās dabas attīstības augstākajām formām; 2) socializācijas procesā, ņemot vērā civilizācijas, zinātnes un tehnikas sasniegumus, cilvēku sabiedrības pragmatiskais dzīvesveids rada reālus draudus daudzveidīgajām dabas ekosistēmām. Postindustriālajā sabiedrībā, kur primitīvas un brutālas ražošanas formas nomaina augstās tehnoloģijas, attīstās globālas patēriņa un cilvēka vitālo vajadzību apmierināšanas formas, kur dominē ekoloģiskie patēriņa produkti, dzīve koptas un sakārtotas dabas vidē, augsta, cilvēkam veselīga dzīvesveida kultūra.

Materiālistiskais priekšstats par lietām un vides parādībām vienkāršo cilvēka un kultūrvides attiecības, reducējot tās tikai uz ekonomiskās dzīves un ražošanas tendencēm. Mūsdienu Rietumu filosofijas virzieni, tai skaitā fenomenoloģija, uzskata lietu pasauli kā cilvēka garīgo struktūru turpinājumu materiālās vides veidojumos. To raksturo intencionalitātes kategorija. Esamības parādību, to jēgas izpratne un kultūrvides veidošana saistās ar mūsu apziņas īpašo aktivitāti un virzību. Sakarā ar to vides stāvoklis un mūsu dzīves telpas arhitektūra pieder pie mainīgiem un dinamiskiem dzīves kvalitātes rādītājiem. Tāpēc to izmaiņu cēloņi jāmeklē ne tikai civilizācijas materiālo nosacījumu faktoros, bet indivīda apziņas priekšstatos par lietu pasauli un tās kārtību. To apliecina atšķirīgās dažādu pasaules tautu vides veidošanas kultūrtradīcijas un to modeļi.

Absolutizējot ražošanas un ekonomisko faktoru lomu, mēs nonākam pie vides un lietu pasaules indiferentas izpratnes, kas tiek reducēta tikai uz apkārtējās pasaules atspoguļojumu mūsu apziņā. Pretējais viedoklis savukārt izceļ mūsu apziņas aktīvo lomu un stimulē vai pieprasa apkārtējās vides harmonisku sakārtotību un funkcionālo optimizāciju atbilstoši mūsu gaumes estētiskajām un ētiskajām prasībām.

Tieši šeit jāmeklē cēlonis indivīda pasivitātei vai – pretēji – aktīvajai tieksmei izmainīt apkārtējās vides kārtību un organizāciju šīs kārtības uzturēšanā, veidojot to pēc kultūrvides standartiem. Tie savukārt mainās atbilstīgi cilvēka kā sociālas būtnes priekšstatu maiņai par lietu pasauli. Vidi nedrīkst reducēt tikai uz civilizācijas pragmatiskiem mērķiem; tās nozīme indivīda dzīvē ir daudz plašāka un skar viņa eksistences bioloģiskos nosacījumus un kultūras izpratnes pamatus.

Kultūra eksistē divās universālās dimensijās: vēsturiskajā telpā un vēsturiskajā laikā. Vēsturisko telpu raksturo tādi jēdzieni kā etnosa apdzīvojamais areāls jeb kultūrreģions, kurā pastāv viņa sociālās eksistences atstātie veidojumi, relikti – pagātnes priekšmetiskās liecības un pieminekļi, kas atklāj pagātnes mantojuma aksioloģisko un māksliniecisko kvalitāti.

Vēsturiskā telpa veido kultūras mantojuma konservatīvo, paliekošo daļu, bet vēsturiskais laiks iezīmē kultūras attīstības dinamisko daļu, kas tiek fiksēta pārdzīvojamā laika kultūrsituācijās un zīmēs, ko raksturo tradīcijas kategorija. Kultūrapziņas veidošanu, ieskaitot priekšstatu par kultūrvidi, raksturo šo tradīciju rekonstrukcija indivīda apziņā, kas ir arī viens no vēstures izziņas veidiem vispār. Tradīciju rekonstrukcija kultūras apziņā dod iespēju realizēt vienu no būtiskajām kultūras pastāvēšanas funkcijām - vēsturiskā laika nepārtrauktības pārmantojamību. Vācu filosofs Hanss Gādameris (*Hans Georg Gadamer*; 1900-2002) izsaka brīdinājumu mūsdienu cilvēkiem, ka, zaudējot kultūras mantojuma apziņu, pār indivīda apziņu reālajā dzīvē sāk dominēt bailes, kas padara viņu par manipulācijas un agresijas upuri totalitāru spēku rokās, netieši mudina uz nihilisma izpausmēm un vardarbības aktiem pret esošajām kultūras vērtībām.

Vides kultūras **sociālais** aspekts saistās ar postindustriālās sabiedrības organizāciju un spēju optimāli sakārtot apkārtējās vides eksistences nosacījumus. Tas izpaužas šādos veidos: 1) sabiedrības materiālo vajadzību apmierināšanai jābūt tādai, kas ir videi draudzīga, nodrošina materiālo resursu atjaunošanu un iestājas pret tās degradāciju; 2) mūsdienu sabiedrības interese būtu virzāma uz plašāku t.s. bezatlikumu tehnoloģiju sasniegumu izmantošanu, kas garantē dabas resursu saglabāšanu ilgtermiņā un nodrošina pakāpenisku to dabiskās reģenerācijas procesu; 3) sociālpsiholoģisko pētījumu atziņas liecina, ka kultūrvides faktors ir saistīts ar cilvēka organisma

bioloģisko spēju un veselības nodrošināšanas nosacījumiem, kas savukārt ietekmē demogrāfiskos procesus un veicina optimālu dzīves kvalitāti un pozitīvu psiholoģisko klimatu.

Nemot vērā mūsu dzīves intensitāti, daudzveidīgās stresa situācijas, videi un dabai var būt jo īpaši liela loma cilvēka veselības atjaunināšanā, rehabilitācijā. Bieži mūsdienu steigā tiek aizmirsts, ka cilvēks pats ir dzīvās dabas sastāvdaļa, tāpēc arvien no jauna jāatgādina Ruso izteiktā doma par cilvēka atgriešanos pie tā dabiskajiem izcelšanās pamatiem. Vesels cilvēka organisms aktualizējas kā šodienas eiropiskās dzīves kvalitātes rādītājs.

Mūsdienu globalizācijas un komunikāciju laikmetā nozīmīgs jautājums- kur dzīvos 21. gadsimta cilvēks. Arī avangarda arhitektūra, meklējot šo atbildi, saista to ar cilvēka dabiskās vides jeb māju jēdzienu. Tas nozīmē, ka pagātnē pakāpeniski aiziet cilvēku sablīvēšana lielās daudzstāvu mājās un kompaktās slēgtās telpās. Tiesa, 20. gadsimta otrajā pusē pasaulē ir radīti arī eksperimentāli dzīvojamo māju rajoni, kur katrs dzīvoklis mājā veidots pēc individuāla projekta. Piemēram, dzīvojamo māju komplekss Ženēvā dzelzceļa stacijas tuvumā.

Dzīves telpas organizācijā būtiska loma piemīt mūsdienu Latvijas arhitektūras tendencēm, kurās vērojama atkalatgriešanās pie 19./20. gadsimtu mijas Rietumeiropas dārzu pilsētu idejas (Krastiņš, 1997, 16. un 18. lpp.) un kas veiksmīgi realizējās Mežaparka izbūvē, jo tieši individualizētais katras ģimenes mājas akcents bija šīs veiksmes noteicējs (Krastiņš, 1997, 70. lpp.). Paies kāds laiks un arī Latvijā vadīsies pēc principa mājai „izvēlēties labus materiālus, prātīgas vietas celtniecībai un apsildīt ar tādiem enerģijas avotiem, kas netērē resursus un nesabojā klimatu” (Bokalders, 2007), kas ir t.s. ekoloģiskās arhitektūras pamatprincips.

Nākotne pieder indivīda individuālās dzīves zonai, kas izsakāma devīzē „Arhitektūra kā mājas”. Tas nozīmē, ka bieži vien bezpersoniskā darba vide un dzīves telpas organizācija mājas vidē tiks kompensēta ar radošo komponentu, individuālo gaumes un estētisko prasību piepildīšanu. Un diez vai ilgs mūžs būs tādiem arhitektoniskiem eksperimentiem, kas dzīvojamo telpu paredzēs bijušo rūpnīcu vai cietumu pārveidotā variantā.

