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Effects of Uncontrolled Fertility on the Nigerian Economic Growth

Abstract:
Human fertility is a function of a variety of factors classified into proximate (direct) and distal (indirect) factors. A proper understanding of these factors is of paramount importance in tackling the problem of uncontrolled fertility, which commands enormous positive and negative consequences. This paper therefore isolated the determinants of population growth in Nigeria as caused by uncontrolled fertility, and ascertained the relationship between the population growth offshoot and economic growth in Nigeria. These were achieved by using data downloaded from the World Bank databank for a period of 51 years (1961-2011). Findings determined that high fertility and birth rate contributes positively to high population growth while further findings revealed that high population growth rate in Nigeria exerts negative consequences on the Nigeria’s economy. These negative consequences can be appreciated by high poverty, inadequate housing, poor sanitation, low standard of living, high unemployment rate and inflation, high pressures on existing infrastructural facilities etc.

Keywords: Uncontrolled Fertility; Population Growth; Demographic Transition; Replacement Fertility; Economic Development.

1. Introduction
Generally, in the African context, to limit family size is a selfish act of individuals unwilling to make personal sacrifices for the good of the larger society. This is why in Nigeria, the more children a woman (or a couple) is able to procreate, the matrimonially fulfilled the culture considers the couple. Human fertility is a function of a variety of factors classified into proximate and distal factors (Yohannes, 2004). The proximal factors are bio-behavioral factors otherwise known to be the intermediate determinants and are; the biological, reproductive and behavioral factors, through which the indirect determinants must devour to affect fertility directly, while the later, distal determinants are socio-cultural factors which consists of socio-economic and demographic factors that affect fertility indirectly through affecting the bio-behavioral factors (Dube, 2013 citing Yohannes et al, 2004 and Samson et al, 2009). A proper understanding of these factors is of paramount importance in tackling the problem of uncontrolled fertility, which commands enormous positive and negative consequences.

Gafar et al (2009) notes some consequences that come with the increase in fertility: an improvement in the status and wealth of the individuals or families, and an increase to social security at old age. The more the younger generation, the more the community is assured of sufficient manpower to provide defense for the community and more working hands in farms and vocational activities. On the contrary, the increase has led to increase in poverty, deterioration of
social and physical infrastructures due to pressure on the use of the facilities, rising unemployment especially among youths, resulting to social unrest, rise in the rates of crime and cost of living, malnutrition, ill health, environmental degradation, etc.

The increase in the rate of fertility in less developed countries as found in the sub Sahara, is worrisome that all measures including, modern contraceptive devices suggested or put in place at national, community and household levels seem not to have had much impact. Several reasons are deduced from mainly: the proportion of women in sexual unions which in turn is affected by other demographic factors as the age at first marriage, the pervasiveness of marriage and other unions, rates of divorce, separation and remarriage and mortality levels; (ii) the percentage of women using contraceptives; modern or traditional methods and practices like, abstinence, and exclusive breastfeeding

Onoja and Osayomore (2012) notes that less developed countries like Nigeria could grow economically if population growth is held in check (for poor human capacity building). For instance, uncontrolled fertility has been reported to have adversely influenced the socio-economic, demographic and environmental development of countries like, Ethiopia, Bangladesh and Pakistan. Apart from that, studies conducted in Nigeria and some other less developed countries have shown that unemployment rate is closely related to high rate of fertility and its long run consequence-population explosion. Fertility is the most important component of population dynamics and plays a major role in changing the size and structure of the population of a given area over time (Dube, 2013 citing Yohannes et al, 2004).

Ordinarily, the determinants of fertility are economic and social, but in African, culture plays a very important role. In Population Council (1987)--- the explanation to high and stable fertility rate in Sub-Saharan Africa lies largely in a religious belief system and an accompanying social structure that have accorded both spiritual and economic rewards to high marital fertility. Thus persecution arises where a marriage fails to produce a child or the preferred male child. Friedl in Hunter and Whitten (1977--- a man who is rich in land but has no children is an object of pity, the man’s wife is considered even more unfortunate. Living up to the expectation has implications on population.

The increasing number of children, for example strain the institutions providing services, such as education and health. Their health, as well as, their education, is poor, and lacking in basic skills. With decreased mortality and insignificant international migration (Juha, 1992) the stagnating economies are unable to employ most of the new entrants into the labor force. This rationality changes in time and space as the social and economic conditions vary between different geographical places and historical situations.

In Nigeria, the population growth is growing more drastically without a commensurate growth of the economy over same periods. This paper therefore, takes into account the effects of uncontrolled fertility on population growth and the overall impact of population growth on economic growth in Nigeria. Expectedly, population growth induces technological advancements and innovations. This is because population growth encourages competition in business activities and, as the country’s population grows, the size of its potential market expands as well. The expansion of the market, in its turn, encourages entrepreneurs to set up new businesses (Simon 1992). A large population growth on the other side is not only associated with food problem but also imposes constraints on the development, savings, foreign exchange and human resources. Meason (1988) like, Coale and Hoover(1958) analyzed that high youth dependence burdens limits a country’s ability to generate
sufficient saving, and concludes that reduction in savings and lack of sustainable development continue to be a cost of rapid population growth.

Other negative effects of population growth include poverty associated with low income per capita, famine, urban congestion and disease, since rapid population growth complicates the task of providing and maintaining the infrastructure, education and health care needed in modern economies (Barro, 1991; Mankiw, Romer and Weil, 1992). Another school of thought opined that population growth is a neutral factor in economic growth and is determined outside standard growth models (Felmingham 2004). Cross national evidence on the relationship between population growth and economic growth is inconsistent because the underlying parameters and assumptions vary across countries. Consequently it draws the conclusion that solution to over population of countries deals in specifics. Therefore, the aim of this paper is to isolate the determinants of population growth in Nigeria as caused by uncontrolled fertility, and to ascertain the relationship between the population growth offshoot and economic growth in Nigeria.

This study attempts to contribute to existing literature on the impact of uncontrolled fertility on Nigerian economic development from statistical and empirical perspective. Primarily, we identified biotic factors that influence fertility rate and hence population growth, and isolated among them the most prevailing factor(s) that affect population growth rate in Nigeria. We also tried to isolate, the offshoot effect of population growth on the economic growth. We thus, contribute to the literature on population growth and economic development in Nigeria by adopting various underlying population offshoot parameters identified in literature to determine the effect of these parameters on Nigerian economy.

The paper is organized into five sections. Section one is the introduction. Section two is the review of related literature. Section three contains the methodology. Section four shows the empirical analysis/results while section five contains our conclusions, policy implications and recommendations.

2. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE.

2.2 Theoretical Framework.

Scholars are torn between three theories; (a) that population growth helps a nation’s economy by stimulating economic growth and development; (b) another that bases its theory on Robert Malthus’ findings. Malthus (1798) stated that population increase is detrimental to a nation’s economy due to a variety of problems caused by the growth. Finally (c) that population growth does not have any impact on economic growth.

Malthus (1798) pointed out that population tends to grow geometrically, whereas food supplies grow only arithmetically. According to the Malthusian model, the causation goes in both directions. Higher economic growth increases population by stimulating early marriages, high birth rates, and reducing mortality rates from malnutrition. On the other hand, higher population depresses economic growth through diminishing returns. This dynamic interaction between population and economic growth is the centre of the Malthusian model, which implies a counter balancing effect on population in the long-run. According to Malthusian theory, a high population growth is associated with food problem, i.e., malnutrition and hunger. However, Bloom and freeman (1998) differ with the theory noting that food problem is more of a problem of poverty and inadequate income than a matter of high population growth. The population and food problem can be solved when income is
enough to buy adequate food as prices provide adequate incentives to produce. On the other hand, developing economies would have to export more, receive foreign aid or borrow overseas to meet their increased demand for food by increased imports. A high rate of population growth not only has an adverse impact on food supplies, but also intensifies the constraints on development of savings, foreign exchange, and human resources (Bloom and freeman, 1998).

Rapid population growth tends to depress savings per capita and retards growth of physical capital per worker (Gideon et al, 2013). The need for social infrastructure is also broadened and public expenditures must be absorbed in providing the need for a larger population rather than in providing directly productive assets. Population pressure is likely to intensify the foreign exchange constraints by placing more pressure on the balance of payment. The need to import food will require the development of new industries for export expansion and/or import substitution. The rapid increase in school-age population and the expanding number of labor force entrants puts ever-greater pressure on educational and training facilities and retards improvement in the quality of education, which is a problem in developing economies. Also, too dense a population aggravates the problem of improving the health of the population and intensifies pressure on employment and the amount of investment available per labor market entrant (Martin 2009).

More people may mean that a country can produce and consume more goods and services, leading to economic growth (Gideon et al, 2013). However, this can only occur when employment opportunities grow at least as fast as the labor force and when people have access to the necessary education and training. Economists advocating the positive effects of population growth are of the opinion that the population growth creates problems in the short run that include famine, consistent insufficient facilities and infrastructure, and unemployment. They lead to social mal-function from consequences of poverty. Yet, population leads to new developments through advancement in technology that leave countries better off than if the population never increased as fast, (Gideon et al, 2013). According to the neo-classical growth model, population is beneficial to an economy due to the fact that population growth is correlated to technological advancement (Gideon et al, 2013). Rising population promotes the need for some sort of technological change in order to meet the rising demands for certain goods and services. With the increased populace, economies are blessed with a large labor force, making it cheaper as well, due to its immense availability. An increase in labor availability and a low cost for labor results in a huge rise in employment as businesses are more inclined to the cheap labor. Low labor costs results in a shift of money usage from wages into advancement through technology (Coale and Hoover, 1958). Friedberg and Hunt (1995) opine that population growth and urbanization go together, and economic development is closely correlated with urbanization. Rich countries are urban countries. Population growth increases density and, together with rural-urban migration, creates higher urban agglomeration. And this is critical for achieving sustained growth because large urban centers allow for innovation and increase economies of scale. Companies can produce goods in larger numbers and more cheaply, serving a larger number of low-income customers. Many countries have companies which have been benefitting from increasing population growth and density in targeting the large numbers of lower and lower-middle income. Their business model is viable because they can serve a multi-million customer base.

2.3 Empirical Review

The age structure of the population also matter for economic growth. The demography divides population into three categories: young age population (0-14 years), working age population (15 -
64 ages) and old age population (over 65 years). Amongst these three categorizes, young age and old age population can negatively affect on the output per capita. Nigeria population represented in 2000, 44 percent of the population that are less than 15 years and 3 percent that are above 65 years. These excluded those from 15-20 years (PRB 2000), while 1991 censuses identified 55.4% Nigerians in the age bracket of 0-19(Online Nigeria.com). Approximately 60 percent of the current population is dependents, exerting pressure on the few workforce, that are often under-employed. The ratio has implication on saving, investment and economic growth. It also leads to a decline in the total output per capita. Meason (1988); Coale and Hoover(1958), analyzed that high youth dependence burdens limits a country’s ability to generate sufficient saving, and concludes that reduction in savings and lack of sustainable development continue to be a cost of rapid population growth.

**Graph 1: The age structure of the Nigerian population as represented in graph1below.**

![Graph 1](http://databank.worldbank.org/data, 2012).

Where ADR = Age Dependency Ratio; ADRO = Age Dependency Ratio of the Old; ADRY = Age Dependency Ratio of the Young.

The age structure of the population is largely determined by the stage of a country in the demographic transition. Nigeria’s population could be said to be moving from stage one of the demographic transition into stage two of the demographic transition. Stage one is associated with pre Modern times, and is characterized by a balance between birth rates and death rates a situation true of all human populations up until the late 18th.C, when the balance was broken in western Europe. In this stage, birth and death rates are both very high (30-50 per thousand) as was the case for Nigeria up till the early 19th century (Graph 2.). Death rates were very high at all times in this stage for: Lack of knowledge of disease prevention and cure; and occasional food shortages, outbreaks of infectious diseases such as influenza, scarlet fever, or plague. A minority of children survived childhood. Water and food borne diseases as well as immunization prevention diseases, were common killer. The high rate of birth (even higher if one were to adjust it for women of childbearing age) could be due to any or all of the factors that are associated with high fertility even today. With a high death rate among children, there would be little incentive in rural societies to control fertility except in the most unbearable of circumstances.

Another perspective is characterized by a rise in population caused by a decline in the death rate while the birth rate remains high. The decline in the death rate is due to two main factors: (a) improvements in food supply brought about by higher yields as agricultural practices were
mechanized and improved. Again there were significant improvements in public health that reduced mortality, particularly in childhood, as there are improvements in water supply, sewage, food handling, and general personal hygiene following on from growing scientific knowledge of the causes of diseases.

With the high dependency ratio of Nigerian population which shows that each working age person currently has to take care of more than one dependent, one wonders how economic development can be achieved

**Graph 2: Graphical Representation of Birth Rate and Death Rate in Nigeria (1960-2010)**


Where DR = Death Rate and BR = Birth Rate.

Bloom and Williamson (1998) adjust a neo-classical growth model to show that this second phase of the demographic transition is associated with particularly high growth, while the first phase leads to high growth. Bloom and Williamson (1998) called the first phase (in which Nigeria is currently trying to wriggle out from) a ‘demographic burden’ and the second phase a ‘demographic gift’. The quicker the fertility declines in that phase, the larger the demographic gift. The demographic gift, particularly the high savings and investment rates, are not automatic but will depend on sound economic policy that ensures high employment. Also, it is clear that the phase of the ‘demographic gift’ will be temporary and it will be replaced by another phase of a demographic burden when the share of workers is falling and that of the elderly rising. But in the case of Nigeria ‘temporary’ could last to a period of 30-50 years to allow for the inevitable ageing of society.