Kultūrvides didaktiskais aspekts. Eiropas tradīcija vides kopšanā uz saglabāšanā dibinās uz saimnieka, īpašnieka apziņas ieaudzināšanu indivīdā. Saimnieks, īpašnieks ir tas, kas nodrošina apdzīvojamās telpas (areāla) sakopšanu, veidošanu, uzturēšanu. Postsociālisma Latvijā šī ir vislielākā problēma, jo vairāk nekā 50 gadus mēs bijām šķirti no eiropiskām vides uzturēšanas tradīcijām. Daba lielākoties tika uztverta kā izejvielu avots. Privātīpašums tika iznīcināts, privātīpašnieki pasludināti par tautas ienaidniekiem. Ilgstoši – vairāk nekā 50 gadu garumā - maz rūpējoties par tās resursu saglabāšanu, atjaunošanu un dzīvās dabas estētiskajām kvalitātēm, Latvijā vēl joprojām pastāv liela nevienmērība vides apsaimniekošanā. Līdzās labi veidotām un izkoptām

kultūrzonām pastāv visai plaši *bezsaimeka* anklāvi un zonas pilsētu un ciemu tuvumā, kas depresīvi ietekmē to tuvumā dzīvojošo cilvēku psihi un uzvedību. Cēlonis vienaldzībai un indifferencei pret apkārtējo vidi meklējams ilgstoši deformētā cilvēka apziņā, ko diemžēl var labot tikai secīga paaudžu nomaina un mērķtiecīga ekoloģiskās audzināšanas sistēma. Šai sistēmā akcents būtu liekams: 1) uz apkārtējās vides neatlaidīgu sakārtošanas un kopšanas iemaņu un prasmju veidošanu; 2) uz kultūrvides veidošanas vīzijas radīšanu, iesaistot jau sākumskolas audzēkņus un, tālāk darbu turpinot ar dažādu klašu skolēniem, vides (ainavu) projektu izstrādāšanā. Lai bērnos un jauniešos veidotu estētisko gaumi, ikdienas ieradumu ap sevi radīt kārtību, sakārtotu vidi, mācību (didaktiskās) metodes ir visdažādākās. Pie šo metožu izveides jāstrādā pedagogiem, lai jauniem cilvēkiem varētu iemācīt niansētu parādību uztveres spēju, kas diemžēl cilvēkā neiedzimst, bet tiek panākta tieši mērķtiecīgas estētiskās audzināšanas rezultātā.

Estētiskā audzināšana cilvēkā veido ne tikai mākslas izpratnes pamatus, bet pozitīvā virzienā ietekmē visu indivīda apziņas stāvokli, padarot to atraktīvāku un paverot iespējas radošai darbībai un veiksmīgai interpersonālai komunikācijai.

Kultūrvides projekti, kas sākotnēji top kā radoši eksperimenti, nākamajos valsts pilsoņos noteikti veidos aktīvu nostāju attieksmē pret vidi degradējošām tendencēm un palīdzēs izkopt organizatoriskas iemaņas un prasmes savu apkārtni harmonizēt.

Jau vairākus gadus LLU Lauku inženieru fakultāte nodrošina ainavu plānošanas un arhitektūras studiju programmu, kas ir pamats kvalificētu speciālistu sagatavošanai kultūrvides kvalitātes nodrošināšanā Latvijas tautsaimnieciskajos apstākļos. Tas rada cerības, ka šie speciālisti mazinās to postu, kas sociālisma laikmetā nodarīts Latvijas videi, ainavai, Latvijas cilvēku apziņai un kas vēl joprojām ir aktuāls. Viņiem būtu iespējas veicināt eiropisko kultūrvides tradīciju atgriešanos Latvijā.

Secinājumi

Mūsdienu sabiedrības postindustriālajā stadijā vides kultūras veidošana un tās standarti ir kļuvuši par būtisku rādītāju, kas apliecina eiropiskās dzīves kvalitātes vērtības.

Uz vides kultūru var lūkoties trīs aspektos - filosofiskā, sociālā un kultūrvides didaktiskā aspektā.

Mūsdienu dzīves telpas organizācijas formas kopj arhitektūra un dizains, kuru risinājumos manāma tendence atteikties no bezpersoniskiem un standartizētiem projektiem, orientējoties uz individualizētu telpas organizāciju un plašu ekoloģisko materiālu pielietojumu kā sabiedrisko, tā privāto ēku projektēšanā. Līdzās ēkām kā būtiska sastāvdaļa ir kļuvušas dažādas ainavu arhitektūras

formas, kas aicinātas kalpot cilvēku rehabilitācijai un estētiskās gaumes kopšanai, atgriežoties pie civilizācijas attīstības dabiskajiem nosacījumiem.

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HERITAGE OF CULTURE HISTORY AS FORMATIVE OF COUNTRY CULTURE CAPITAL

KULTŪRVĒSTURISKAIS MANTOJUMS KĀ LAUKU KULTŪRKAPITĀLU VEIDOJOŠS FAKTORS

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Abstract

Heritage of culture history contains both local historical, cultural, natural monuments and local traditions wherewith it forms determined culture environment. Individual culture capital is closely linked to culture environment where he grows, learns, lives and works, so it is important to look systematically to his living space because it contains wide range of components – social, economical and political factors. Some elements of this system can be more actual in particular situation, but we also have to pay attention to those elements, which seem to be less actual at the moment but are lasting. Culture and culture capital belongs to such elements. In this respect Latvia is enough rich, so we can talk about fixed impression of heritage of culture history to the formation of country-folk culture capital. But at first it is important to find out its level of actuality, in order to develop concrete propositions for situation's optimization. In this presentation the interconnection among inhabitants and local country museums have been examined same as cooperation between museums and local schools and recreation centers. Since museums are not only objects of tourism but also a keeping place for culture heritage, so they are appealed to form particular culture room in concrete geographical territory, that influences both infrastructure and development of social capital.

Keywords: Heritage of culture history, culture capital, culture environment, country.

Kultūrvēsturiskais mantojums sevī ietver gan noteiktā teritorijā atrodošos vēstures, kultūras un dabas pieminekļus, gan tradīcijas, līdz ar to veido noteiktu kultūrvidi. Indivīda kultūrkapitāls ir cieši saistīts ar to kultūrvidi, kurā viņš aug, mācās, dzīvo un strādā, un tāpēc ir svarīgi raudzīties uz indivīda dzīves telpu sistēmiski, jo tā sevī ietver ļoti plašu komponentu loku – sociālos, ekonomiskos un politiskos faktorus. Atsevišķi šīs dzīves telpas elementi var būt aktuālāki konkrētā situācijā, taču ir jāpievērš uzmanība arī tiem, kas varbūt nav mazāk svarīgi, bet ir ilglaicīgi un tāpēc dotajā momentā nešķiet pietiekami aktuāli. Pie šādiem elementiem pieder arī kultūra, kultūrvēsturiskais mantojums. Latvija šajā ziņā ir pietiekami bagāta, lai varētu runāt par noteiktu kultūrvēsturiskā mantojuma ietekmi uz lauku iedzīvotāju kultūrkapitāla veidošanos, taču ir svarīgi noskaidrot tā aktualitātes pakāpi. Līdz ar to darba mērķis ir noskaidrot jēdzienus, kas ir saistīti ar dzīves vides analīzi, kā arī salīdzināt ideālo un faktisko muzeju lomu lauku vidē – pievēršot uzmanību iedzīvotāju attieksmei, kā arī muzeju un pašvaldības attiecībām.

Lauku/pilsētas dzīves dihotomiju nosaka atšķirīgā dzīves vieta un lielākoties nodarbošanās – zemkopība, lopkopība, mežsaimniecība (u.c.). Lauku dzīves vide veido savu, specifisku dzīves telpu, kuru raksturo noteikti rādītāji: fiziskie resursi (lauksaimnieciski izmantojamās un

neizmantojamās zemes, meži, ūdeņi, derīgie izrakteņi), cilvēku resursi (vietējie iedzīvotāji, to demogrāfiskie un profesionālie rādītāji), finansu, organizatoriskie un sociālie resursi. (Козлова,1999.) Kopumā to visu var apzīmēt kā *telpas kapitālu*, kurā ietilpst arī kultūras kapitāls. Pjēra Burdjē ieviestais jēdziens *kultūras kapitāls* ir indivīdu iegūtā izglītība un zināšanas, kas izpaužas kā noteikts gaumju kopums (Burdjē,2004.). Šis kapitāls tiek plaši izmantots kā šķiriskās pozīcijas noteikšanas indikators un bāzes lielums. (Dictionary,2006.) Kaut gan Burdjē koncepcija bieži vien tiek uztverta ierobežoti – tikai kā vērsta uz šķiru attiecību skaidrošanu, tomēr šo jēdzienu ļoti labi var izmantot daudz plašākā kontekstā – šajā gadījumā analizējot lauku dzīves kultūrvidi kā cilvēkresursu nodrošinātāju.

Jēdziens *cilvēkresursi* tieši ir saistīts, protams, ar ekonomiku, taču mūsdienu informatīvā un tehnoloģizētā sabiedrība arī ekonomikas jomā pieprasa, lai indivīdam būtu noteikts izglītības un kultūras līmenis – lai viņš varētu pietiekami efektīvi funkcionēt modernajā ražošanā. Līdz ar to ir svarīgi pievērst īpašu uzmanību tiem apstākļiem, kas tieši vai netieši nodrošina cilvēkresursu nepieciešamo kvalitāti – sākot ar fizisko dzīves vidi, beidzot ar kultūras un izglītības pieejamību. Šajā ziņā lauku dzīves vide Latvijā nereti atpaliek no vēlamās situācijas. Kopumā tas ir jautājums arī par lauku dzīves telpas kultūras kapitālu – ne tikai ar vērstību uz indivīdu, viņa izglītību un kultūras līmeni, bet arī uz lauku sociālo vidi, kuru aktīvi veido gan tradīcija, gan oficiālās institūcijas, gan kultūras novitātes. Faktiski kultūras kapitālu daļēji var izmantot kā iedzīvotāju dzīves kvalitātes rādītāju. Šajā gadījumā tas diezgan tieši sasaucas ar P.Burdjē koncepciju – ja kultūras kapitālā ietilpst izglītības sistēma, kultūra, valoda, un to varam saprast arī kā kultūras vērtību, tad saistībā ar indivīdu grupu iespējām izmantot un iemantot šo kultūras kapitālu, mēs varam novērtēt arī šo grupu dzīves līmeni. It īpaši, ja tiek ņemta vērā kultūras realizētā „simboliskā varmācība” – elitārās šķiras ir vairāk apguvušas kultūru, nekā zemākās un sabiedrības apziņā tā tiek pieņemta kā sociāli normāla parādība (Burdjē,2004.) . Tieši tāpēc ir svarīgi līdzsvarot šo situāciju – nodrošinot reālo kultūrpieejamību arī sociāli zemākiem slāņiem, tā potenciāli uzlabojot viņu dzīves kvalitāti.

Kā tikko minējām, viens no iedzīvotāju dzīves kvalitāti ietekmējošiem apstākļiem ir kultūra – gan tās patēriņš, gan līdzdalība tās radīšanā. Kaut gan kultūras arguments tiek izmantots daudz, īpaši politiķu runās, tomēr ne tikai Latvijā, bet arī pasaulē ir visai maz pētījumu par to, kā un kāpēc kultūras līdzdalība ietekmē dzīves kvalitāti. Latvijā 2007.gadā tika veikts ekonomisks pētījums „Kultūras sektora ekonomiskā nozīme un ietekme Latvijā” (Kultūras sektora...,2007.), kurš tika orientēts uz kultūras ekonomiskā ieguldījuma izpēti. Kultūras īpatnība ir tā, ka tās sociālo ietekmi var izvērtēt tikai ilgstošā laika posmā, visbiežāk – netieši. Taču, izmantojot P.Burdjē kultūrkapitāla koncepciju, var mēģināt analizēt atsevišķu kultūras objektu darbības iespaidu uz sabiedrību.

Lauku kultūrvidi veido trīs elementu līmeņi – materiālais, sociālais un garīgais/personiskais. Materiālo elementu līmeni veido kultūras iestādes, kultūras materiāli-tehniskie līdzekļi, personiskajā lietošanā esošie kultūras priekšmeti. Sociālie elementi ir tradicionālās un likumdošanas normas, tradīcijas. Garīgie elementi: grupai un indivīdiem piemītošās garīgās vērtības. Visus šos elementu līmeņus mēs varam saukt arī par kultūras kapitālu – indivīda, grupas kultūras līmenis + materiālās iespējas to iegūt, paaugstināt, ko sniedz ne tikai indivīdu finansiālā nodrošinātība, bet arī konkrētu kultūras iestāžu: kultūras namu, skolu, bibliotēku un muzeju klātesamība un aktīva darbība. (Михайлова, 1999.)

Kā viena no šādām kultūras iestādēm, kam lauku kultūrvidē neapstrīdami ir sava loma, jāmin muzejs. Muzejs ir gan dabas un kultūras vērtību krātuve, gan arī kultūras iestāde, kas veic sabiedrības izglītošanas un kultūras vērtību popularizēšanas darbu (Muzeju likums, 2006.). Latvijā ir 169 publiskie un privātie muzeji, kuru misija ir kultūras mantojuma apzināšana, saglabāšana, izpēte un popularizēšana.

Latvijas Republikas Muzeju likumā ir teikts, ka „Muzejs ir sabiedrībai pieejama izglītojoša un pētniecības institūcija, kuras uzdevums ir atbilstoši muzeja darbības specifikai vākt, saglabāt un popularizēt sabiedrībā dabas, materiālās un nemateriālās kultūras vērtības, kā arī sekmēt to izmantošanu sabiedrības izglītošanai un attīstībai.” (Muzeju likums, 2006) Ja tradicionāli muzejs galvenokārt izpildīja kultūras (u.c.) vērtību krātuves un zinātniski pētnieciskās organizācijas lomu, tad šodien tā funkcijas vairāk pavēršas sabiedrības izglītošanas, arī izklaides virzienā. Tajā pašā laikā muzejs turpina aktualizēt kultūras mantojuma apzināšanu, vākšanu un saglabāšanu, pateicoties muzeju krājumiem, tiek veidota valstu iedzīvotāju identitāte, celts vispārējais kultūras līmenis. Šodienas modernais muzejs vairāk ir vērsts uz cilvēku – apmeklētāju, mazāk uz muzejisko priekšmetu kolekcionēšanu. Muzejam ir jābūt aktīvi līdzdarbīgam sociālajās norisēs, jāspēj veidot komunikācija ar apmeklētāju, iesaistot to aktīvā izziņas procesā, kam par pamatu var kalpot muzeja ekspozīcijas, krājumi, atsevišķi priekšmeti (Muzeju likums, 2006.).

Liela daļa Latvijas muzeju atrodas laukos: tās ir kultūrvēsturiskās celtnes (muižu ēkas, pilis, baznīcas, zemnieku, amatnieku sētas, ražošanas uzņēmumi u.c.), ievērojamu cilvēku dzīves un darba vietas, viņu dzimtās mājas, piemiņas vietas, dabas objektu krātuves u.c. Tā kā muzejs veic ne tikai kultūras mantojuma krāšanas, aprūpes un izpētes funkciju, bet ir iesaistīts arī darbā ar apmeklētājiem, rodas jautājums – cik lielā mērā muzejs piedalās savas ģeogrāfiskās apkārtnes iedzīvotāju kultūrkapitāla veidošanā? Tas ir – piedalās viņu izglītošanas, arī mūžizglītības un tālākizglītības procesā, padziļina viņu kultūras izpratni, ļauj dziļāk orientēties nacionālā kultūras mantojuma bagātībā un daudzveidībā, ietekmē dzīves vidi. Tā kā lauku iedzīvotāju dzīvesveids, arī viņu

kultūras potenciāla paaugstināšanas iespējas ir saistītas ar lauku darbu sezonālītāti, no pilsētniekiem atšķirīgajiem dzīves standartiem, bieži vien ar sliktākiem ekonomiskiem apstākļiem, tad arī muzeja kā kultūras iestādes apmeklējums varētu būt visai apgrūtināts.

Tajā pašā laikā muzeja klātbūtne ciematā vai pagastā ir saistīta ar noteiktas infrastruktūras veidošanu – ir vajadzīgi ceļi, lai tūristi varētu piebraukt pie muzeja, informācija, suvenīru veikaliņi, kafejnīca, atpūtas vieta. Vietējā pašpārvalde, vairāk vai mazāk, bet ir zināmā mērā ieinteresēta šīs infrastruktūras izveidē, – notiek gan tūristu piesaiste, gan ciemata labiekārtošana. Kopumā tiek uzlabota dzīves vide, kas sevī jau ietver arī kultūrvides veidošanu.

Savukārt muzeja darbība ietekmē sociālo vidi: muzeja darbinieki paplašina inteligences slāni konkrētajā ciematā, muzeja popularitāte un tūristu skaits ļauj vietējiem iedzīvotājiem novērtēt muzejā esošās kultūrvērtības, citādi paskatīties uz kultūras mantojumu. Tas ceļ vietējo iedzīvotāju pašapziņu, pastiprina nacionālo pašidentifikāciju, rada lepnumu par savas kultūras mantojumu. Palielinās sociālā aktivitāte, kas saistīta ar rūpēm par apkārtējās vides sakoptību, piesaisti dzimtajai vietai. Tas būtu ideālais modelis.