**Graph 3: Nigeria’s Total Fertility Rate.**
The total fertility rate, is the average number of children that would be born to a woman during her lifetime, during her biotic potential years estimated at 16-44+ (Loremate, 2004). Estimates of TFR for the years 1960, 1965, 1970, 1975, 1980 are 6.354, 6.335, 6.471, 6.706, 6.787 respectively (table 1). These figures imply an increase between 1965 and 1980 or, at best, a stability of fertility at high levels. The rise in fertility in early to mid-1970s may be explained partly by the dramatic rise in revenue from oil export which leads to a sharp increase in food import as well as workers’ salaries (Bankole and Bamisaye, 1985). From 1981 up till 1997 TFR rose to 6.006 per female. Further decline in TFR was indicated from 1998 when fertility rate dropped by one percentage point to 5.963 to 2011 closing the period at 5.489. It can be argued that an onset of a sustained fertility decline appeared to have begun after the mid-eighties when policy makers started to give population control issues some serious considerations which culminated in the formulation of a national population policy in 1988 (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1988). As indicated above, the onset of fertility decline coincided with the period of economic downturn in Nigeria; characterized mainly by high unemployment rates. Adebusoye and Feyisetan (1994) concluded that economic crises at the societal and personal levels must have contributed to the decision to postpone or stop child bearing. In his study of the Yoruba in Southwest Nigeria, Orubuloye (1998) also alluded to economic difficulties as the main factor underlying the decline in fertility. That fertility declined among all age groups reinforces the assertion by Caldwell et. al. (1992), that because young adult attempts to avoid pregnancy and marriage, efforts at birth spacing by older women will continue to be important driving force in the transition.

As at 1998 when fertility in Guatemala and United States were 4.8 and 2.1 per woman, respectively Nigeria’s fertility stood at 5.963 per a woman. As at 1998, United States have attained replacement rate while Nigeria is battling to initiate a reduction process, talk less a replacement fertility, (Wikipedia, 2013) describes as precisely the total fertility adults have just enough total babies to replace themselves. The replacement fertility rate is roughly 2.1 births per woman for most industrialized countries (2.075 in the UK for example), but ranges from 2.5 to 3.3 (Nigeria TFR of 5.8, inclusive) in developing countries because of higher mortality rates. Taken globally, the total fertility rate at replacement is 2.33 children per woman. At this rate, global population growth would tend towards zero (Wikipedia,2013).

Fertility across the world is correlated with a number of factors. These include: age of marriage; female literacy; childhood mortality. We can also state more subjectively that there exist in different societies values and norms that support childbearing and these may be stronger in some societies than in others. Indirectly, the desire to have a male child may also force the issue in Nigeria.

Factors Associated With Fertility Decline in Nigeria

Fertility desires

For declines in fertility to be sustained, there must be changes in fertility norms towards smaller family size. Fertility norms, usually reflected by the demand for children, are most often measured by the number of children desired under prevailing social and economic conditions. Nigeria’s rapid population growth has peculiar catalysts that appear inalienable. It is the understanding of the Population Council (1987) that the explanation to high and stable fertility rate in Sub-Saharan Africa lies largely in a religious belief system and an accompanying social structure that have accorded both spiritual and economic rewards to high marital fertility. Friedl in Hunter and Whitten (1977) informed that the ability to transmit wealth is especially important. The villagers consider a
man who is rich in land but has no children an object of pity, the man’s wife is considered even more unfortunate. A future decline in fertility could be anticipated when fertility desires decline and become much lower than actual fertility.

Marriage
Changes in the proportion married as well as increases in age at marriage have been identified as one of the factors responsible for fertility decline in some North African countries (Fargues, 1989; National Research Council, 1982). These patterns of differentials provide some grounds to expect some decline as the population becomes more urbanized and more women attain higher education. The current economic condition in Nigeria, whose improvements may not immediately translate to improvements in the lives of a greater proportion of the population, has also been noted to favor increased age at marriage. Orubuloye (1998) noted that marriage is now generally delayed as many boys and girls postpone marriage in order to consolidate their careers and earning capacities.

Contraceptive use
The fertility inhibiting effect of contraception especially as it shifts to more effective methods has been demonstrated by several studies (Westoff and Bankole, 2001; Westoff, 1990, Ross and Frankenberg, 1993, Cohen, 1998). Contraceptive use, particularly of modern methods, has increased in Nigeria since the early eighties. Some policies in the provision of family planning services are expected to increase access to family planning services. Several NGOs also offer reproductive health services to adolescents and these are expected to impact on adolescent pregnancies and fertility control even among rural dwellers. Also, the integration of family planning and maternal and child health services under the primary health care system offers more opportunities to reach potential clients. Again with increasing participation of men in family planning, a major barrier to contraceptive adoption would have been overcome and an increase in contraceptive use can be expected. Furthermore, the use of the mass media to promote family planning has been found to be effective in changing contraceptive behavior in Nigeria (Bankole et al., 1999).

Postpartum variables: Breastfeeding, postpartum amenorrhea and postpartum abstinence
Breastfeeding is universal in Nigeria. Breastfeeding and the delay in the resumption of sex are known to lengthen the duration of amenorrhea. It is a leading cause of polygamy, and the consequent spread of venereal diseases and rapid population growth. Nigeria customary law aligns with Hunter and Whitten (1977) that, women accept that a man can have several wives. He can spend his nights with each wife in turn.

Other factors
Several socioeconomic factors have been identified to have indirect effect on fertility. However, two of them are briefly highlighted here: women’s education and female employment. Studies have shown that the influence of education on fertility varies greatly between countries with different levels of schooling (Jejeebhoy, 1995). In most cases, the relationship between women’s education and fertility has been negative and several channels have been identified through which women’s education influences fertility. In Nigeria, studies have consistently indicated lower fertility among women with secondary and higher levels of education, implying that significant increases in women’s education is accompanied by a decline in fertility. Female enrollment at all levels of education has increased over the years (FOS, 1997), and there is no reason to anticipate a reversal in the trend. The participation of women in the labor force has also increased over the years in Nigeria,
although decreasing employment prospects are reducing the impact of employment. Women employed in the formal sector have usually been noted to have fewer children. Like their male counterparts, being unemployed denies women the access to resources with which to prepare for marriage and child rearing immediately after leaving school. Thus, they are forced to postpone marriage and child rearing in order to consolidate their earnings capacity. Because men’s resources are becoming increasingly inadequate to meet household needs, increasing proportions of men now look for employed women as partners, thus reducing marriage chances of unemployed women.

Gideon et al, (2013) establish the relationship between economic growth and population growth in Kenya by employing Vector Auto Regression estimation technique and used annual time series data for the period 1963 to 2009. Their results indicated population growth and economic growths are both positively correlated and that an increase in population will impact positively to the economic growth in the country. They conclude that in Kenya population growth promotes economic growth and subsequently economic development. According to Bixby and Casterline (1994), fertility in Costa Rica fell by 50 percent in only 15 years. In those years the country’s economy grew substantially. Real growth in the gross domestic product was 6.5 percent per annum. Adediran (2012) examines the effect of population on economic development in Nigeria. The study used trend analysis of the study with the scope spanning between 1981 and 2007. The study adopted ordinary least square method of analysis. The study revealed that population growth has positive and significant impact on economic sustainability represented as real gross domestic product (RGDP) and Per Capita Income.

Minh (2012) examines the economic effects of the demographic transition in developing countries. Based on data from the World Bank and using a sample of forty-three developing economies, he found that the growth rate of per capita GDP is linearly dependent upon population growth, both the young and old dependency ratios, the mortality rate, and whether or not the rate of population growth is less than 1.2 percent per year. Stephan and David (2007) using the interesting case study of Uganda were able to consider the impact of population growth on per capita economic growth and poverty and found both theoretical considerations and strong empirical evidence suggesting that the current high population growth put a considerable break on per capita growth prospects in Uganda. Moreover, it contributed significantly to low achievement in poverty reduction and is associated with households being persistently poor. The reverse is therefore likely to make substantial improvements in poverty reduction, and increase per capita growth.

Dube et al (2013), set out to identify determinants of high fertility status among married woman in Gilgel by conducting an unmatched case-control. Logistic regression was used to analyze the data by using backward variable selection technique. The finding implies high fertility rate among women with number of children ever born alive less than five, than with those with number of children ever born alive greater or equal to five. Hence measures that reduce child mortality promote child survival and increase population.

The overall literature agrees that uncontrolled fertility can have negative and positive consequences on population growth of a country depending on the factors considered. However, with increase in education, skill acquisition and other forms of capacity building and employment for women, fertility rate is gradually on the decline.
3. METHODOLOGY.

The paper adopts an ex-post research design by making use of data gathered from the official website of the World Bank databank. It is a Nigerian post-independence study that covered period after independence in 1960 to 2011 (51 years).

To test the relationship as well as the impact of population growth on Nigerian economic growth as described above, we estimated an ultimate linear regression model relating population growth offshoot factors to economic growth as displayed in equation (1) but in a multiple form:

\[ \text{Econgrowth}_{ijt} = f(\text{Populationgrowth}_t) \] 

However, the analyses for this paper were carried out in two stages. First, we determined the biological factors that affect population growth in Nigeria and isolate amongst the factors the most influential factors affecting population growth and secondly, we determined the relationship as well as the effect of the population offshoot factors on economic growth in Nigeria.

For examining the relationship between biological factors that influence population growth, we state the following multiple model:

\[ \text{APGR}_t = f(\text{BR}_t + \text{DR}_t + \text{CP}_t + \text{FR}_t + \text{PHE}_t + \text{IS}_t + \text{MR}_t + \text{PF}_t) + u \] 

Where: APGR = Annual Population Growth Rate
BR = Birth Rate
DR = Death Rate
CP = Contraceptive Prevalence
FR = Fertility Rate
PHE = Public Health Expenditure
IS = Improved Sanitation
MR = Mortality Rate
U = error term.

For examining the relationship and the effect of the population offshoot factors on economic growth, we used the following equation:

\[ \text{GDPPERCAPITA} = f(\text{PD}_t + \text{nlogLF}_t + \text{EPR}_t + \text{DRC}_t + \text{DRA}_t + u) \] 

Where: GDPPERCAPITA = Gross Domestic Product Per Capita Income
APGR = Annual Population Growth Rate
nlogLF = natural log Labour Force
EPR = Employment to Population Ratio
ADRO = Age Dependency Ratio Old
ADRY = Age Dependency Ratio Young
U = Error term

\[ t \text{ represents the time periods.} \]
However, we ascertained the properties of our variables to ensure that there is no unit root problem using the ADF (Augmented Dickey Fuller) unit root test. A time series is considered to be stationary if its mean and variance are independent of time. If a time series is non-stationary, the regression analysis carried out in a conventional way will produce spurious results. Therefore, non-stationary time series were converted into a stationary time series by differencing.

**Description of Independent Variables.**

**Birth rate; crude (per 1,000 people)**
The Birth rate; crude (per 1,000 people) in Nigeria was last reported at 39.89 in 2010, according to a World Bank report published in 2012. Crude birth rate indicates the number of live births occurring during the year, per 1,000 people, estimated at midyear, (World Bank, 2012). Subtracting the crude death rate from the crude birth rate provides the rate of natural increase, which is equal to the rate of population change in the absence of migration.

**Death rate, crude (per 1,000 people)**
Crude death rate indicates the number of deaths occurring during the year, per 1,000 people estimated at midyear. Subtracting the crude death rate from the crude birth rate provides also, the rate of natural increase.

**Contraceptive prevalence (% of women ages 15-49) in Nigeria**
The Contraceptive prevalence (% of women ages 15-49) in Nigeria was reported at 14.60 in 2008, from World Bank database. Contraceptive prevalence rate is the percentage of women who are practicing, or whose sexual partners are practicing, any form of contraception.

**Total Fertility rate; (births per woman) in Nigeria:**
The Fertility rate; total (births per woman) in Nigeria was last reported at 5.53 in 2010, according to a World Bank report published in 2012. Total fertility rate represents the number of children that would be born to a woman if she were to live to the end of her childbearing years (15-44+).

**Public Health expenditure; (% of government expenditure) in Nigeria**
The Health expenditure; public (% of government expenditure) in Nigeria was last reported at 4.41 in 2010, according to a World Bank report published in 2012. Public health expenditure consists of recurrent and capital spending from government (central to local) budgets, external borrowings and grants (including donations from international agencies and nongovernmental organizations), and social (compulsory) health insurance funds.

**Mortality rate; under-5 (per 1,000) in Nigeria**
The Mortality rate; under-5 (per 1,000) in Nigeria was last reported at 142.90 in 2010, according to a World Bank report published in 2012. Under-five mortality rate is the probability per 1,000 that a newborn baby will die before reaching age five, if subject to current age-specific mortality rates.

**Labor force; total in Nigeria**
The Labor force; total in Nigeria was last reported at 50280306.59 in 2010, according to a World Bank report published in 2012. Total labor force comprises people ages 15 and older who meet the International Labor Organization definition of the economically active population: all people who supply labor for the production of goods and services during a specified period. It includes both the employed and the unemployed.
Employment to population ratio; ages 15-24:
The Employment to population ratio in Nigeria was last reported at 34.80 in 2010, according to a World Bank report published in 2012. Employment to population ratio is the proportion of a country's population that is employed. Ages 15-24 are generally considered the youth population.

Age dependency ratio; (% of working-age population) in Nigeria
The Age dependency ratio in Nigeria was last reported at 6.34 in 2011, according to a World Bank report published in 2012. Age dependency ratio, is the ratio of older dependents--people older than 64--to the working-age population--those ages 15-64. Data are shown as the proportion of dependents per 100 working-age population. Those, 0-14 years are also dependent, and was last reported at 79.57 in 2011.