Kā tad šis modelis darbojas/nedarbojas Latvijas laukos? Intervijās un sarunās ar Tērvetes vietējiem iedzīvotājiem un divu muzeju – Tērvetes Senvēstures un A.Brigaderes memoriālā muzeja „Sprīdīši” vadītājiem atklājās interesanta situācija.

Vietējie iedzīvotāji, jautāti par muzeju apmeklējumiem vai pašu piedalīšanos kādos muzeju rīkotos pasākumos, izteicās visai skeptiski:

„Neejam, viņi neko neorganizē, nejūtam muzeju klātbūtni ciematā, tur nekas nenotiek.”
(Intervijas, 2008.)

Tērvetes Dabas parkā un pilskalnā notiekošie pasākumi, kur īpaši tika atzīmēti Zemgaļu svētki augusta sākumā, tiek saistīti ar uzņēmuma „Latvijas Valsts meži” aktivitātēm, nevis Senvēstures muzeju. No skolām bērni uz muzejiem šad tad tiek vesti, bet nekādas ciešākas sadarbības nav.(Intervijas, 2008.)

Intervijās ar Tērvetes Senvēstures muzeja un A.Brigaderes memoriālā muzeja „Sprīdīši” darbiniekiem iezīmējas līdzīga situācija. Muzeju apmeklējums vietējiem iedzīvotājiem (tērvetniekiem) ir par brīvu, taču tas nebūt nenozīmē, ka viņi muzejus bieži apmeklētu vai arī izrādītu interesi par muzeju darbību. Protams, muzejs ir kultūras iestāde, kas nodarbojas ar kultūras vērtību saglabāšanu un pētniecību, taču, kā jau minēts, tā uzdevumos šodien ietilpst arī muzejpedagoģiskā darbība – veidojot skolēniem muzejā mācību stundas ar eksponātu lietošanu, tāpat organizējot pasākumus, kas saistīti ar muzeja specifiku (literatūras, memoriālie muzeji organizē savās telpās tikšanos ar dzejniekiem, rakstniekiem, mākslas muzejos notiek regulāras

izstādes), vai arī piedaloties dažādos masu pasākumos (R.Blaumaņa „Brakos” notiek Jāņu svinēšana, brāļu Jurjānu muzejs rīko koku dienas utt.). Katrā gadījumā šie pasākumi ir orientēti ne tikai uz tūristiem, bet arī uz vietējiem iedzīvotājiem.

Jautāts par Tērvetes Senvēstures muzeja sadarbību ar vietējiem iedzīvotājiem, skolām un pagasta pašvaldību, muzeja vadītājs mag.hist. Normunds Jērums atbild:

„Principā var teikt, ka vairuma tērvetnieku attieksme pret muzeju ir vienaldzīga, pat vēstures skolotāji no Tērvetes pamatskolas reti izmanto muzeju senvēstures stundu vadīšanai, neņemot vērā, ka muzejs ir pretimnākošs un Tērvetes novada iedzīvotājiem muzejā biļetes par apmeklējumu nav jāpērk. Pašvaldība ir izrādījusi savu pretimnākšanu, piešķirot zemi par simbolisku samaksu muzeja būvniecībai, izrādot interesi par jauna tūrisma objekta tapšanu Tērvetes novadā. ... kopumā sadarbība ar pašvaldību ir laba, protams, ne finansiālā nozīmē, bet tieši pasākumu organizēšanā un muzeja popularizēšanā.

Muzejs ar savu darbību ir piesaistījis atsevišķus jauniešus Zemgaļu svētku organizēšanā, kuri ņem aktīvu darbību, un izbrauc arī uz citiem liela mēroga pasākumiem Igaunijā, Lietuvā un, protams, Latvijā, pārstāvēt kopu "Tērvetes zemgaļi". Diemžēl muzejam praktiski nav bijusi sadarbība ar vietējo kultūras namu, jo muzejs ir noslogots ar savu pasākumu organizēšanu, un nespēj vēl ar savu iniciatīvu piesaistīt kultūras namu, kurš nav izrādījis savu ieinteresētību sadarbīties.”(Jērums,2008.)

Zināma interese esot bijusi, senvēstures muzejam veidojoties, kā arī muzejam pavasarī sākot darba sezonu, Zemgaļu un Baltu vienības dienās. Interesi par sadarbību ar šo muzeju epizodiski izrādījušas Tērvetes, kā arī tuvējās Zaļenieku un Augstkalnu skolas – bērni tiek vesti ekskursijā uz Senvēstures muzeju, kur pēc muzeja darbinieka stāstījuma var arī paši ne tikai aplūkot, bet arī aptaustīt eksponātus: senos zemgaļu un vācu bruņinieku ieročus, apģērbus, darbarīkus. (Jērums, 2008.) Īpaši jāuzsver muzeja nopelni Zemgaļu svētku organizēšanā, kuri šogad Tērvetē norisinājās jau piekto reizi, pulcinot ap 200 dalībnieku no Latvijas, Lietuvas, Igaunijas, Baltkrievijas, Somijas. 9.-10. augustā tajos piedalījās ap 3000 apmeklētāju, un tas ir izveidojies par Latvijā lielāko un ievērojamāko šāda veida pasākumu, kurā tiek popularizēta zemgaļu un citu baltu tautu materiālā un garīgā kultūra aizvēstures un viduslaiku sākumposma periodā.

Pēc sarunas ar A.Brigaderes memoriālā muzeja „Sprīdīši” vadītāju Rasmu Rapu var secināt, ka šim muzejam ar vietējiem iedzīvotājiem ir vēl mazāka sadarbība. Arī šeit ieeja muzejā vietējiem iedzīvotājiem ir brīva, tomēr apmeklētāju ir ļoti maz. Tai skaitā – arī no vietējām skolām. Kā atzīmēja Rapas kundze, uz „Sprīdīšiem” regulāri brauc Grobiņas vidusskolas skolēni, taču vietējo skolu interese ir maza. Tā kā „Sprīdīšu” teritorija ir visai liela, muzejam būtu zināms atbalsts kaut

vai pagasta vai vietējās skolas rīkotās apkārtnes sakopšanas talkas, taču šādas sadarbības nav. (Rapa, 2008.) Arī pati muzeja vadītāja neizrādīja īpašu interesi par iesaistīšanos pagasta kultūras dzīvē. Iespējams, ka konkrētajā situācijā šķērslis ir arī nenokārtotie muzeja īpašumu jautājumi. Sarunās ar vietējiem iedzīvotājiem izskanēja viedoklis, ka A. Brigaderes muzeja vadība vairāk ir norūpējusies par komercdarbību – kafejnīcas un viesu mājas uzturēšanu, tāpēc nekādās vietējās kultūraktivitātēs nepiedalās. (Intervijas, 2008.)

Nemot vērā, ka abi muzeji ir privātie, tātad oficiālu valsts atbalstu nesaņem un muzejiem jātiek pašiem galā ar finansiālo nodrošinājumu, var saprast vadītāju lielāku ieinteresētību tūristu piesaistei, nevis sadarbībai ar vietējiem iedzīvotājiem.

Izvērtējot aprakstīto situāciju, jāpievērš uzmanība sekojošiem aspektiem.

Muzejs nav ne kultūras nams, ne izklaides centrs. Tā pamatuzdevums ir uzglabāt un pētīt tajā esošās kultūrvērtības, rūpēties par jaunu eksponātu iegūšanu un savā ekspozīcijā demonstrēt tos apmeklētājiem. Šādi muzeju arī uztver vietējie iedzīvotāji – dažas reizes aiziet, aplūko ekspozīciju, - kāpēc lai ietu atkārtoti? Lai piesaistītu apmeklētājus, nodrošinātu atkārtotu apmeklējumu, jābūt kaut kam jaunam, interesantam: jāsniedz kāds jauns kultūras pakalpojums, jauna kultūras prece. Jo šis ir laiks, kad kultūra kļūst par precī un pakalpojumu, kad dažādām kultūras iestādēm, t.sk. arī muzejiem jāpiemērojas jaunās pakalpojumu ekonomikas prasībām. Līdz ar to notiek attieksmes pārorientācija gan sabiedrībā, gan kultūras sfērā. To var jaust arī pašu tērvetnieku izteikumos: „muzeji neko nedara, tur nekas nenotiek”. Tātad tiek gaidīts, ka muzejs aktīvi rīkos kādus pasākumus (vēlams, izklaides), kuros atnākt paskatīties, labākajā gadījumā piedalīties. Protams, muzeji ir ieinteresēti šos kultūrpakalpojumus sniegt savu iespēju robežās.

Faktiski priekšplānā te izvirzās patērētāja intereses, īpaši no apmeklētāju puses. Tajā pat laikā Senvēstures muzeja vadītāji un īpašnieki ir gatavi paplašināt savu sadarbību ar vietējiem iedzīvotājiem, skolām, kaut arī tas nebūtu tieši finansiāli ienesīgi. Jau ar savu iniciatīvu vien organizēt pašu spēkiem šādu muzeju, viņi parāda to iezīmi, kas ir būtiski svarīga gan kultūras mantojuma saglabāšanā, gan kultūrvides veidošanā – kultūratbildību. Kultūratbildība ir cilvēka attieksme pret kultūras vērtībām, ne tikai izmantot tās, bet arī uzņemties rūpes un atbildību par to radīšanu, saglabāšanu un tālāk nodošanu. „Humāns, radošs un kultūratbildīgs cilvēks” kā sasniedzamais mērķis uz 2015. gadu – šāds ideāls ir ierakstīts dokumentā „Valsts kultūrpolitikas vadlīnijas 2006. - 2015. g.” (Kultūrpolitikas vadlīnijas, 2005.). Lai šādu ideālu sasniegtu, valsts kultūrpolitikā īpaši jāakcentē kultūras nozīme, tās vērtības, atzīmējot kultūras specifiku: tā prasa no cilvēka ieguldīt, dot, pielikt pūles. Mūsdienu patērētājsabiedrībā, kur dominē „ņemšanas” nevis „došanas” vērtības, ir ļoti sarežģīti veidot šo pilnīgi pretējo attieksmi. Vispirms, jau rosināt

apzināties kultūras preču un pakalpojumu divējādo dabu – no vienas puses, kā līdzekli ekonomiskā labuma gūšanai, bet no otras puses, kā noteiktas kultūras identitātes un nemateriālās/simboliskās vērtības nesēju, akcentējot tieši šo otro pusi. Tas prasa arī attīstīt iekšējo kultūras nepieciešamību, kas ir iespējama tikai tad, ja cilvēks ir „pieradināts” pie kultūras. Te mēs atkal atgriežamies pie virsrakstā pieteiktās tēmas par kultūras kapitālu, kas ir cieši saistīts ar cilvēka esību kultūrvidē.

Muzeju darbība un it īpaši sadarbība ar vietējiem iedzīvotājiem, skolām un pašvaldībām veido to kultūrvidi, kas ir nepieciešama, lai veidotos ikdienas saskarsme ar kultūru, kultūras vērtībām, kultūras mantojumu. Jo sevišķi jaunajā paaudzē, kam ir atšķirīgas intereses un kultūras vajadzības, kas veidojušās globalizācijas un informācijas sabiedrības iespaidā, kur dominē patērētājsabiedrības vērtību orientācija. Protams, informācijas laikmetam raksturīgais fragmentārisms un laika trūkums ietekmē gan mūslaiku kultūras saturu, gan tās patērēšanas tradīcijas un paradumus, lētā masu patēriņa komerckulturā veicina kultūras unifikāciju un vērtību sistēmas deformāciju. Taču konkrētā kultūras mantojuma klātesamība ikdienas vidē, tā izmantojamības iespēja ļauj ar zināmām cerībām raudzīties nākotnē. Galu galā, arī tādas triviālas lietas kā labi ceļi, informācijas pieejamība, visa kopējā infrastruktūra arī ir kultūrvides sastāvdaļas, un konkrētā gadījumā, runājot par Tērveti, situācija varbūt nemaz nav tik ļoti slikta. Galu galā sakoptā vide, muzeju kā kultūras mantojuma glabātāju klātesamība, tūristu interese par šo vietu, labi apmeklētie pasākumi vasarā, pašvaldības ieinteresētība tomēr nodrošina kultūrvides esamību, kas, savukārt, veicina arī kultūrkapitāla uzkrāšanos. Katrā ziņā tas rada iespēju attīstīt un pilnvērtīgi izmantot kultūras potenciālu sabiedrības izglītošanai visa mūža garumā, sekmējot uz humānām vērtībām balstītas zināšanu sabiedrības veidošanos.

Taču šajā pozitīvajā modelī slēpjas kāda būtiska problēma. Muzeja klātbūtne rada tikai potenciālu iespēju uzlabot kultūrvidi, veidot lauku iedzīvotāju kultūrkapitālu. Pārvērst šo potenciālu realitātē var tikai kultūras darbinieku (to skaitā arī muzeja darbinieku) un vietējo iedzīvotāju ieinteresētība kopīgā kultūras kopšanas darbā. Savukārt, ieinteresētību varētu nodrošināt attieksmes maiņa – lai kultūra netiktu uztverta tikai kā prece vai pakalpojums, bet būtiska dzīves nepieciešamība.

Secinājumi

1. Muzeja atrašanās lauku teritorijā (ciematā, pagastā) potenciāli rada kultūrvidi, kas ir nepieciešama kultūrkapitāla veidošanai. Tas pozitīvi var iespaidot arī sociālo vidi, piemēram, ceļot iedzīvotāju pašapziņas un sociālās aktivitātes līmeni.

2. Svarīga ir muzeja darbinieku ieinteresētība piedalīties vietējo iedzīvotāju kultūras dzīvē, būt gataviem sadarboties kultūras mantojuma tālāknodošanas procesā ar vietējām pašvaldībām, skolām, citām kultūras iestādēm.

3. Jāturpina pētījumi par muzeju un sabiedrības reālajām attiecībām, aptverot lielāku pētāmo objektu skaitu. Pētījuma virzienam jābūt vērstam gan uz muzeju piedāvājumu publikai, gan uz lauku iedzīvotāju attieksmi pret kultūras mantojumu.

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PROBLEM OF DUALISM IN THE RELIGIOUS POINT OF VIEW

DUĀLISMA PROBLĒMA RELIĢISKAJĀ PASAULES AINĀ

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Introduction: This research leans on approach, that in development of the society new dimensions open slightly not only in radical novelties, but also forgotten or today unstressed in the past (religious, mythological, philosophical) inheritance remind. The dimension of moral obligation is endangered today. What is the reason of this danger? In this research the dimension of moral obligation is examined in the context of dualism in two religious aspects: ontological and gnoseological. If dualism is understood in the spirit of Rene Descartes, as being of principle a double maintenance with two quite different substances - thought and matter, then a problem appears with their association. If life is dual or plural, moral obligation is problematic then, in same queue, if life is monistic, moral obligation is real then. This research is interesting about concepts of dualism and moral obligation and its relations.

Methods: Dialogical, phenomenological and introspection.

Conclusions:

1. In philosophy dualism is a point of view, that character of two parts of being is a principal different. French philosopher Rene Descartes distributes two substances – thought and matter, which are fully separate and quite various. In Zoroastrianism who is approximately three thousand years old Indo-Iranian religion are two opposite forces: the God and the evil spirit. The Essen's sect, who was living in mountains near the Death Sea about the 1th and the 2nd century B.C. was thinking in the same way. In philosophy of Plato and neoplatonism the dualism is opposition between the world of Eidos and the world of false reality.

2. In one way, dualism can divide in the ontological and in gnoseological (being and cognitions) dualism. The ontological dualism leans on two radical different being plates. Unit between these plates is attained only with an artificial help of reason constructions. Moral obligation is very problematic here, because it isn't necessary. The gnoseological dualism is monism, in which the crack appearing between various stages of one plate of being who is result of alienation. But it is possible to overcome this crack because these different stages are ontologically united. Therefore in dualism of such kind the „evil” looks over not in a second life plate, but in an imperfect cognition. Moral obligation in this system looks already internal necessary and undisguised.

3. The dualism of Rene Descartes or the ontological dualism prevailed in modern profane consciousness. This fact is explaining pessimism of moral obligation in this side of society. Both understandings of dualism are visible in religious consciousness, but the monism and gnoseological dualism most prevailed there. And this is optimism of moral obligation in religious consciousness.

4. Dualism in modern profane consciousness is interpreted as a product of the Christianity thought. But yet the Christian conception of being is monistic and undual in spite of mass facts that spokes the contrary. The Christian consciousness spokes, that the God and our world are transcendent. But the Christianity based on paradoxes and other side of this story is that God and our world are immanent.