GDP per capita growth (annual %) in Nigeria
The GDP per capita growth in Nigeria was last reported at 4.02 in 2011, according to a World Bank report published in 2012. Annual percentage growth rate of GDP per capita is based on constant local currency. GDP per capita is gross domestic product divided by midyear population. GDP at purchaser's prices is the sum of gross value added by all resident producers in the economy plus any product taxes and minus any subsidies not included in the value of the products. It is calculated without making deductions for depreciation of fabricated assets or for depletion and degradation of natural resources.

4. FINDINGS.
Having ensured data stationarity, we examined the relationship between factors that influence population growth with the following multiple equation:

\[ \text{APGR}_t = f(\text{BR}_t + \text{DR}_t + \text{CP}_t + \text{FR}_t + \text{PHE}_t + \text{IS}_t + \text{MR}_t + \text{PF}_t) + u \] ………………………(2)

Table 4.1. Regression Estimate with the Annual Population Growth as Dependent Variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BR</td>
<td>0.174490</td>
<td>0.034888</td>
<td>5.001422</td>
<td>0.0007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DR</td>
<td>-0.080995</td>
<td>0.077171</td>
<td>-1.049548</td>
<td>0.3213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR</td>
<td>-0.010113</td>
<td>0.013780</td>
<td>-0.733901</td>
<td>0.4817</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FR</td>
<td>0.237442</td>
<td>0.362221</td>
<td>0.655517</td>
<td>0.5285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PHE</td>
<td>-0.000990</td>
<td>0.000574</td>
<td>-1.725178</td>
<td>0.1186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IS</td>
<td>0.009971</td>
<td>0.006898</td>
<td>1.445506</td>
<td>0.1822</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>-4.060672</td>
<td>2.997237</td>
<td>-1.354805</td>
<td>0.2085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>0.992813</td>
<td>Mean dependent var</td>
<td>2.426373</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R²</td>
<td>0.988021</td>
<td>S.D. dependent var</td>
<td>0.070255</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.E. of regression</td>
<td>0.007689</td>
<td>Akaike info criterion</td>
<td>-6.598343</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the table 4.1, it can be observed that the signs of the coefficients are as expected, but for public health expenditure which has a negative relationship with annual population growth. The negative report could be alluded to, dearth statistical data necessary for planning and deficient institutions that encourage corruption. Also, mortality rate has a negative relationship with population growth rate.

Having isolated the factors that determine the population growth of a country, we estimated a multiple regression equation that applies independent variables that are viewed as an essential consequent of population growth to determine its effect on economic growth. The estimation results are presented in table 4.2 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable: GDPPERCAPITA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Method: Least Squares</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APGR**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADRO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADRY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-squared</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R-squared</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.E. of regression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum squared resid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log likelihood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Durbin-Watson stat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Result in Table 4.2 above, shows that rapid population growth in Nigeria affects the economy negatively, as it exerts pressure on facilities and infrastructure, that also result in high unemployment rate.

The above revelations explains the poverty level of Nigerians due to dilution of capital, low purchasing power from poor income per capita, high crime rate and low life expectancy. They f support the position of Onoja and Osayomore (2012) that less developed countries like Nigeria could grow economically if population growth is held in check.
Conclusion and Policy Implication.

This paper has extensively reviewed and linked uncontrolled fertility in Nigeria to population growth and determined that high fertility, birth rate and low mortality positively affect high population growth. Further findings reveal that high population in Nigeria exerts negative consequences on the Nigeria’s economic growth. These consequences can be appreciated by high poverty, inadequate housing, poor sanitation, low standard of living, high unemployment rate and inflation, high pressures on existing infrastructural facilities, sophisticated crime, etc (Mark. D 2012)

There is evidence that fertility rate is on the decline in Nigeria, though insignificant, as represented in graph 3 above. Since, fertility is the most important component of population dynamics that plays a major role in changing the size and structure of the population and its quality, uncontrolled fertility has been reported to have adversely influenced the socio-economic, demographic and environmental development of countries such as Ethiopia, Bangladesh and Pakistan. The policy implication of this paper is for the government to develop a comprehensive fertility control program, so as to complete fertility transition as well as achieve fertility rate beyond the fertility replacement.

Given the above, we therefore recommend as follows:

Equal relationships between men and women in matters of sexual relation calls for a review and harmonization, for example, the discrimination enshrined in Sec. 353 and 6 of the Nigeria criminal law, and secs 55 and 241 of the penal code.

Individuals who are at a distinct disadvantage in terms of their capacities to secure information lack vital power. Politicians should instead donate information technology gadgets like radio, television, and provision of modern viewing centers or even pictorial books to rural dwellers. Advocacies, especially international declarations on gender equity like Articles 1-36 of the Protocol on the Right of the African Women need to be adopted into our legal system, and also be made justiciable.

The preferred male, and male must dominate attitude inherent in the culture needs to be addressed by government and the elites in the society. The later should also westernize in family size and assets sharing.

A functional welfare scheme needs to substitute total economic dependence of women on their husbands and later on their children at old age.

Expanded health facilities and intuitions should incorporate family planning education (sex education). It should also be taught in schools.

References


Counsellor and Practicum Supervisor Critical Incidents in the Development of Multicultural and Social Justice Competency

Abstract:
Cultural influences on the identities of clients and counsellors and how those identities intersect have significant effect on the counselling process. The experiences and worldviews of clients from diverse cultural backgrounds influence presenting concerns, case conceptualization, and intervention strategies. Clients with non-dominant identities (ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, ability, socioeconomic status, age, or religion) more often encounter experiences of social injustice, including discrimination and cultural oppression that significantly impact psychosocial wellbeing. With increased globalization and cultural diversity in many countries, there is a call for increased attention to these challenges. Counsellors are expected to engage in social justice action, with or on behalf of clients, to effect change in organizations, communities, or broader social systems.

To prepare counsellors for these challenges, graduate counsellor education programs must incorporate competency development in both multicultural counselling and social justice. However, research is lacking on the effectiveness of current curriculum and the application of learning to practice contexts. The existing literature suggests that counsellors are not fully prepared to meet these complex challenges, particularly in the area of social justice. The purpose of this study was to examine how well selected counsellor education programs in Canada are preparing counsellors for both multicultural counselling and social justice. Most research has focused on curriculum content; less attention has been paid to how that content is taught and the efficacy of those learning processes in facilitating competency.

The critical incident technique was used to solicit examples of effective and less effective learning processes from both practicum supervisors and counsellors in the field. Twenty-five practicum supervisors from two graduate programs and 48 counsellors from national and provincial counselling organizations participated in the study through an online survey, a portion of those provided the detailed critical incidents discussed in this paper. The qualitative data was analyzed to isolate, cluster, and relate emergent concepts. A critical psychology lens facilitated contextualization of the data in context of full transcripts and the power structures within education, the profession, and society to examine both overt and covert meanings.

Several themes emerged from the detailed analysis of these critical incidents. The strongest theme was the lack of graduate multicultural education and, even more absent, a focus on social justice. This gap in learning was itself a critical incident, particularly as participants encountered the demands of culturally diverse work environments. For many, their competency evolved post-education through self-study and direct contact with diverse populations and, in some cases, through observations of cultural oppression in their work contexts. Those who had graduate multicultural counselling coursework highlighted critical readings, experiential learning activities, exposure to cultural diversity (sometimes through instructors and peers), open discussions, and opportunities to engage in direct service or applied practice. A statement by one participant reflects...
the conclusion that combining theory and practice optimizes learning: “I think that we need to engage fully in experiences which help us understand others at a deeper level, and this does not occur through reading some book on cultural differences.” Recommendations for teaching and educational practices will be highlighted.

**Keywords:** Multicultural Counselling, Social Justice, Counselling Competencies, Counsellor Education

1. **Introduction**

Cultural influences on the identities of clients and counsellors, as well as the intersection and interaction between counsellor and client identities, have a significant effect on the counselling process (Constantine, Hage, Kindaichi, & Bryant, 2007; Zalaquett, Foley, Tillotson, Dinsmore, & Hof, 2008). The experiences and worldviews of clients from diverse cultural backgrounds influence their presenting concerns as well as the counsellors’ perspective on and approach to case conceptualization and intervention strategies (Fowers and Davidov, 2007; Ratts, 2011; Sinacore et al., 2011). Counsellors are now expected to demonstrate competence in multicultural counselling as part of the foundation for ethical practice (Arredondo & Toporek, 2004; Sue, 2008). However, there is also evidence that service quality remains lower and counselling services are still underutilized by members of non-dominant populations (Harris, Edlund, & Larson, 2005; Imel et al., 2011).

Clients with non-dominant identities (based on ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, ability, social class, age, or religion – and their intersections) more often encounter experiences of social injustice, including discrimination and cultural oppression, which significantly impact psychosocial wellbeing (Arthur & Collins, 2011; Leong, 2010). Recognition of these contextual influences on clients wellbeing has led to a shift in theoretical and conceptual frameworks for counselling to include a focus on systems level analysis and intervention (Palmer & Parish 2008; Santiago-Rivera, Talka, & Tully, 2006).

Social justice has become an explicit agenda within the discipline of counselling. Social justice is defined as: (a) equitable distribution of resources and opportunities, (b) purposeful action to eliminate oppression, (c) facilitation of full inclusion and participation in society by all individuals and groups, and (d) action to facilitate people’s development and potential (Arthur, Collins, McMahon, & Marshall, 2009; Green, McCollum & Hays, 2008; Singh & Salazar, 2010). With increased globalization and cultural diversity in many countries, there is a call for increased attention to these challenges. Counsellors are expected to engage in social justice action, with or on behalf of clients, to effect change in organizations, communities, or broader social systems (Ratts & Hutchkins, 2009; Vera & Speight, 2003).

To prepare counsellors for these challenges, graduate counsellor education programs must incorporate competency development in both multicultural counselling and social justice (Constantine et al., 2007; Zalaquett et al, 2008). However, there is insufficient research on the effectiveness of current curriculum and, in particular, the application of student learning to practice contexts (Smith, Constantine, Dunn, Dinehart, & Montoya, 2006; Vera & Speight, 2003). The existing literature suggests that counsellors are not fully prepared to meet the complex challenges presented by the diversity of clientele or the systemic influences on wellbeing, particularly in the
area of social justice (Cates & Schaefle, 2009; Pieterse, 2009; Pieterse, Evans, Risner-Butler, Collins, & Mason, 2009).

The purpose of this study was to examine how well selected counsellor education programs in Canada are preparing counsellors for both multicultural counselling and social justice. Most research has focused on curriculum content; less attention has been paid to how that content is taught and the efficacy of those learning processes in facilitating competency (Pieterse et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2006).

1.2 Positioning of the Study

The analysis in this article forms part of a larger research study that aimed to better understand how students, counsellors, and practicum site supervisors viewed multicultural counselling and social justice and how their professional education has prepared them to apply multicultural and social justice principles in practice. The data from the sample of graduate students are reported elsewhere (Collins, Arthur, & Brown, 2013; Collins, Arthur, Brown, & Kennedy, 2013). This article focuses on the practicum supervisor and counsellor perspectives on the question: How has counsellor education prepared counsellors and practicum supervisors for multicultural counselling and social justice action and what specific experiences have been most impactful or meaningful? This article highlights practitioner voices in examining what learning methodologies, resources, tools, or processes were most memorable or prominent in their competency development.

2. Methodology

Counsellor and practicum supervisors completed an online survey, a portion of which solicited critical incidents (CIs) relating significant learning processes within their graduate education. The critical incident technique (CIT) involves gathering and analyzing short descriptive vignettes or examples about significant events or experiences that illustrate a particular phenomenon. It is a well-recognized approach to contemporary research (Arthur, 2001; Butterfield, Borgen, Amundson, & Maglio, 2005). The CIT has been used, for example, to examine the evolution of social justice consciousness of doctoral students (Caldwell & Vera, 2010), multicultural counselling course outcomes (Sammons & Speight, 2008), and the social justice competencies of career counsellors (Arthur, Collins, Marshall, & McMahon, 2013).

Twenty-five practicum supervisors responded to the survey; 17 provided CIs. Forty-eight counsellors responded, with 24 providing CIs. Ten practicum supervisors and 18 counsellors agreed to further clarification of their ideas by email. In addition, a subset of 4 supervisors and 6 counsellors agreed to a semi-structured follow-up interview. The data from the online survey, the email clarification, and the follow-up interviews have been combined for this article. The counsellors and practicum supervisors were invited to reflect back on their graduate education with a view to identifying those elements of the learning process that were most influential on their development of multicultural counselling and social justice competency. To maintain the focus on multicultural counselling and social justice, participants were instructed to “think of your current work with clients or students you supervise, who reflect the diversity of Canadian society through ethnicity, nationality, gender, sexual orientation, socioeconomic status, age, religion, and/or ability” and “reflect on their needs for effective multicultural counselling/supervision and for a range of social justice interventions.” They were then asked to identify a positive and a less positive learning experience that affected their competence for working with these clients, focusing specifically on
learning activities, assignments, tools, processes, as well as less structured or formalized experiences or encounters.

The practicum supervisors were recruited directly through the counselling psychology programs at the researchers’ institutions. Sixty-eight percent of the supervisors resided in Alberta; 12% in British Columbia, 8% in Quebec, and the rest across the country. Thirty-three percent were 50 to 59 years of age; 29% were 40 to 49; 17% were 60 to 69; and the rest were younger. Seventy-two percent were female, and 92% were Caucasian. The counsellors were invited to participate through the Canadian Counselling and Psychotherapy Association and provincial counselling associations. They were more widely dispersed: 43% Alberta, 23% Ontario, 15% British Columbia, the rest were distributed over remaining provinces and territories. Thirty-three percent of counsellors were also aged 50 to 59; however, the next largest group was 30 to 39 (25%), followed by 29 or less and 40 to 49 (both at 17%), making this group younger overall than the practicum supervisors. Seventy-five percent were female and 98% Caucasian. The majority of both counsellors and supervisors had a Masters degree (70% and 80% respectively) and the rest had a doctoral degree.

There were three phases to the data analysis. First, the online data was coded using NVivo software to identify the primary categories of learning activities (CIs) that stood out for participants. This qualitative data was carefully analyzed by two of the researchers to isolate, cluster, and relate emergent concepts and to cross-validate the coding process. Figure 1 provides an overall picture of the CIs that were viewed as most influential. Many counsellors and practicum supervisors emphasized the impact of a lack of graduate coursework related to multicultural counselling and, even more so, a lack of focus on social justice. This contrasted quite dramatically with the experiences of recent students, who most often identified learning experiences within the context of graduate education as CIs (Collins, Arthur, Brown, 2013). As a result of this substantive gap in their graduate learning, the most significant learning experiences stemmed from their applied practice experiences outside of their graduate program. However, some participants also identified specific learning activities within their programs and instructor approaches or perspectives that influenced their competency development.

Figure 1. Relative weight of CI categories identified by counsellors and practicum supervisors reflecting on their most meaningful learning experiences.

In the second phase of data analysis, each of these categories of CIs was examined in more detail to identify themes that emerged within and across these learning experiences. Then, as a third step, the follow-up interviews were analyzed for additional examples of CI’s and related themes. The thematic analysis is represented in the concept map in Figure 2. A critical psychology lens facilitated contextualization of the data within the full transcripts and examination of the power
structures within education, the profession, and society with a view to elucidating both overt and covert meanings of particular experiences (Fox, Prilleltensky, & Austin, 2009).

**Figure 2.** Thematic analysis of counsellor and practicum supervisor CIs in the attainment of multicultural and social justice competency. The entries in italics were described as negative CIs, although they may have resulted in positive learning outcomes.

3. Results and Discussion

In this section, we will highlight several of the most significant emergent themes across the four core categories of CIs in Figure 2 that speak to both what was missing for these counsellors’ and practicum supervisors’ experiences in terms of curriculum content and/or learning processes in their graduate education as well as those CIs in learning that supported their competency development for multicultural counselling and social justice. These themes are interpreted in light of the demographics of the participants, described above, and the context of graduate counsellor education in Canada.

3.2 Lack of Multicultural Counselling and Social Justice Education

One of the central themes that emerged from the analyses was the lack of exposure to multicultural counselling and social justice education within the graduate counselling programs of most counsellors and practicum supervisors. Comments included: “I cannot recall that my graduate education did very much at all to prepare me. I actually don’t remember it being talked about much;” “I did not find in either grad program significant learning in either area;” and “I didn’t have negative experiences as much as limited experiences.” Those who were exposed to coursework related to multicultural counselling most often had a single course in this area, opted for an elective course that was not core to their graduate program, or had brief exposure in other courses: “Like it was available as an elective, but it wasn’t a mandatory course. And I would say it was somewhat limited in how it was integrated into other course work. For instance, we might touch on it in theories as one week on multiculturalism” and “It was an add-on… The instructor wasn’t even core faculty, a sessional and I think she tried to do a really good job in a difficult kind of context. But I think essentially it was paid lip service.” Even more absent was an emphasis on social justice
theory and practice: “So there was no social justice curriculum at all in my studies;” and “Social justice... I was just certainly aware that it was lacking in that area. You know it was a program to become a professional therapist and they didn’t look at that. I think a lot of programs are in the same boat today.” It was this dearth of learning opportunities in these areas that became a CI for the participants in this study.

As a result of this lack of emphasis on multicultural counselling and social justice principles, some participants felt that their training reflected a more traditional perspective on client case conceptualization and intervention planning. For example, client issues were decontextualized and the focus was on intrapsychic understandings of both the etiology of client problems and the possible solutions (Tuhiwai Smith, 2012): “Counsellor training program focused on the individual. Only in the area of career counselling was context really discussed in terms of practice” or “The program I was in concentrated more on individual counselling and tended not to see the fact that individuals are part of the society and that really, to address the full issues.” In addition, the counselling process was taught from an ethnocentric perspective, even though many participants noted experiences early in their careers in which they were faced with the challenge of working effectively with culturally diverse clientele: “It is noted to be based on a perspective on a person from European cultural perspective.” In some cases, creativity and flexibility in thinking critically about persons in the context of culture and cultural oppression were not supported: “In traditional education and what it felt like and always did feel like, was that I had to be pushed into a particular box and see things in a particular way. That certainly, in my experience, impeded my permission to explore other things.”

These observations support the arguments that multicultural counselling competence is different from the general counselling competence (Sexton, Ridley, & Kleiner, 2004; Sue, Zane, Nagayama Hall, & Berger, 2009) and that there are specific competencies required for addressing issues of social injustice with clients (Constantine et al., 2007; Fouad et al., 2006). Practitioners in this study exited their programs with a certain foundation in counselling practice; however, an awareness of what they did not know or where they lacked particular skills evolved over time, particularly as they encountered diverse clientele. Given the evolution of counsellor education programming in Canada and in other Western countries, it is not surprising that some of these counsellors and practicum supervisors had little exposure to these concepts and principles in their graduate education. As evidenced by the demographic data, many of the participants completed their education prior to the more widespread recognition of the importance of culture to counselling practice in the last several decades and, more recently, the emphasis positioning clients within their social, cultural, historical, and political contexts, in terms of both the loci of the problem and of the potential interventions (Constantine et al., 2007; Zalaquett et al., 2008). The risks associated with a more traditional counselling model include: the potential for blaming the victim rather than examining the systemic influences on client problems, misdiagnosis and the consequent use of inappropriate interventions, or inadvertently supporting the status quo by reinforcing power inequities and privilege/oppression (Fowers & Davidov, 2007; Sinacore et al., 2011). These participants faced the challenge of working effectively with multiculturally diverse clients and had to find their own ways to fill these competency gaps, as they became evident in their day-to-day practices. Singh et al. (2010) noted that this continues to be a problem for students who do not have exposure to sufficient multicultural and social justice training within their education programs.
3.3 Learning from Applied Practice with Diverse Clients

Many of the counsellors and practicum supervisors identified contact with clients from diverse cultural populations and contexts as important CIs in their development of multicultural and social justice competency: “The best preparation for this came from working in Montreal, a culturally diverse city” and “Engaging with clients has, in the end, probably been most instructive.” The participants identified many different populations of clients as sources of both challenge to their professional competency and opportunities for new learning: “The clients I encountered were about 50 percent first or second generation immigrants;” “assisted women leaving sex work… I was able to sit with the women in their bi-weekly support groups and to listen to their stories;” or “I think for me it was working with the marginalized youth and careers.” It was from listening to these clients that the participants developed a broader conceptual foundation for their work: “Yeah, I think the stories change our lives as counsellors in some cases” or “I work with men having conjugal violence for over 12 years after working with victims of sexual abuse. The stories I heard...” These stories lead the participants to consider the systemic and contextual forces that impact clients’ lives: “I happened to choose to work in areas where there’s considerable racism, poverty and oppression. “ and “Well, working with sexual minority people has made an enormous difference, because you really have to start looking at the roots and the causes of social injustice.”

Several of the participants argued that, although their education was lacking, the type of learning required to work effectively with diverse populations comes most effectively from applied practice experience: “I think some of this stuff comes from lived experience… I don’t think we should expect a 22 or 23-year-old graduate student to have the same lived experience as a 60 or a 70-year-old counsellor who is moving towards the end of a long counselling career. There’s certain things that we don’t experience until we’ve hit the reality. And so, why I think young counsellors have a lot to offer because of the things they’re being taught in school that I wasn’t taught that are very, very valuable perspectives. There are things that are very valuable that we get only from life experiences. So until you’ve had the experience, sometimes it’s more difficult” or “There’s only so much that your university can teach and the rest you have to go out and find on your own. And have that desire to want to find it.” There is certainly a resonance within the counselling literature about the importance of applied practice experiences in the mastery of multicultural and social justice competencies (Burnes & Singh, 2010; Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). These statements, however, assume that all practitioners will take responsibility for and have sufficient awareness and resources to actively engage in their own self-directed competency.

We would argue that a more effective approach would be to combine a solid foundation in multicultural counselling and social justice competencies within graduate education with both pre- and post-graduation applied practice experiences with diverse populations (Burnes & Singh, 2010; Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011; West-Olatunji, 2010). Some of the participants in this study, perhaps those who completed their graduate education more recently, were fortunate to be exposed to opportunities to apply their learning to real-world contexts as part of their graduate course work: “During our ethics course… we were required to participate in social action in some way as part of the course credit... I did ‘Trick or Eat’ (a food bank drive on Hallowe'en), volunteered at a fundraising event for an agency that worked with disabled adults in the community, and went into public schools as part of a campaign raising awareness about relationship violence” or “Learning activities which most resonated with me were those where I was able to learn something about another culture through being involved with members of the culture – for example, doing home
visits and learning about the religion of the family, or working with a visible minority and hearing their descriptions of the key elements of their culture which were important to them, or observing cultural activities in action (talking circle, for example).” Others had opportunities within their practicum placements to experience working with diverse populations and found opportunities to explore their evolving competence in “practicum work through group discussions/case presentations” or “practicum supervision sessions.” The central theme that emerged was the importance of explicit opportunities to apply theory and conceptual principles to practice (Lewis, 2010; Murray, Pope & Rowell, 2010).

The most transformative CIs for both counsellors and practicum supervisors were the opportunities to be immersed within diverse cultural contexts and to apply or seek out new knowledge and skills appropriate to those contexts. These learning foundations were noted both within the context of graduate education and as part of post graduate professional practice. Other researchers call for these types of real world learning experiences as part of both course work and practicum placements in graduate counselling education (Burnes & Singh, 2010; Hage & Kenny, 2009; Villalba, 2009). As part of the broader project in which this study was embedded, counselling students also emphasized learning opportunities that integrate the application of theory and applied practice as CIs’s in their competency development (Collins, Arthur, & Brown, 2013). One participant in this study noted: “I think because I was actively working during my program and able to directly apply what I learned, it was very effective for me. If I did not have a place to integrate what I was learning, or if I did not have some background in the area, I'm not sure how effective the learning would have been…”

One of the challenges in implementing effective applied practice learning is ensuring that practicum training staff and supervisors are competent and committed to a social justice agenda (Burnes & Manese, 2008; Grus, 2009). Some participants noted the value of mentoring experiences to their personal and professional development: “Well, I mean I had a few key mentors. One of which was really a great advocate of social justice and also a feminist practitioner;” or “I think what did prepare me was work experience and having great supervisors and that kind of stuff.” However, a few of the practicum supervisors and counsellors in this study found that their practicum placements posed barriers to rather than facilitators of competency development: “At one of my practicum placements, there was a general attitude of exclusion (i.e. there were right and wrong ways to be, and those who fell outside of the 'right' ways were excluded);” “While some in the agency were inclusive, there was a group offered through a companion agency that sought to re-educate gay people. It was hard to operate in an environment like that;” or “And then at the university counselling service where I did my second practicum, it was a bit more of a mix, but the approaches taken and everything and the mentoring I received was not very multicultural.” There may be a need for counselling programs to take a more active role in ensuring that practicum placements welcome macrolevel analysis and intervention, as well as multicultural approaches to practice (Burnes & Singh, 2010; Hage & Kenny, 2009; Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011).

3.4 Meaningful and Transformative Learning Activities

Only fourteen percent of the CIs identified by counsellors and practicum supervisors reflected specific learning activities that were part of their graduate education; nonetheless, these examples provided insights into the types of learning experiences that were transformative for these participants. For a few of the counsellors and practicum supervisors, their learning derived from a specific course on multicultural counselling, perhaps reflecting the younger age group in the study
participants: “I had a graduate course specific to multicultural counselling competency.” For others, they were part of programs that leaned in a particular theoretical direction that supported multicultural and/or social justice agendas: “…attending a graduate school whose focus was on feminist practice;” or the student body or local community was culturally diverse, prompting integration of these themes into course discussions: “In the course of my graduate level education I was fortunate to be educated in the North, where many of my classmates were First Nations, bringing their experiences, history and knowledge to supplement classroom material;” or “The key was classmates who were recent immigrants, first-generation Canadians, or worked in northern Quebec with First nations and Inuit.” There is considerable support in the professional literature for the positive impact on student learning related to multicultural counselling and social justice of active recruitment by the institution of a diverse student body (Paisley, Bailey, Hayes, McMahon & Grimmett, 2010; Shin, 2008; Winterowd, Adams, Miville, & Mintz, 2009). This diversity provides an opportunity for students to both develop and apply skills for cross-cultural communication; be exposed to a wider range of experiences, worldviews, and perspectives; and to engage in more complex and critical discussions about multicultural counselling and the impact of social inequities on both client experiences and the counselling process.

Many participants highlighted the opportunities to engage in discussions with peers and instructors either in a face-to-face or online context as CI’s in their learning process: “In my graduate course it was the dialogues with other students … that were the most meaningful;” “It was wonderful to be challenged by fellow students and instructors in discussions;” and “Thought-provoking discussions and consciousness raising were great learning methods.” In some cases, these discussions were part of other courses, not a specific multicultural counselling course: “discussing theories in relation to different cultural groups and to the practical application of counsellor’s skills with different groups;” or “Certainly those discussions were helpful. I don’t know if those came up explicitly or not but they certainly came up, and I think they were handled really well by the professors, they were an opportunity to have those discussions.” It is important for students to have opportunities to talk with each other and with instructors about cultural influences on counselling practices, as well as the impact of social injustices on their clients (Ponterotto, 2011).