5. In modern plural society are variety forms of meanings and therefore each speaks in „own language”. Monism asks to look into gnoseological essence of these differences and shows that these differences cover deep – roots ontological unity. This is a way to mutual understanding.

Key-words: Dualism, monism, gnoseology, ontology, being, moral obligation, religion, Christianity.

Ievads

Šis pētījums balstās uz pieeju, ka modernās sabiedrības attīstībā jaunas dimensijas paveras ne tikai radikālās novitātēs, bet arī aizmirsta vai šodien neakcentēta pagātnes (reliģiskā, mitoloģiskā, filozofiskā) mantojuma atminēšanās procesā. Tā, sengrieķu filosofa Platona (428. vai 427. p.Kr. – 348. vai 347. p.Kr.) filosofijā, izziņa balstās ne tikai uz uzzināšanu (it kā no ārienes), bet arī uz atzināšanu kā izziņas procesa introspektīvo daļu, kas balstīta sevis izzināšanā vai atgādināšanā, ka

izziņa kā kultūras process ir noteiktas refleksijas veikšana un noteikta zināšanu kopuma kopšana – analīze, atcerēšanās.

Modernajā, t.sk. postmodernajā sabiedrības ainā sevišķi aktuāla un problemātiska ir jebkuras dimensija. Postmodernajā zināšanu sistēmā ir zudusi tā stabilitāte, ko sniedz noteiktas hierarhijas, tās centra, pakāpju un tam atbilstošu jebkuru, apzināšanās. Zināmā mērā šodien jebkuras dimensija ir apdraudēta. Jebkuras apdraudējums daļēji saistīts arī ar dualisma dažādām izpratnēm vai dualisma kā tāda pastāvēšanu, jo, ja pasaule ir sadalīta divās vai vairākās daļās, kur vienā pusē stāv realitāte, bet otrā – jebkura, rodas problēma ar šo divu pušu apvienošanu, jo cilvēks atrodas realitātes sfērā, no kuras tiecas pēc jebkuras. Šīs problēmas risinājumi var būt dažādi, taču šajā pētījumā jebkuras dimensija tiek aplūkota dualisma konteksta divos aspektos: reliģiski – ontoloģiskajā un reliģiski – gnoseoloģiskajā. Ir pamats uzskatīt, ka, ja dualisms tiek izprasts franču filosofa Renē Dekarta (1596. – 1650.) garā, kā realitātes (vai esamības) principiāli divkāršs saturs ar divām pavisam atšķirīgām substancēm- domāšanu un matēriju, tad rodas problēma ar to apvienošanu, resp., kāpēc un kāda daļa domāšanai gar matēriju un kā gan domāšana var izziņāt matēriju, ja tās ir radikāli atšķirīgas substances? Tādā gadījumā jāievieš vēl kāds spēks, kas tās abas apvieno, bet tad tā ir vēl viena substance un tas vairs nav dualisms. Līdzīgi ir plurālisma gadījumā, kad substancu ir vairāk. Līdz ar to, ja esamība ir duāla vai plurāla, tad jebkura ir problemātiska, savukārt, ja esamība ir moniska, tad jebkura ir reāla, jeb reāli sasniedzama. Tikai monismā loģiski iespējama mazāk pilnīgā un pilnīgā dažādu pakāpju pastāvēšana vienas hierarhijas ietvaros, kas nepilnīgajam ļauj cerēt un tiekties pēc pilnības, jebkuras vai Dieva kā vienīgā īsteni esošā.

Tāpēc šī pētījuma ietvaros tiek meklētas dualisma jēdziena robežas, un ieskicētas monisma kā esamības skaidrojuma priekšrocības, t.sk. arī jebkuras kontekstā.

Metodes

Pētījumā izmantotas dialogiskā, fenomenoloģiskā un introspektīvā metodes.

Introspektīvo metodi filosofijā pamatojis vācu filosofs Vilhelms Diltejs. (1833. – 1911.)

Šī pētījuma kontekstā svarīga ir viņa ideja par humanitāro zinātņu metodoloģisko drošticamību. V. Diltejs piedāvā atdot humanitārajām zinātnēm to drošticamību un zinātnisko statusu, uzsverot apstākli, ka humanitāro zinātņu fakti un to kopsakarības apziņā tiek tverti nepastarpināti, tātad šis tvērums ir šo faktu nepastarpināta pārdzīvošana, saprašana un zināšana: „Savādāk mums dota dvēseles dzīve, pretstatā ārējiem uztvērumiem, iekšējie balstās uz tiešu tvērumu, pārdzīvojumu, kas dots nepastarpināti.” (Diltejs) Šo metodi viņš dēvē par aprakstošo psiholoģiju, citur latviski jēdziens tiek tulkots kā „saprotošā psiholoģija”. V. Diltejs uzskata, ka dvēseles dzīve ir vienots veselums, nevis atomāru faktu kopums, tāpēc tā nepakļaujas analīzei.

Dvēseles dzīve ir aprakstāma tikai tās kopsakarībās, no kurienes arī jēdziens „aprakstošā psiholoģija”, kam mazāks sakars ar psiholoģiju nekā filosofiju.

Fenomenoloģisko metodi filosofijā pamatojis vācu filosofs Edmunds Huserls. (1859. – 1938.)

Fenomenoloģijas lozungs ir caur empīriski doto, reālo lietu (faktu) sfēru nokļūt pie būtības. Tātad nevis jāpētī teorijas vai ar tām jāpolemizē, bet gan jāatklāj fenomeni, t.i. ne no kā neatvasināmas un ne uz ko nereducējamās apziņas struktūras, kuras nevajag nedz lauzt, nedz pakļaut, nedz vardarbīgi „izlabot”, fenomenos jāieklausās, tie „jāierauga”, pārvarot sekundāro un nebūtisko uzslāņojumu maldinošo nopietnību – tikai tā iespējams nokļūt pie sākotnējiem un tāpēc arī būtiskākiem fenomenu slāņiem. (Rubene. 1991.) Fenomenoloģiskā metode pielietojama arī kā noteiktas „netīras” jeb psiholoģizētas apziņas, piemēram, reliģiskās apziņas faktu (fenomenu, dotumu) fiksēšana, kā arī šo fenomenu attiecību fiksēšana. Tādu pieeju izmantojuši filosofi Sergejs Averincevs (1937. – 2004.), Pāvels Florenskis (1882. – 1937.), Mirča Eliade (1907. – 1986.)

Dialogisko metodi pamatojuši filosofi Emanuels Levinas (1906. – 1995.), Mihails Bahtins (1895. – 1975.), Martins Bubers (1878. – 1965.) Šīs metodes būtība slēpjas izejas meklējumos no problēmas, kas rodas mēģinot „zinātniski” un „objektīvi” aplūkot kādu priekšmetu. Īsi sakot, pastāv ilūzija, ka pētniekam iespējams tvert priekšmetu tādu „kāds tas ir”, jeb pētnieks tver priekšmetu „no malas”, neiejaucoties, tāpēc – objektīvi. Neizvēršoties jāatzīmē, ka šo sapni pārtrauc jau sen pirms vācu filosofa Immanuila Kanta (1724. – 1804.) vispāratzītajām idejām par „fenomenu” kā „lietu priekš cilvēka” un „nomenu” kā „lietu par sevi”, tādi domāšanas virzieni kā vedānta (upanišadas) Indijā un budisma filosofija, kā arī daudzi citi. Dialoga filosofija izeju redz pētnieka radikāli citā attieksmē pret objektu. Šajā attieksmē objekts vairs nav objekts, bet „citāda” – pašvērtīga esamība, kas tikai sev raksturīgā veidā sakārto ap sevi pasauli. Pētniekam ir savs subjektīvs skatījums, no kā zināmā mērā vajadzētu atbrīvoties, neuzspiežot pētāmajam savus uzskatus, neievietojot kādos šauros uzskatu rāmjos, bet ļaujot pētāmajam citātajam savā veidā „runāt” un izteikt savu pašvērtīgo esamību. Pētnieka uzdevums šeit vairāk ir klausīties, vērot un aprakstīt, neuzspiežot savas kultūras u.c. stereotipus. Tādējādi, piemēram, izteikums, ka „Senie ēģiptieši ... darīja nepareizi” ir nedialogisks – pētnieks absolutizē savas kultūras patiesību, neļaujot runāt pašai senās Ēģiptes kultūrai.

Refleksija. Jēdzienam „duālisms” domāšanas vēsturē ir dažādas izpratnes formas. Jēdziena būtība ir tāda, ka eksistē divas vai vairākas fundamentāli atšķirīgas lietu vai pamatformu sfēras, kategorijas vai veidi. Piemēram, teoloģijā „duālists” ir kāds, kurš tic, ka Dievs un sātans vai Dievs un velns ir neatkarīgi un vairāk vai mazāk ekvivalenti pasaules spēki. Filosofijā duālisms ir teorija,

ka mentālais un fiziskais vai prāts un ķermenis, vai prāts un smadzenes savā veidā ir radikāli atšķirīgas lietu klases. Diskusija par duālismu sākas no tā, ka, no vienas puses, mēs esam pārliecināti par fiziskās pasaules realitāti, bet no otras puses, nevaram saprast kādas ir prāta attiecības ar fizisko pasauli. (Stanford Encyclopedia) Piemēram, franču filosofs Renē Dekarts izdala divas substances – domāšanu un matēriju, kas ir pilnīgi šķirtas un pavisam dažādas. Platona duālismā vērojams pretstats starp ideju (eidosu) valstību un radību pasauli.

Arī reliģijā vērojama spilgta duālisma fenomena vēsture. Piemēram, seno indoirāņu reliģijā zoroastrismā tiek uzskatīts, ka pastāv divi pretēji spēki: labais - Dievs un ļaunais gars. „Dievam un velnam, kas senajiem irāņiem bija Ahuramazda un Anhro Mainju, viduslaiku persiešu valodā atbilst vārdi Ormazds un Ahrimāns. Mācība vēstī, ka Ormazds dzīvo ideālā labā un gaismas valstībā, bet Ahrimāns dzīvo mūžīgā tumsā dziļā bezdibenī. Cīņa šo abu pīrmatnējo garu starpā bija neizbēgama, tāpēc Ormazds radīja debesu un materiālo pasauli, lai tās viņam šajā cīņā palīdzētu (..) Pēc zoroastriešu ticējumiem materiālā pasaule nav ne ļauna, ne samaitāta, jo tā ir garīgās pasaules redzama, taustāma manifestācija.” (Vilsons b.g.) Līdzīgi uzskati bijuši t.s. kumranītu jeb esenu sektai, kas darbojusies ap 2., 1. gs. p.Kr. kalnos pie Nāves jūras un gaidījusi sākamies izšķirošo cīņu starp gaismas un tumsas dēliem. Praviētis Manī (ap 216. – 276.) un viņa sekotāji arī balstīja savus uzskatus uz dualitātes ideju – materiālā pasaule ir ļaunums – tumsas spēku ielaušanās garīgajā gaismas valstībā. Ļaunajā matērijā ir ieslodzītas dievišķās gaismas dzirkstis, kas jāatsvabina izredzētajiem – tādiem kā Jēzus Kristus un galu galā pats Manī. Ļoti bieži duālisma visabsolūtākajās tradīcijās tiek saprasta kristietība, kur dažādās „ierakumu” pusēs stāv Dievs un velns, paradīze un elle etc. Šādi izprastā duālismā miesa cīnās pret garu, labais pret ļauno.

Šāds duālisma arhetips nav nekas svešs modernās kultūras pārstāvim. Duālisms tā visprimitīvākajās formās lielās devās tiek pasniegts teju visās popkultūras formās – sevišķi kino, un kā liecina pieprasījums, duālisms ļoti labi pazīstams gan mūsu apziņai, gan kolektīvajai bezapziņai. Ļoti izkopta duālisma kultūra ir t.s. spriedzes filmu ētosam, kur Labais policists cīnās ar Ļauno noziedznieku vai otrādi – Ļaunais policists ar Labo noziedznieku. Līdzīga vienkāršota pasaules aina bieži vērojama t.s. interneta forumu un komentāru vidē – cilvēks zina, kas ir labais un ļaunais. Visbiežāk ļaunie ir citi: citas rases, ādas krāsas, seksuālās orientācijas, tautības, futbola komandas līdzjutēji, cita sociālā statusa u.t.jpr. pārstāvji; savukārt mēs, mūsējie ir *a priori* labie. Piemēram, komentāros par gadījumu, kur Vecrīgā, sadzīvīskā konfliktā, cieta hokeja komandas Rīgas „Dinamo” tajā laikā pirmais vārtsargs Edgars Masaļskis atsevišķos izteikumos spilgti atklājas komentētāju duālistiskā domāšanas ievirze. kad viņi. Parasti komentētāji izsaka nepamatotus spriedumus bez īpašas iedziļināšanās problēmas detaļās. Skaidri redzams, ka daļa komentāru autoru

uzskata, ka spēj pasauli atspoguļot proporcijās 1:1. Atspoguļotā pasaule ir duāla, kā pretstati tajā pastāv mēs un viņi – labie un ļaunie. (skat. komentārus nr.1.)

Protams, civilizēti loģiski komentāri pat te sastopami vairākumā, kamēr runa ir par hokeju. Tradicionālo sabiedrību vairāk šokējošos gadījumos, piemēram, augsti stāvošu amatpersonu negodīgas rīcības gadījums, kas pat vēl nav pierādīts: vēsts „Noraida Vaškeviča sūdzību par pielaides valsts noslēpumam anulēšanu.” (skat. komentārus nr. 2.) izsaukusi aptuveni 90% klaji negatīvu un nepamatotu komentāru; vai netradicionālas dzimumorientācijas gadījums: „Festivālā Sarajevā piekauts „Mozaīkas” valdes loceklis” (skat. komentārus nr. 3.) izsaukusi ne mazāk kā 50% nepamatotu un negatīvu komentāru, pēc kuriem var spriest, ka lielāko daļu komentētāju no šī „ļauņuma” šķir vesels neesamības bezdibenis, tāpat kā noteikta tipa duālisma koncepciju ietvaros – šāds bezdibenis šķir labo no ļaunā.

Kas šādu radikālu uzskatu pamatā? Un vai šo uzskatu pamatā ir patiess un objektīvs pasaules ainas redzējums? Šie ir galvenie dotā pētījuma jautājumi.

Balstoties uz vācu filosofa I. Kanta piedāvāto pasaules ainu, jāspriež, ka cilvēks neuztver pasauli tādu kāda tā ir, bet redz to tādu, kāda tā ir „priekš cilvēka”. Šeit pat nav vērts izvērst spekulācijas kāda ir pasaule pati par sevi, jo tā atrodas aiz cilvēka izziņas robežas. Tomēr, spriežot par pasauli, kāda mums tā dota, ne viss tajā ir viennozīmī Tāpēc, runājot par esamību, kādu to tver cilvēks ikdienas apziņas līmenī, pirmajā tuvinājumā šķiet, ka tā tiek tverta kā duāla. Šādā kontekstā mēs varam runāt par ontoloģisko duālismu. T.i., ja darbojas loģiskais trijstūris: denotāts (ārpuszīmiska realitāte) – nozīme – vārds, tad, par cik mūsu domāšanā un valodā eksistē duālisma jēdziens, tad tam jābūt arī ārpuszīmiskajā realitātē, resp., eksistē viss, par ko mēs varam domāt un ko varam izteikt valodā. Tātad duālismam piemīt irība, jeb esamība, duālisms ir ontoloģisks. Šāda duālisma pastāvēšana ir problemātiska vairākos aspektos, kas arī atspoguļojas senā un ne tik senā domāšanā. Pirmkārt, ja duālismam piemīt irība, tad pastāv divas atšķirīgas substances, tomēr visos gadījumos šīs substances nevar pastāvēt neatkarīgi viena no otras...? Labais un ļaunais nevar tikt saprasti katrs atsevišķi vai izejot no viena. Lai saprastu, kas ir labais, savā veidā jau iepriekš jāzina, kas ir ļaunais; matērija bez gara ir nenoformēta, forma bez matērijas ir netverama; domāšana ir matērijas attīstības augstākais punkts; domāšana nenotiek bez smadzenēm; dvēsele ir saistīta ar miesu... Šo uzskaitījumu varētu turpināt. Atšķirīgajām substancēm duālismā nevajadzētu būt nevienam saskarsmes punktam. Ja nav neviena saskarsmes punkta, kā vispār viena kaut ko zina par otru, kāpēc mēs runājam par divām substancēm un vai tas nav mākslīgs prāta veidojums? Mēs kā evidenci redzam šo divu substanču saskarsmi, pie kam – nepieciešamu saskarsmi. Ja šajās atšķirīgajās substancēs ir saskarsmes nepieciešamība – vai tās ir atšķirīgas substances? Ja šīs divas