Other participants highlighted opportunities for self-reflection as foundational to their learning: “In my graduate course it was … the questions that forced us to self-reflect that were the most meaningful;” “The focus on reflexivity, particularly debates with critical focus on examining values, beliefs, and the potential impacts of same;” and “We really delved deeply into our own cultural background, so that we then became aware that even though we think we are not culturally based, we are.” Many authors have pointed to the centrality of self-reflection and awareness of personal cultural identity to professional competency (Burnes & Singh, 2010; Collins, Arthur, & Wong-Wylie, 2010; Durham & Glosoff, 2010). One participant noted the close tie between self-reflection and social justice consciousness: “…self-reflection part had the biggest impact because social justice so often is the eye of the beholder. And looking at it through a different lens to see where even being a white Caucasian, European-based female is a position of power, just by that.” It is often in the context of discussions with instructors and peers that students are able to examine and challenge personal biases or assumptions and to express and work through personal struggles with multicultural and social justice content (Parra-Cardone, Holtrop, & Cordova, 2005; Palmer & Parish, 2008).
Other authors have noted experiential or process focused activities as facilitators of mastery of multicultural and social justice competencies (Ponterotto, 2011; Vazquez & Garcia-Vazquez, 2003), emphasizing, in particular, learning processes that foster an integration of self-reflection and awareness (Alvarez & Miville, 2003; Arthur & Achenbach, 2002). Participants in this study noted CIs that involved “experiential learning through personal engagement with multicultural counselling course material.” Some examples included: “…participated in an activity that had me live on the streets for 24 hours. Although only for a short time, the organizers were sure that we were treated like all other street people;” “On the first day of class (cross cultural family therapy), we arrived to have the class description, instructions, etc. and the instructor speaking Farsi - with no other instructions provided;” or “We did an exercise in which we needed play a game while communicating with each other without talking, and each small group in the class had different instructions on how to play the game.” There is considerable evidence that using a variety of teaching strategies (Mallot, 2010; Pieterse, 2009; Sammons & Speight, 2008), particularly experiential learning or process-focused activities (Arthur & Achenbach, 2002; Ponterotto, 2011), are most effective in facilitating multicultural and social justice competency development.

Finally, participants identified engagement in research as another significant learning process. In some cases, they focused on their engagement with course readings or integration of the professional literature: “I can remember a couple of particular readings that kind of resonated with me and stuck with me over the years.” In other cases, participants had an opportunity to focus on multicultural or social justice issues in their own thesis work or as a research assistant on a faculty research project: “Like I think I learned more from doing my thesis” or “I learned more about it was not so much in the counselling program, but in the research I was doing. So as a research assistant, I was much more exposed to social justice issues.” Other authors advocate for increased support for social justice research (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011; Singh et al., 2010), which would subsequently open the doors for more such learning opportunities for graduate counselling students.

3.5 Cultural Diversity of and Competency Modeling by Instructors

There is considerable evidence in the literature of the importance of congruence between the principles being taught within graduate programs and the context in which that learning occurs, including the role of course instructors (Durham & Glosoff, 2010; Singh et al., 2010). Some of the assertions noted in the counselling literature are reflected in the comments of counsellors and practicum supervisors in this study. Effective instructors model multicultural counselling and social justice principles in their interactions with students (Durham & Glosoff, 2010; Kiselica, 2004; Singh et al., 2010): “I think having professors who demonstrate those kinds of competencies and those kinds of attitudes, it really helps. I think, I mean I don’t remember those kinds of topics being explicitly ignored or shut down in other classes but certainly those discussions flourished in classes where the professors showed more awareness around the topic. So I think there is something about that, it has to do with who is being chosen to teach courses and what kind of competencies they have and when they’re hired and chosen to train our future counsellors” or “Instructor modeling cultural safety in the classroom.” Emotional and practical support to students also facilitates their learning and competency development (Goodman et al., 2004): “I was very lucky to have other teachers who were supportive and encouraging.”

A number of participants also echoed the call in the literature for diversity of faculty in counselling programs (Fouad & Arredondo, 2007; Winterowd et al., 2009), noting the significance of interacting with instructors from different backgrounds: “It was the fact that the professor leading
one of the classes had been born and raised in North Africa, and she shared a lot about her personal experiences with prejudice, etc., within Canadian society.” “…was taught by an elder, a Blackfoot Elder and he included in that—like we went to his home for a sweat and on top of like just the course material” or “His stories of marginalization and discrimination (both from people being intentionally judgmental and from oblivious people and institutions whose unconscious assumptions made life more difficult for him).” These instructors may have been particularly important to participants in this study given the dearth of specific focus on multicultural counselling and social justice curriculum in many of their programs: “The learning experience was based far more on the professor's personal stories than it did on any particular learning method.”

Learning occurs in context, and instructors are important elements of the academic context in which multicultural and social justice competency develops. For some, instructors posed a barrier to learning, particularly when students evidenced social injustices played or tolerated within the learning environment: “For me it was a hindrance because when the instructors, program managers, the ones who were involved, I mean inherently they have the power in that situation and when they don’t identify or seek out when social justice issues are being downplayed or misrepresented, in some ways they condone and even if they’re not trying to. And because they have more power in that situation that could certainly be considered a hindrance.”

3.6 Summary of Key Results
Several themes emerged from the detailed analysis of these critical incidents. The strongest theme was the lack of graduate multicultural education and, even more absent, a focus on social justice. As one participant noted: “…what I know I have picked up through reading and studying on my own and not anything through any formal studies at universities in preparation for that.” This gap in learning was itself a critical incident, particularly as participants encountered the demands of culturally diverse work environments. For many, their competency evolved after the completion of their education through self-study and direct contact with diverse populations and, in some cases, through observations of cultural oppression in their work contexts. Those who had graduate multicultural counselling coursework highlighted critical readings, experiential learning activities, exposure to cultural diversity (sometimes through instructors and peers), open discussions, and opportunities to engage in direct service or applied practice. A statement by one participant reflected the conclusion that combining theory and practice optimizes learning: “I think that we need to engage fully in experiences which help us understand others at a deeper level, and this does not occur through reading some book on cultural differences.”

4. Reflections and Future Directions
One of the main observations from this study is that counsellors and practicum supervisors, particularly those two completed their graduate degrees a number of decades ago, had little or no exposure to multicultural counseling and social justice principles within their counsellor education program. None-the-less, many of the participants in this study provided critical incidents that demonstrated their own initiative in developing competency through listening to the experiences of diverse clientele, post-degree self-directed learning or consultation, and/or recognition of the limitations of their professional education models, followed by attempts to modify their practices to work more effectively with a wide range of client issues, cultures, and contexts. The participants in this study were able to articulate an understanding of multicultural counselling and social justice and identified their own awareness of and purposeful response to the need for mastery of
competencies in these areas. However, it is important to recognize that those individuals who chose to respond to a study on this topic likely represented a subset of the overall population of counselors and practicum supervisors who had an interest in or commitment to these constructs. In addition, only a subset of the overall respondents to the survey provided CIs to describe their learning in this area, which may mean that others were less able to assess or articulate their own competency development and may have taken less initiative to fill in potential competency gaps on their own. Singh et al. (2010) noted that one of the outcomes of gaps in counsellor training programs is a resultant ambivalence towards social justice advocacy among practitioners.

In the last several decades, there has been a growing expectation that all counsellor education programs address issues of cultural diversity and prepare students to work effectively with clients who bring different worldviews, values, and needs to the counselling process (Constantine et al., 2007; Zalaquett et al., 2008). More recently, there has been increased emphasis on the importance of understanding the impact of social, economic, and political factors on various non-dominant populations and, therefore, the need for competency to engage in systems change (Palmer, 2008; Ratts, 2009). These are important advancements within the field; however, they do not address the existing competency level of counsellors who were trained prior to these shifts in curriculum focus. An earlier study by two of the authors (Arthur et al., 2013; McMahon, Arthur, & Collins, 2008) identified a gap between the emergent competency expectations in the field and the self-perceived level of competency for career counsellors. The career counsellors surveyed, in both Canada and Australia, saw themselves as lacking competencies for multicultural and social justice counseling, particularly in terms of applied practice skills in the area of social justice interventions designed to effect systems change. Similar observations have been made of counsellors generally by other researchers (Alberta & Wood, 2009; Pieterse et al., 2009; Singh et al., 2010). We are left with the question then of how to change the existing competency level of practitioners already in practice, who may not be directly impacted by the evolution of counsellor education programming in these areas.

What is also significant is that these participants are part of the population of mentors, supervisors, and managers of counselling services who will have a considerable impact on current students engaged in counseling practica or new graduates starting out in practice. The data from students, reported elsewhere (Collins, Arthur, & Brown, 2013), confirmed the importance of role modeling and mentoring from more senior counsellors both within the context of the graduate programs and as they entered into the workforce. Other researchers have noted the importance of ensuring that practicum training staff or supervisors model multicultural counselling principles (Durham & Glosoff, 2010; Singh et al., 2010) and demonstrate competence to promote a social justice agenda (Burnes & Manese, 2008; Grus, 2009; Pack-Brown, Thomas, & Seymour, 2008). Clearly, the competency of counsellors and practicum supervisors in the field is intimately interconnected with the competency of counseling students. Others have noted the importance of ongoing multicultural counselling and social justice training within professional associations and counselling organizations (Park-Taylor et al., 2009). Parra-Cardone and colleagues (2005) pointed out that, even for practitioners with prior exposure to these constructs, commitment to the core principles wanes over time without support from existing professional contexts.

One of the other central implications of this study is the necessity of integrating theory and practice by providing opportunities to learn from and apply multicultural counselling and social justice principles to work with diverse client populations in real life settings (Lewis, 2010; Murray et al.,
For the counselors and practitioners in this study, the primary source of their learning was their interactions with clients from different cultural groups. Several of them argued that this was the most effective means of competency development. There is clear support in the counselling literature for an increased applied practice experience for graduate students, particularly immersion experiences that enable them to fully in teams with diverse client populations (Malott, 2010; Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). The importance of integrating applied practice experiences into training has also led to a call for improving the relationship between counselling programs and practicum settings, fostering an emphasis on multicultural counselling and social justice within counseling practica, and deepening connections to the community in support of social justice initiatives (Hage & Kenny, 2009; Hays, Arredondo, Gladding & Toporek; 2010; Murray et al., 2010; Pope & Arthur, 2009). There may, therefore, also be a direct relationship between improving current counselor education for multicultural counselling and social justice and enhancing the competency level of practitioners already in practice. As counsellor education programs reach out to the practitioner base within their communities, seek out opportunities to train and support practicum supervisors, and offer services to the community, there will be a more widespread discussion of the importance of these issues to competent practice and opportunities for continued competency development.

The perspectives of counsellors and practicum supervisors in the current study provide a window into their competency development for multicultural counselling and social justice, in particular the degree to which they have depended on their own initiative and commitment to continued competency to enhance their awareness and skills. The strength of the study lies in its focus on the means through which counsellors and practicum supervisors developed competencies, rather than a focus simply on the nature of those competencies. The study is limited, however, by the sample size, the self-selection of counselors interested in this topic, and the direct association of practicum supervisors with the researchers’ graduate programs. A foundations is provided for future research into the processes through which counsellor education programs and professions as a whole might enhance competency for multicultural counselling and social justice action for practitioners who had little or no exposure to these principles during their graduate education.

References


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The Impact of Electronic Medical Records on Healthcare Quality and Patient Safety: Weight of Evidence or Wait for Evidence?

Abstract:
In the U.S. the use of EMRs in both inpatient and ambulatory care settings is a relatively recent development. Since the passage of the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009, the federal government has aggressively promoted the use of EMRs by introducing powerful economic incentives and punitive actions linked with measurable implementation goals and timelines to attain “Meaningful Use”. Aside from anticipated long term impact on overall cost of healthcare, the nationwide push for the use of EMRs stems from projected improvements in quality and patient safety. The advocates of nationwide implementation of EMRs argue that the use of EMRs in all settings of care allows for coordinated care, avoidance of medical errors, timely alerts to ward off serious consequences of prescription drugs, and instantaneous access to patient records regardless of the location of care. So far, the evidence regarding the impact of EMRs in improving quality, achieving operational efficiencies, and enhancing patient safety, though incomplete, is promising. The greatest promise and bulk of the evidence in improved quality has shown to be in the area of reduced medication errors through e-prescribing and adherence to preventive care guidelines. Though many patients and providers remain unimpressed or even skeptical, the question for policy makers and providers in the U.S. is no longer whether the implementation of EMRs will overtime result in significant gains in quality and patient safety to offset the upstream and ongoing costs of technology. The pressing question are how to overcome the hurdles and long will it take for local, regional or even nation-wide interoperable systems to be in place for all providers to effectively and efficiently share patient records and communicate with their patients electronically.

Keywords: Electronic Medical Records (EMR), Healthcare Quality, Patient Safety, Evidence of Impact.

1 Introduction
Through a careful examination of published literature, the purpose of this paper is to explore the depth and breadth of empirical evidence from the United States to assess the impact of Electronic Medical Records (EMRs) on overall patient safety and quality of care in both ambulatory and inpatient settings.

At the outset it is important to point out that the nomenclature in reference to the use of health information technologies remains varied and lacks standardization. A variety of terms such as Electronic Health Records (EHRs), Electronic Patient Records (EPRs), Electronic Care Records (ECRs) and Computer-based Patient Records (CPRs) are often used interchangeably. There is no consensus on which functionalities specifically define the parameters of one or the other term (Jha et al. 2009). Some authors, however, have attempted to make a distinction between these terms.
based on the spectrum of functionalities encompassed by the technology and its use in specific settings (Protti 2007). With the intent to establish such parameters, the Institute of Medicine (2003) has developed a list of functionalities necessary for electronic health records in inpatients settings. For the purpose of this article, however, we will circumvent these discussions and broadly use the term Electronic Medical Records (EMR) regardless of the setting of its use and the scope of its functionality.

The frequency and nature of harm to patients resulting from suboptimal care in hospital and ambulatory care settings is well documented (Institute of Medicine 1999). Most commonly reported risks to patient safety include medication errors such as wrong medication, drug interactions or adverse drug reactions, and inappropriate dosage (Institute of Medicine 2007). Other quality of care issues involve poor communication and coordination among providers often resulting in delayed care, duplication of tests, and mistakes. Some researchers use the term “patient safety” interchangeably with medication errors and adverse drug events (ADEs) (Kannry 2011). Given the fact that risk of harm to patients during an encounter with the healthcare system emanates from a variety of sources, we would not follow the same approach in this article and will use the term in a broader context including problems such as hospital acquired infections and hospital readmissions resulting from avoidable complications. EMRs or e-prescribing systems whether or not integrated with comprehensive health information technologies are only one source of potential harm to patients.

The data reported by entities such as the Institute of Medicine (1999) in the last two decades on the risk and frequency of harm to patient in the U.S. revealed the magnitude of the problem to be shockingly high. Error rates in paper-based pediatric prescribing have been reported to be in the range of 5% to 27% with most errors related to dosing and antibiotic agents (Johnson 2013, Miller et al. 2007). The Institute of Medicine has estimated that each year 1.5 million preventable adverse drug events take place in the U.S. (Institute of Medicine 2007). Previously, the Institute had also reported adverse drug event to be the leading cause of iatrogenic harm to patients (Institute of Medicine 1999). Next to dosing errors, illegible prescriptions seem to be the second most common cause of prescription errors among children and are estimated to be responsible for at least 20% of all medical errors (Zandieh et al. 2008). In a recent study of six outpatient offices, 21% of pediatric prescriptions were found to have harmful medication errors (Miller et al 2007). The most common cause of errors was determined to be illegibility of handwritten prescriptions (Kausal et al. 2010a).

As a result of the spotlight put on patient safety issues by the Institute of Medicine (1999, 2003, 2007) and other organizations in the U.S., a great deal of effort has been made in recent years both in the public and private sector to address the problem. Regardless of the lingering concerns regarding privacy, data security, upfront costs, and return on investment, there is a broad consensus among stakeholders on the potential benefits of EMRs including greater efficiency and effectiveness of care (Shekelle 2006, Jha et al. 2009, Buntin et al. 2011). Beginning with the use of barcode technology and the implementation of the EMR system called Veterans Health Information Systems and Technology Architecture (VistA) by the Department of Veterans Affairs (VA) that won the Computerworld Smithsonian Award for best use of Information Technology in Medicine in 1995 much has been done in the U.S. to improve the quality of care through widespread use of health information technology. Since the passage of the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA) of 2009, the development of a country-wide interoperable health information system has become a national priority in the U.S. (Jha et al. 2009).
The loss of paper-based medical records for thousands of patients resulting from hurricane Katrina in 2005 also played an important role in emphasizing the value of EMRs to healthcare providers, hospital administrators, and policy makers alike. In consonance with the growing impetus to improve the quality of care throughout the country, public agencies such as the Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services (CMS) and the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (AHRQ) have launched initiatives such as Hospital Consumer Assessment of Healthcare Providers and Systems (HCAHPS), Physician Quality Reporting System (PQRS), and Hospital Compare to enhance public reporting of quality of care data by providers and healthcare facilities. In consideration of the potential role of EMRs as a vehicle to address some of the quality of care issues, CMS, through the Office of the National Coordinator (ONC), has also made a concerted effort to promote the nationwide use of EMRs by providing $27 billion ($44,000 thousand from Medicare and $63,750 from Medicaid per eligible professional) in the way of financial incentives to providers and healthcare facilities to achieve “Meaningful Use” use of EMRs (Buntin et al. 2011, Marcotte et al. 2012, CMS 2013).

The efforts to promote the development of regional health information organizations (HIOs) and Health Information Exchanges (HIEs) with interoperable systems have often met with resistance from the provider community. On the other hand, these efforts have also raised expectations from the healthcare system in terms of rapid improvements in the quality of care. In tandem with the efforts to promote the implementation of EMRs, the theoretical and small scale empirical body of literature related to the use of computerized health information technologies is rapidly growing (Shekelle 2006). Unfortunately, despite the growing body of literature on the purported benefits of EMRs, there remains a paucity of large scale empirical studies that have actually measured the benefits of implementing EMRs in various settings. Consequently, it is not clear to providers, patients, and administrators what improvements in healthcare quality or patient safety have been achieved and what remains to be accomplished. To get a better picture of the situation, it is necessary to look at the evidence through a careful examination of available data and published reports. To that end, we sought to find evidence of the impact of EMRs on quality and patient safety generated through empirical studies.

2 Purported Benefits of EMRs

Comprehensive use of computerized health information technology with a broad spectrum of functionalities is widely believed to have the potential to improve the quality of care. Above and beyond the availability of computers in every healthcare setting, the ultimate goal of health information technology is to have effective and timely sharing of patient records among providers across organizational and geographic boundaries (Yasnoff et al. 2013). Timely sharing of EMRs in both ambulatory and inpatient care is expected to result in better coordination of care among providers, faster reporting of lab results, economies of scale, and better health outcomes (Protti 2007). Improvement in the quality of care is also expected to result through instantaneous access to knowledge, and alerts generated in the physician order entry process. Anticipated benefits of EMRs also include enhanced patient and provider compliance to preventive protocols through computerized reminder systems (Balas et al. 2000). In conjunction with internet based mass communication, EMRs can contribute to public safety and swift response to events of bioterrorism with rapid organization and orchestration of mass inoculation campaigns as well as detection and treatment of exposure to biochemical agents (Tang 2002).
Reportedly, the time for test results becoming available to the ordering physician has been dramatically reduced with results being sent online from the lab to the physician’s electronic account. Hospital discharge reports now take only 2-3 days rather than weeks to be available to the primary care physician (Protti 2007). However, having EMRs does not automatically translate into more comprehensive record keeping and documentation. Records in primary care practices have been found to be complete more frequently on immunizations (96.2%) and medications (91.6%) than on compliance with screening guidelines (61.6%) and smoking history (37.8%) (Soto et al. 2002). In a survey conducted by the Commonwealth Fund, a majority of physicians indicated that computers make it easy to generate lists of patients by diagnosis or of patients who are due for tests (Schoen et al 2006).

The most common clinical use of computerized health information technology in the U.S. and other countries such as Australia (McInnes 2006) and U.K. (Schade et al. 2006) is in medication prescription. It has been reported that e-prescribing saves considerable time for both providers and pharmacies – particularly for repeat prescriptions or refills. Allegedly, e-prescribing has virtually eliminated issues related to illegible prescriptions and the need for pharmacy personnel to call the prescribing physician for clarifications (Protti 2007). Other benefits related to e-prescribing include decision support tools and access to lists of generic drugs (Protti).

3 Frequency of EMR Use in Various Settings

Data from ten developed countries indicate that a vast majority of primary care physicians use EMRs in their practices. A number of factors including financial incentives and peer effect seem to have resulted in the widespread use of EMR in these countries (Protti 2007). Both U.S. and Canada, on the other hand, have lagged behind other developed countries in the implementation and use of electronic medical records across practice settings (Murphy 2012). Financial incentives to purchase an EMR system and payment for its use are now playing an important role in the rapidly growing use of these technologies in the U.S. (Protti 2007, DesRoches et al. 2010, Jha et al. 2009, Blumenthal & Tavenner 2010, Dolan 2012).

An examination of a number of surveys conducted between 1995 and 2005 in the U.S. indicated that 23.9% of physicians in ambulatory care settings use EMRs (Jha et al. 2006). More recently, in a survey of 2,758 physicians in the U.S., DesRoches et al. (2008) reported that only 4% of respondents reported having a fully functional EMR and 13% reported having a basic system. Based on 32 required functionalities of EHRs, Jha et al (2009) reported that only 1.5% of U.S. hospitals had a comprehensive EMR system in 2009. Additional 7.6% had a basic system in at least one clinical unit and computerized provider entry for medication had been implemented in only 17% of hospitals. A National Ambulatory Medical Care (NAMC) survey conducted by the National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS) in 2010 showed that 50.7% of physicians reported using all or partial EMR systems in their practices; 24.9% reported having a system that met the criteria of a “basic system” and 10.1% reported having a system that met the criteria of a “fully functional system” (Hsio et al. 2010).

It has been suggested that dramatically different estimates of the implementation of EMRs in the U.S. reflect different operative definitions of EMRs used by researchers (Jha et al. 2009). Factors that are known to significantly influence the adoption of EMRs in ambulatory care settings include the size of the group practice (Schoen et al. 2006, Hing et al. 2007). For example, it has been reported that physicians who practiced in groups of more than 50 were three times more likely to
have a basic system and four times more likely to have a fully functional EMR system as compared to those in group practices of 3 or fewer physicians. It can be surmised that these differences are due to the economies of scale and distributed financial risk among providers in large group practices. Evidently, physicians who have fully functional EMRs are more satisfied and have fewer concerns about EMRs than those who have only a basic system (DesRoches et al. 2008). In a qualitative study of pre- and post-installation physician attitudes regarding EMRs and the use of computers in examination rooms in a family medicine training practice, Doyle et al. (2012) found that almost all of the pre-installation concerns, fears, and resistance had nearly vanished 8 months after the full implementation of the EMR system.

4 Empirical Evidence

Over the last two decades, numerous studies have been conducted to examine the impact of EMR use in various healthcare settings. With the intent to provide a brief overview of literature, this section provides only a snapshot of the evidence furnished by empirical studies on the impact of EMR use in clinical care. The examples provided in this section show that the weight of the cumulative evidence, though by no means exhaustive, strongly suggests a positive overall impact on quality of care.

Most of the literature on this subject reveals small or medium sized empirical studies that have largely focused on ambulatory care and often on a few specific diseases only. The reason for the paucity of large scale interventional studies seems to be that reliable secondary data on the implementation and impact of EMRs are not available (Jha et al. 2006; Protti 2007). Some exceptions in this regard include a nationwide study based on 2004 data from 2,969 hospitals by Kazley and Ozcan (2008). Of the 2,969 hospitals included in the study, 348 used EMRs in 2004. Using 10 process indicators for myocardial infarction, congestive heart failure and pneumonia, the researchers employed regression models to test the hypothesis that EMR use is associated with better quality of care. However, the study results showed only limited evidence of a relationship between quality and hospital use of EMR. A more recent example of a larger study is provided by Lee et al. (2013) in a study of the impact of EMRs on 30-day rehospitalization, 30-day mortality, 30-day inpatient mortality, and length of stay in 708 acute-care hospitals. In this study, the researchers found a modest but statistically significant association between EMR adoption and patient outcomes.

In a chart-review based study of 14,051 diabetes patients in 34 primary care practices in a ambulatory care network associated with Baylor Health Care System, Herrin et al. (2012) found that patients exposed to EMRs were much more likely to receive optimal care than their non-EMR-exposed counterparts. Evidence of increased completion of recommended preventive services including diabetes, cholesterol screening and mammograms in primary care offices was also reported by Gill et al. (2001). Likewise, in a pre- and post-EMR-implementation study at an urban pediatric primary care center, Adams et al. (2003) reported significantly improved quality of care on a number of routine health maintenance and risk prevention topics including diet, sleep, smoking in home, and lead exposure. Participating providers in the study also reported 9.3 minutes longer duration per visit after the implementation of the EMR system.

In a 5-year-long comparative study of two clinics only one of which had EMRs, O’Connor et al. (2005) found increased testing for HbA1c in diabetic patients at the clinic that had EMRs but no difference in HbA1c level improvements achieved in both clinics. In contrast, in a study of
processes and outcomes of care for diabetic patients at 50 family medicine practices, 37 practices that did not have EMRs were found to be more likely to adhere to processes of care, meet treatment standards, and have better outcomes than the 13 practices that had EMRs (Crosson et al. 2007).

In a pre- and post-EMR-adoption study of 6 providers who were also compared with 15 paper-based providers, prescription error rates were found to drop from 26% to 16% one year after adoption of e-prescribing while error rates among the paper-based providers remained unchanged at 37%. Illegibility errors were high before e-prescribing but were completely eliminated after the adoption of e-prescribing (Abramson et al. 2011). Almost identical results were previously reported by the same team of researchers in a similar study (Kaushal et al. 2010b). On the other hand, a recent study by Dainty et al. (2012) showed no reduction in medication errors and a higher callback rate from community pharmacies for clarifications with the use of a commercially available e-prescribing system which was not integrated with a comprehensive EMR system.

Two large scale studies (Classen et al. 1997, Evans et al. 1993) involved the use of health information technology to screen more than 90,000 and 60,836 inpatients hospital admissions respectively to assess the frequency of adverse drug reactions and their impact on costs and length of stay. However, in both studies EMRs were not actually employed to reduce the occurrence of adverse drug reactions and no estimation was made as to how successful EMRs might have been in reducing the incidence of adverse drug reactions.

The quality of radiologic order entry in “reasonable” and “excellent” categories increased from 6.4% to 21.6% three months after the implementation of computerized physician order entry (CPOE) system in an inpatient radiology practice. However, 78% of orders were still deemed to have incomplete and “non-applicable” information due to the free text fields in the computerized system as well as implementational issues with the CPOE (Schneider et al. 2011).

In a review of 257 published studies conducted to examine the effects of health information technology on cost, efficiency, and quality of care, Chaudhry et al. (2006) discovered that there was evidence of greater adherence to clinical guidelines and that improvements in the quality of care were primarily in preventive care including prevention of deep vein thrombosis, pulmonary embolism and pressure ulcers. They also found evidence of decreased medication errors and decreased utilization of care subsequent to the implementation of EMRs. Of the 257 reviewed studies, 125 had assessed the effects of EMRs in outpatient settings and 25% of the reviewed studies had been conducted at only four institutions with some of the studies having been conducted more than twenty years ago.