substances apvieno vēl kāda trešā – Dievs, Radītājs, vai tad tās ir atšķirīgas un patstāvīgas substances? Vai, ja tās nav patstāvīgas, tad kā tās vispār var saukt par substancēm? Tomēr viss norāda uz to, ka jebkura domāšana apzināti vai neapzināti met laipas no vienas puses uz otru, jeb šīs laipas vienmēr ir pastāvējušas. Viena no šādām laipām ir jābūtība. Domātāju prātus jau senatnē izbrīnījusi jābūtības dimensijas zināšana- ja mēs neesam bijuši otrā pusē, kā mēs varam zināt, kas otrā pusē atrodas; ja neesam bijuši otrā pusē, kā mēs varam zināt, ka kaut ko nezīnām vai kā zinām, ka esam nepilnīgi. Platona un Sokrāta mācība par anamnēzi tam ir spilgts piemērs: „Tā kā dvēsele ir nemirstīga, vairākkārt dzimusi, tā redzējusi gan to, kas šeit, gan to kas Aīdā. Redzējusi visu un visu izziņājusi... jo meklēšana un izziņāšana ir tikai atcerēšanās.” (Platons. 1980.) Tiešām, citādi grūti izprast, kāpēc gan cilvēkam piemīt tiecība un izziņas alkas. Un kā šo tiecību uz dualitāšu miesa – gars vai cilvēks – Dievs, vai nepilnīgais – pilnīgais pārvarēšanu var leģitimizēt, ar atšķirīgā tiecību pēc atšķirīgā? Bet, ja atšķirīgais tiecas pēc atšķirīgā, tam ir zināšanas par atšķirīgo un tie vairs nemaz nav tik atšķirīgi, un, galu galā, kad atšķirīgais ir sasniedzis savu mērķi – atšķirīgo vai tie vairs ir atšķirīgi? Te vērojams kāpņu vai trepju simbols, kas savieno dažādas pakāpes vienā hierarhijā, kas ir ļoti nozīmīga reliģijas un filozofijas tēma. Bet, ja pastāv kāpnes, kas savieno atšķirīgas substances, vai mēs varam runāt par duālismu un atšķirīgām substancēm? Veiktā refleksija liek mums secināt, ka nežēlīgos komentārus domājošais prāts dzīvo kādā atsvešinātā situācijā un viņa duālisms nepavisam nav t.s. ontoloģiskais duālisms. Tātad duālisma pastāvēšanas apstākļi var būt vismaz divējādi: pirmkārt, pastāv tāda irība kā duālisms; otrkārt, irību duālistam piešķir nevis pati esamība, bet gan prāta atsvešinātība pašam no sava domāšanas produkta, duālisma stereotipa, kas savā atsvešinātībā nu tiek tverts kā patstāvīgs esamības veidojums. Šo otro duālisma veidu šajā pētījumā piedāvāju saukt par gnozeoloģisko duālismu, tādējādi parādot, ka tā pamatā ir izziņas neviennozīmība un nepilnība. Tātad nomaldījies prāts, rakstot komentārus, pretendē uz objektīvu pasaules redzējumu, taču neapzinās, ka šis objektīvais duālais pasaules redzējums, kas tiecas iznīcināt ļaunumu, ir viņa izziņas nepilnība. Apzinoties duālisma kā problēmas saknes, apzinoties, ka tās ir nevis objektīvas, bet subjektīvas, dažam varbūt pirmo reizi paveras iespēja pārvarēt kādu līdz šim šķietami nepārvaramu aizsērību.

Gnozeoloģiskā duālisma kontekstā mēs nonākam vairs ne pie duālisma, bet pie monisma. Te vairs nav divu atšķirīgu substanču, bet ir vienas substances dažādas gradācijas, kas ļauj pārvietoties visas esamības ietvaros, apvienot labo un ļauno, īno un jauno. Komentējot Pataņdzali (ap 3. gs. p.Kr.) „Jogas aforismus” Svāmī Vivekānanda (1863. – 1902.) saka: „Jūs zināt kā veidojas pērle. Smilšu vai kāda cita materiāla graudiņš iekļūst tajā (austerē) un sāk to kairināt, un austere ap smilšu graudiņu izdala kādu emaljas paveidu, kurš arī izveido pērli. Viss visums, tā sakot, ir mūsu pašu emalja, bet

īstais Visums ir līdzīgs smilšu graudiņam.” (Pataṇḍžali. B.g.) Budisma „Eksistences rata” koncepcijā (*sanskrit.* Bhavachakra Mudra; *tib.* Sidpakorlo; *angl.* Wheel of Life, Wheel of Becoming) Eksistences sākotnes, ciešanu, un atkalatdzimšanas cēlonis ir jutekliskās tieksmes, eksistences alkas, nezināšana un pārmērīga pieķeršanās kādiem uzskatiem (vai vienkārši jebkādu uzskatu esamībai). Savukārt jutekliskā tieksme/riebums ir saistīts ar „es” dabas nezināšanu (*avidja*). Abās šajās koncepcijās, piemēram, ļaunā / labā duālisma avots ir nezināšana, nevis objektīvas esamības parādības. Līdzīgi arī kristietībā, kur dažkārt pārprasti centīgi tiek apgalvots, ka „miesa ir ļauna” vai „miesa ir ļaunums”. Lai veiktu kotrargumentāciju, pietiek ar katram šādam kristietiskam censonim labi saprotamu patiesību, ka Dieva Dēls, pieņēma miesisku veidolu, tātad – dievišķoja arī miesu vai atzina miesu par labu. Citādi izsakoties – miesiskais savienojās ar garīgo un otrādi, pie kam Jēzus Kristus, kā māca ticības apliecinājums, augšāmcēlās ne tikai garā, bet arī miesā. Šī, ja tā var izteikties, aksioma, vēlāk pareizticīgajā baznīcā izpaužas kā svēto pīšļu kults. Krievu teologs Joans Meiendorfs (1926 – 1992), runājot par hēsihastu strīdiem 14. gs. Dieva izziņas sakarā atzīmē, ka Sv. Grēgorijs Palama (1296. -1359.) ātri sapratis, ka viņa un kalabriešu mūka Varlaama (1290. -1348.) uzskatus Dieva izziņā atšķir nepilnības gnozeoloģijas sfērā un sācis attīstīt savu dievizziņas teoriju, kuras pamatā ir jutekliskā un pārjutekliskā izziņa, pie kam tieši pēdējai ir iespējama nepastarpināta saikne ar Dievu. (Meiendorfs) Turpinot šo uzskaitījumu par labu monismam, jāpievieno zoroastrisma sākotnējais variants, kurā Ahuramazda un Anhro Mainju ir dvīņi, kas nozīmē, ka pāri tiem stāv to radītājs, tēvs. Pēc tā visa jo saprotama kļūst atziņa no Gētes „Fausta” prologa, kurā draudzīgi sarunājas sātans ar Dievu. Vēlāk sātans saka nozīmīgus vārdus, kurus kā epigrāfu savam romānam „Meistars un Margarita” izvēlējies Mihails Bulgakovs: „Es - spēka daļa, kas mūžam ļaunu grib, bet mūžam dara labu.”

Secinājumi

Lai arī šī refleksija, kā filosofiskai domai pieklājas, uzdod daudz jautājumu, bet atbildes tikai ieskicē, iezīmējas vairāki duālisma aplūkojuma loki:

1. Duālismu var apskatīt kā ontoloģiskā, tā gnozeoloģiskā šķērsgrizumā, taču, ja ontoloģiskam duālisma skaidrojumam nav pietiekama pamata un tas runā pretī apziņas faktiem, tad duālisma gnozeoloģiskais šķērsgrizums šo pašu faktu kontekstā nav pretrunīgs.
2. Irību duālismam piešķir nevis esamība, bet prāta atsvešinātība pašam no sava domāšanas produkta – duālisma stereotipa. Šādi definējams gnozeoloģiskais duālisms.
3. Gnozeoloģiskais duālisms būtībā sakrīt ar monismu, kas esamību skaidro kā vienotu dažādu esamības slāņu sistēmu, struktūru vai hierarhiju.

4. Šāda esamības apzināšanās atbrīvo: prātam - ceļu izziņai, garam – jebūtības tiecībai, slāpstošai dvēselei - ceļu pie Dieva, cilvēkam – ceļu pie cilvēka un cilvēkam – ceļu pie sevis.
5. Šāda refleksija, kas pamatojas gan pasaules reliģijas un filozofijas faktu vēsturē, gan pašas apziņas dziļākajā būtībā, ļauj cilvēkam optimistiskāk raudzīties uz jebūtības sasniegšanu, sevi, līdzcilvēkiem un mūsu kopīgo nākotni sabiedrībā, jo pastāv neapzinātas, bet izzināmas laipas vai pat tilti, kas veido ceļu vienam pie otra.

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