5 Conclusions

Despite the gaps in our understanding of the impact of EMRs on various aspects of healthcare delivery, there is mounting evidence of the positive impact on quality of care. The evidence regarding impact on efficiency is somewhat mixed. The area where there is real paucity of evidence is the impact on cost of care. Aside from some theoretical assessments in the form of cost-benefit analysis (Wang et al. 2003), there are almost no empirical studies in this regard.

With the notable exception of a few studies such as those conducted by Herrin et al. (2012), Amarasingham et al. (2009), and Kazley and Ozcan (2008), we found almost no studies reporting the impact of EMR use in hospitals or multihospital systems. There are quite a few empirical studies on the use of EMRs in ambulatory settings. Most of these studies either looked at the effects of e-prescribing or errors discovered in chart reviews before and after the implementation of
EMRs at just one or a few primary care practices. Other studies looked at preventive services or compared management of a specific disease such as diabetes in one or more primary care practices (Weber et al. 2007, Kho et al. 2012, Herrin et al. 2012). Large scale trial data or comparative studies in organizational settings such as tertiary care hospitals seem to be almost non-existent. Further, much of the previous research has relied on case studies small sample size and qualitative rather than quantitative information. Consequently, any evidence gathered from these studies is limited in scope and lacks generalizability.

Most of the gains in efficiency of care and patient safety seem to result from e-prescribing whether stand-alone or integrated. However, e-prescribing systems pose challenges of their own including burdensome alerts which are neither targeted nor sufficiently consequential (Weingart et al. 2009, Kannry 2011). E-prescribing has also been identified as an independent and significant source of errors because of internal inconsistencies and missing information (Singh et al. 2009, Nanji et al. 2011).

In a 2006 editorial in the Annals of Medicine, Halamka has argued that existing evidence, though incomplete and from a limited number of organizational settings, convincingly shows positive effects of the use of EMRs on healthcare quality and efficiency regardless of whether the computer applications and software programs are from commercial sources or developed in-house. Aside from the benefit of allowing population level data queries for clinical research or to quickly identify threats through biosurveillance, there are undeniable advantages associated with the use of EMRs in the context of patient-level delivery of care and management.

The time for a debate over paper versus EMRs has long passed and the inevitability of EMR implementation in all healthcare settings in due course should be clear to all providers, patients, administrators, and policy makers. The use of health information technology in the form of e-prescribing is already a daily reality for most providers. Also, in-house use of commercially available or self-developed EMR systems is commonplace in most urban medical centers, tertiary care hospitals, and multi-hospital local or regional systems. In recent years, the public sector involvement through the Office of the National Coordinator for Health Information Technology (ONC) and the use of the governmental power of the purse has given considerable impetus to a nationwide implementation of EMRs. Therefore, the question is no longer whether EMRs have the potential to improve healthcare quality, efficiency, and patient safety. The relevant questions are how to surmount operational difficulties and how long will it take before all healthcare providers are connected through interoperable systems to effectively and securely share patient records with one-another.

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The Effect of Demographic and Psycho-graphical Traits on Consumers’ Leisure Travel Behavior: A Field Study from Eskisehir, Turkey

Abstract:
This study intends to find out the relationship between leisure behavior and consumers’ demographic and psychographic traits where travel is asserted as the major expression of leisure behavior. A survey is applied to 815 respondents selected via stratified sampling from Eskisehir, a city of Turkey with 700,000 inhabitants. The respondents are required to answer 50 questions of which five are placed on a nominal scale and interrogate the manner, group size, travel frequency, travel vehicle and the accommodation type of travelers; and another five questions are related to consumer demographics as age, gender, occupation, educational level and income level. The rest 40 are statements which are designed to reflect the leisure travel behavior of these people. The survey is carried on such people who travel in homeland or travel abroad at least once every year for touristic purposes (i.e. travel for sports events, education, business, academic and religious purposes, health tourism etc. are all excluded). Spending vacation at one’s summer home is also excluded from this survey. Each travel should take at least three days or nights. The study consists of five parts. The first part is an introduction where the scope and the purpose of the study are concisely stated. The second part relates to the theoretical background of the subject matter and the prior researches carried out so far. The third part deals with research methodology, basic premises and hypotheses attached to these premises. Research model and analyses take place in this section. Theoretical framework is built and a variable name is assigned to each of the question asked or proposition forwarded to the respondents of this survey. Ten research hypotheses are formulated in this section. The fourth part mainly deals with the results of the hypothesis tests and a factor analysis is applied to the data on hand. Factor analysis reveals satisfactory scores as “Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin” measure of sampling adequacy= 0.870 and Cronbach’s Alpha of scale reliability= 0.747. Here exploratory factor analysis reduces 40 variables to nine basic components as “innovativeness; hedonic behavior; loyalty to travel agency; allocentric behavior; psychocentric behavior; online shopping behavior; cautiousness; maladjustment and reluctance”. In addition non-parametric biriviate analysis in terms of Chi-Square is applied to test the hypotheses formulated in this respect. The fifth part is the conclusion where findings of this survey is listed.

1. Introduction
The concept of “tourism” has a variety of meanings to those who either take part or stay outside of tourism industry. From marketing point of view leisure tourism is not different from other sectors which either take part in manufacturing or services sector. Therefore the principle purpose of this paper is to find out the main determinants of leisure tourism from consumers point of view and try to find out their attitudes in terms of spending their leisure time. As defined by Wikipedia, “Leisure, or free time, is time spent away from business, work, and domestic chores. It also excludes time spent on necessary activities such as eating, sleeping and, where it is compulsory,
The distinction between leisure and unavoidable activities is not a rigidly defined one, e.g. people sometimes do work-oriented tasks for pleasure as well as for long-term utility. A distinction may also be drawn between free time and leisure. For example, Situationist International maintains that free time is illusory and rarely free; economic and social forces appropriate free time from the individual and sell it back to them as the commodity known as "leisure". Certainly most people's leisure activities are not a completely free choice, and may be constrained by social pressures, e.g. people may be coerced into spending time gardening by the need to keep up with the standard of neighbouring gardens". Today leisure is regarded as the indispensable part of human life where daily routines and the burden of the occupational stress motivates people to turn their free times into a kind of escapade. In this respect, leisure is considered as an integral part of worklife where people endeavor to increase the quality of their lives. Moreover, for many people today, worklife is mingled with the homelife where individuals continue their work at their homes and no free time is really left for them.

2. Literature Review and Prior Research

Today, information and communication technologies (ICT) play an important role in leisure travel. In this respect the researchers divide trip activity types and purposes into three categories: subsistence or mandatory (work and work-related), maintenance (shopping, medical, banking, other personal business), and discretionary or leisure (Moktarian et.al., p. 263). The concept of leisure includes social, recreational and entertainment activities. Place branding is another concept considered as a strategic marketing activity and strongly attached to leisure tourism in terms of luring new residents, employees and tourists to a location. Place products are much complex in nature than consumer products which offers some complications to destination marketers. For example a city might have an overall reputation of being an industrial city. On the other hand some individual traits of this city such as sports facilities, historical places, museums, natural sights etc. may serve a contributory factors where each one of these can have its own reputation (Hankinson, p. 25). From psychological factors’ point of view the following variables take part as determinants of leisure and consequences for tourism (Umashankar Venkatesh, p. 94):

**Personality**: is the particular combination of emotional, attitudinal, and behavioral response patterns of an individual. Personality and leisure travel behavior is inserted on a continuous scale by Stanley Plog, where personality types range from allocentrism to psychocentrism (Litvin, Stephen W, pp. 245-253). Allocentric means being centred in people or places other than oneself, and is used in navigation models. Psychocentric on the other side is a trait preferring the ‘familiar’. In Plog’s model travelers’ personality types follow a continuous normal distribution with five segments. At one extreme of this curve are psychocentric travelers who are described by Plog as “self-inhibited, nervous, and non-adventuresome”. At the other extreme, allocentric travelers take place wh are “outgoing and self-confident”. The middle segments of this normal curve are called near- psychocentric, mid-centric and near-allocentric travelers who form the majority of total travelers. The mid-centric travelers, who stand in the middle of this distribution do not take part in the direction of the psychocentric travelers who adopt the ‘tried and true’ behavior and do not also follow the ‘variety-seeking’ behavior of the allocentrics. Traditional tenency of today's marketers who pay less attention to older consumers and direct their directions to younger generation is also questioned by some researchers and some striking conclusions are obtained in terms of consumer innovativeness. There is quite a lot of evidence that older consumers are as competent as youngsters in sending e-mails, transferring funds electronically, do internet shopping etc. The following table
compares the consumer innovativeness at all levels of age (Szmigin, Isabelle; Carrigan, Marylyn, p 122):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age in Years</th>
<th>Innovativeness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. 51-55 [n=69]</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. 56-60 [n=65]</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 61-65 [n=53]</td>
<td>20.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. 66-70 [n=39]</td>
<td>20.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. 71-75 [n=2]</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. 76+ [n=3]</td>
<td>24.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A survey carried out by Sara Dolnicar revealed the fact that fear emerging from leisure travels is much accentuated in overseas travels than in domestic travels: The following graph depicts this situation clearly (Sara Dolnicar, p. 201):

Figure 1. Categories of Fear Emerging from open-ended questions

Perceived risk is also an indispensable part of leisure tourism. In this respect, a number of studies are conducted to find out the role of perceived risk in consumer travel behavior. A research conducted by Mitchell and Vassos identified a list of 43 risk factors and 15 risk reducers which differed between genders and cultures. In this research average risk ratings are listed as follows (Mitchell and Vassos, p.56):
Table 1. Average Probability, Seriousness and Overall Risk Ratings for the Five Most and Least Risky Statements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Probability</th>
<th>Seriousness</th>
<th>Risk Statement</th>
<th>Risk Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.51</td>
<td>7.95</td>
<td>Your hotel may not be as nice as it appears in the brochure pictures</td>
<td>40.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.45</td>
<td>7.91</td>
<td>You will be charged excessively for making phone calls at the hotel</td>
<td>37.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.44</td>
<td>7.52</td>
<td>The provided meals will be disappointing</td>
<td>36.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.23</td>
<td>7.52</td>
<td>You may get sick from food or water during your trip</td>
<td>35.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.94</td>
<td>7.46</td>
<td>The meals provided by the hotel may not be satisfactory</td>
<td>35.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>5.32</td>
<td>There may be political unrest or military trouble during your holiday</td>
<td>19.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>Your tour operator will go bankrupt</td>
<td>19.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>There may be a natural disaster (such as an earthquake) during your holiday</td>
<td>19.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>Your tour guide may quit the tour operator company during your holiday</td>
<td>18.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>Your tour representative guide will not participate in activities such as windsurfing or scuba diving</td>
<td>15.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From risk reducing strategies point of vie, the researchers suggest the following strategies (Mitchell and Vassos, p.57):

Table 2. Some Risk Reducing Strategies:

Reading Independent Travel Reviews
- Purchasing some kind of travel insurance
- Visiting the tour operator or travel agent personally
- Taking a similar holiday from a tour operator, you have dealt before
- Reading travel brochures
- Purchasing travel items such as electrical adapters and comfortable shoes
- Asking family and friends for advice
- Asking travel agency representatives for advice

Pleasure seeking is the main motive in leisure travel where pleasure motives are recreational in essence. Here vacationers identify themselves with their own culture, values and society and the following nine motives are suggested in this context (Umashankar Venkatesh, p. 96):

Pleasure seeking is the main motive in leisure travel where pleasure motives are recreational in essence. Here vacationers identify themselves with their own culture, values and society and the following nine motives are suggested in this context (Umashankar Venkatesh, p. 96):

- Escape from a perceived mundane environment.
- Exploration and evaluation of self
- Relaxation
- Prestige
- Regression
Travelers’ destination loyalty is another important factor in leisure travel behavior. Perceived value and relationship quality are the main factors for the travel agency to develop customer loyalty. Within the scope of CRM (customer relationship marketing) customer loyalty becomes an important issue for marketing managers of travel agencies which are specifically oriented towards offering more qualified and varied services to their customers. When this loyalty is accentuated in terms of a specific destination or location, travel agency has to develop a loyalty program to encourage customers to revisit the same destinations and develop a place loyalty. The following diagram is a summary of destination loyalty (Heng-Hsiang Huang and Chou-Kang, Chiu, p.158):

Figure 2. Tourist Destination Loyalty

3. Research Model and Hypotheses

This field research was conducted in September 2012 in Eskisehir, Turkey, a large city with 700,000 inhabitants. 940 consumers were selected on a random basis using the Stratified Sampling Method, of which 815 were found eligible to be included in the research project. Sixty senior students taking a “Marketing Research” course were selected as pollsters and given extra credits for collecting reliable information. The respondents were required to answer a total of 50 questions, of which 40 statements were of the five-point Likert scale type ranging from “1= strongly disagree” to “5= strongly agree.” The survey also included ratio and eight nominal scale type questions. All 50 answers (statements) are transformed into variables as in the following table:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VACPLACE</td>
<td>Where do you spend your vacations most?</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GROUPSIZE</td>
<td>What is the usual size of your travel group</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRVLFREQ</td>
<td>What is the usual annual frequency of your travels</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VEHICLE</td>
<td>What is your most favorite vehicle in your travels?</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACCOMODA</td>
<td>What is your usual accommodation in your travels?</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIPTOURP</td>
<td>I like to purchase expensive VIP tour packages since they render value for money.</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREFHOME</td>
<td>I still want to spend my vacation in my homeland even though I had facilities to travel abroad.</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADVENTUR</td>
<td>I look for adventure in my vacation.</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLANTRAVL</td>
<td>I spend a lot of time to plan my vacation travels.</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LUXHOTEL</td>
<td>I always choose to stay at 4 or 5 star hotels during my vacations.</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEWTOURP</td>
<td>A new tour package from a travel agency attracts highly my interest to buy it.</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMMPROB</td>
<td>Communication problems make me reluctant to spend my vacation abroad.</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ETRAVSIT</td>
<td>E-travel sites are the best sources for me to plan my vacation.</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOTHERTO</td>
<td>I like to meet people who speak my mother tongue during my vacation.</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMPTRVAG</td>
<td>I prefer to employ travel agencies for my vacation travels since they always meet my expectations</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEARAIRP</td>
<td>Traveling by airplane frightens me most of the time</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INNOVATI</td>
<td>I like to visit new places; meet new people and purchase original items which I cannot find in my homeland.</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEARTHIR</td>
<td>I may experience or witness hostility, violence, deprivation, trouble or discomfort if I visit a third-world country.</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAMILIAR</td>
<td>I like to visit places where I have been before, since my former experience avoids me getting lost, cheated and being regretful.</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAMETRAV</td>
<td>I prefer to employ the same travel agency for my travels.</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAMEHOTE</td>
<td>I adopted some hotel chains as my favorite and try to stay at those hotels during my domestic and international travels.</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>1.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INFRMNNO</td>
<td>I like to be informed about new holiday chances and latest tours before my friends and relatives.</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FREQTRAV</td>
<td>I am a frequent traveler and like to visit many places on earth.</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FUNTHRL</td>
<td>I like to spend my vacations in crowded places where I enjoy fun, thrill and extravagance which set me apart from my daily mundane life.</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>1.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CUTSHORT</td>
<td>I keep my vacation travels as short as possible, because long traveling is nothing but waste of time.</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLANOWNT</td>
<td>I like to plan my own travel rather than buying a tour</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REGINTRTR</td>
<td>I can easily call myself a regular international traveler.</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXOTICUN</td>
<td>I like to travel to exotic and unusual places, even though I could be confronted with several hazards as theft, disease, threat, natural disasters, scarcity etc.</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEVPDcou</td>
<td>I can enhance my vision and well-being and develop myself better if I spent my vacation in a developed country.</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SHOPPING</td>
<td>Shopping is an indispensable part of my travels.</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIGHPRIC</td>
<td>I always prefer high-priced hotels, fancy restaurants, comfortable transports and distinguished entertainment during my vacations.</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>1.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OPINLEAD</td>
<td>I like to share my travel experiences with my friends and give them tips about new places and people.</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GROUPPRE</td>
<td>I like group travel with my family, friends and other tourist groups rather than traveling alone.</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALONETRA</td>
<td>Traveling abroad offers me an alternative lifestyle.</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CANNOTTE</td>
<td>My work seldom lets me to tear myself off my daily routines even on vacation</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRANQUIL</td>
<td>Spending my vacation at isolated places (seaside villages, forest cabins, distant spas etc.) appeal to me more than crowded places, luxurious hotels and fancy trips.</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRICECON</td>
<td>I follow cheap offers, budget travels and promotion flights since they give me the same pleasure as expensive ones.</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ONLINEBO</td>
<td>I like to use e-travel sites and online booking sites since they offer more opportunities than other means.</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GUIDEDTO</td>
<td>I think that guided tours limit the freedom of people to explore what they are really curious about.</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOHARMON</td>
<td>I often dispute with people in a group-trip since generally they cannot be a match for me as far as tastes and expectations are concerned.</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEELINSU</td>
<td>I don't like to spend my vacation in such countries which demand visa since I feel insulted.</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INFORMAT</td>
<td>I obtain extensive information (guides, catalogues, web-sites etc.) about a place before I get started to my vacation.</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRODIGAL</td>
<td>I like to be a prodigal traveler on my vacations whereas I am a disciplined budget follower for the rest of the year.</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OBTAINKN</td>
<td>I have a wish for obtaining knowledge about other countries and cultures, including music, art, religion etc.</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BRANDEXP</td>
<td>I generally buy brand-name and an expensive gift on my travels since it gives me prestige in the eyes of my friends and relatives.</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GENDER</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCCUPATI</td>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EDUCATI</td>
<td>Education level</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INCOME</td>
<td>Monthly household income</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hypotheses

A number of hypotheses in two groups are formulated to test the relationship between the leisure travel behaviour of consumers with respect to their “Psychographics” and “Demographics”. As follows:

H₁ = Leisure travel behaviour of travellers are affected by their psycho-graphical traits

H₁a = Hedonic consumption behaviour affects positively traveller centrisim.

H₁b = Brand loyalty (loyalty to accommodation), place loyalty (loyalty to geographic area) and store loyalty (loyalty to travel agency) is inversely related to price sensitivity.

H₁c = Information seeking behaviour is most accentuated in self-planned travels.

H₁d = Opinion leaders for leisure travel arise mainly from regular and frequent travellers.

H₁e = Fear, maladjustment, trouble, discomfort, deprivation etc. prohibits travelers to visit different and unusual places.

H₂ = Leisure travel behaviour of travellers are affected by their demographic traits.

H₂a = Place to travel; size of the travel group; annual frequency of travels; vehicle used for travels; and accommodation type for travels differ significantly amongst consumer demographics.

H₂b = Consumer demographics differ significantly for allocentric and psychocentric travellers.

H₂c = Online booking has gained importance only for some consumer groups.

4. Analyses and Test Results

Hypotheses Tests Results

Several Bivariate analyses are conducted to find out the relationship between psycho graphical factors and traveler centrisim (allocentrism and psychocentrism). The significance level is set as $p<0.01$ for all results and almost all of them are sustained.

Hypothesis $H_{1a}$ is tested via Chi Square Analysis by comparing four hedonic traits (variables) with six centric variables which resulted in a 16x4 matrix with 64 cells in which average scores for allocentric and psychocentric travelers are compared with the hedonic consumption behavior of such consumers. In these two-cell comparisons only two out of 32 is not sustained. The rest 30 are accepted at $p<0.01$ significance level.

Table 4. Hedonic Behavior and Traveler Centrism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable 1 (Hedonic Traits)</th>
<th>Variable 2 (Centric Traits)</th>
<th>Average for Allocentric %</th>
<th>Test Result Allocentric %</th>
<th>Average for Psychocentric %</th>
<th>Test Result Psychocentric %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VIPTOURP</td>
<td>ADVENTUR</td>
<td>52.3</td>
<td>57.2</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>27.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIPTOURP</td>
<td>FUNTHRIL</td>
<td>56.1</td>
<td>65.7</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>25.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIPTOURP</td>
<td>INNOVATI</td>
<td>66.3</td>
<td>72.1</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIPTOURP</td>
<td>FAMILIAR*</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>48.6</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIPTOURP</td>
<td>EXOTICUN</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>42.8</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
VIPTOURP | TRANQUIL* | 41.3 | 25.7 | 36.6 | 60.0
HIGHPRIC | ADVENTUR | 52.3** | 47.9 | 31.6 | 38.4
HIGHPRIC | FUNTHRIL | 57.1 | 61.6 | 29.3 | 24.7
HIGHPRIC | INNOVATI | 66.3 | 72.6 | 19.8 | 10.9
HIGHPRIC | FAMILIAR* | 30.8 | 27.4 | 48.6 | 56.2
HIGHPRIC | EXOTICUN | 36.8 | 57.9 | 44.4 | 35.6
HIGHPRIC | TRANQUIL* | 41.3 | 24.7 | 36.6 | 67.2
BRANDEXP | ADVENTUR | 56.1 | 74.7 | 316 | 27.4
BRANDEXP | FUNTHRIL | 57.1 | 74.7 | 29.3 | 27.4
BRANDEXP | INNOVATI | 66.3 | 76.5 | 19.8 | 19.6
BRANDEXP | FAMILIAR* | 30.8** | 35.3 | 48.6 | 51.0
BRANDEXP | EXOTICUN | 36.8 | 49.0 | 44.4 | 37.2
BRANDEXP | TRANQUIL* | 41.3 | 33.3 | 36.6 | 58.8
LUXHOTEL | ADVENTUR | 52.3 | 55.3 | 31.6 | 28.6
LUXHOTEL | FUNTHRIL | 56.1 | 63.4 | 29.3 | 20.6
LUXHOTEL | INNOVATI | 66.3 | 80.3 | 19.8 | 9.0
LUXHOTEL | FAMILIAR* | 31.8 | 28.6 | 48.6 | 54.5
LUXHOTEL | EXOTICUN | 36.8 | 42.9 | 44.4 | 42.0
LUXHOTEL | TRANQUIL* | 41.3 | 27.7 | 36.6 | 58.9

* Inversely related with allocentrism and positively related with psychocentrism.
** Not sustained

Figure 3. Distribution of Allocentric Travel Behavior with Respect to Adventure Seeking

![Distribution of Allocentric Travel Behavior with Respect to Adventure Seeking](image)

1. Psychocentric
2. Near Psychocentric
3. Mid-centric
4. Near Allocentric
5. Allocentric
Figure 4  Distribution of Allocentric Travel Behavior with Respect to Innovative Behavior

I like to visit new places; meet new people and purchase original items which I cannot find in my homeland.

Mean = 3.69
Std. Dev. = 1.186
N = 815

1. Psychocentric
2. Near Psychocentric
3. Mid-centric
4. Near Allocentric
5. Allocentric

Figure 5  Distribution of Allocentric Travel Behavior with Respect to Fun and Thrill Seeking

I like to spend my vacations in crowded places where I enjoy fun, thrill and extravagance which set me apart from my daily mundane life.

Mean = 3.4
Std. Dev. = 1.258
N = 815

1. Psychocentric
2. Near Psychocentric
3. Mid-centric
4. Near Allocentric
5. Allocentric
Figure 6  Distribution of Allocentric Travel Behavior with Respect to Exotic and Hazardous Destinations

I like to travel to exotic and unusual places, even though I could be confronted with several hazards as theft, disease, threat, natural disasters, scarcity etc.

Mean = 2.89
Std. Dev. = 1.168
N = 815

4. Near Allocentric 5. Allocentric

Figure 7  Distribution of Psychocentric Travel Behavior with Respect to Tranquility

Spending my vacation at isolated places (seaside villages, forest cabins, distant spas etc.) appeal to me more than crowded places, luxurious hotels and fancy trips.

Mean = 3.05
Std. Dev. = 1.214
N = 815

4. Near Psychocentric 5. Psychocentric
Figure 8. Distribution of Psychocentric Travel Behavior with Respect to Familiarity.

1. Allocentric  
2. Near Allocentric  
3. Mid-centric  
4. Near Psychocentric  
5. Psychocentric

$H_{1b}$ is accepted for brand and destination loyalty and partly accepted for store loyalty. From price insensitivity point of view it is sustained but rejected from price sensitivity point of view.

Table 5. Brand, Store and Destination Loyalty vs. Price Sensitivity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable 1 Loyalty Types</th>
<th>Variable 2 Price Sensitivity</th>
<th>Average for Price Sensitivity %</th>
<th>Test Result Price Sensitivity %</th>
<th>Average for Price Insensitivity %</th>
<th>Test Result Price Insensitivity %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SAMETRAV</td>
<td>PRICECON</td>
<td>58.7</td>
<td>59.2**</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>33.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAMEHOTE</td>
<td>PRICECON</td>
<td>58.7</td>
<td>34.9</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>49.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAMILIAR</td>
<td>PRICECON</td>
<td>58.7</td>
<td>51.2</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>34.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$H_{1c}$ is also accepted and the significant relationship between information seeking behavior and planned behavior is revealed.

Table 6. Information Seeking Behavior and Self-planned travel.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable 1 Self-planned Travel</th>
<th>Variable 2 Information Seeking Behavior</th>
<th>Average for Information Sensitivity %</th>
<th>Test Result Information Sensitivity %</th>
<th>Average for Information Negligence %</th>
<th>Test Result Information Negligence %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PLANTRAVL</td>
<td>INFRMNNO</td>
<td>49.4</td>
<td>72.6</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td>14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLANTRAVL</td>
<td>INFORMAT</td>
<td>70.4</td>
<td>79.0</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLANTRAVL</td>
<td>OBTAINKN</td>
<td>55.2</td>
<td>58.0</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>29.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Opinion leadership is significantly related to regular and frequent travelers. \( H_{1a} \) is sustained.

**Table 7. Opinion Leadership and Travel Frequency and Regularity**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable 1</th>
<th>Variable 2</th>
<th>Average for Frequent &amp; Regular Travel %</th>
<th>Test Result Frequent &amp; Regular Travel</th>
<th>Average for Infrequent &amp; Irregular Travel %</th>
<th>Test Result Infrequent &amp; Irregular Travel %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Opinion Leadership</td>
<td>Frequent &amp; Regular Travel</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>60.7</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>19.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OPINLEAD</td>
<td>FREQTRAV</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opinion Leadership</td>
<td>Regular Travel</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>63.6</td>
<td>56.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OPINLEAD</td>
<td>REGINTTR</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

He is unanimously accepted at all levels of anxiety disorder types.

**Table 8. Compulsive Behavior and Destination Loyalty**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable 1</th>
<th>Variable 2</th>
<th>Average for Destination Loyalty %</th>
<th>Test Result Destination Loyalty %</th>
<th>Average for Destination Disloyalty %</th>
<th>Test Result Destination Disloyalty %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Destination Loyalty</td>
<td>Anxiety Disorder Type</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAMILIAR</td>
<td>COMMPROB</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>61.3</td>
<td>48.6</td>
<td>25.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAMILIAR</td>
<td>FEARAIRP</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>61.5</td>
<td>48.6</td>
<td>24.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAMILIAR</td>
<td>FEARTHIR</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>60.7</td>
<td>48.6</td>
<td>38.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( H_{2a} \) is accepted on all levels at \( \alpha < 0.0 \) significance level.

**Table 9. Travel Destinations and Consumer Demographics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable 1</th>
<th>Variable 2</th>
<th>Average for Homeland %</th>
<th>Test Result Highest Score Homeland %</th>
<th>Average for Abroad %</th>
<th>Test Result Highest Score Abroad %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vacation Destination</td>
<td>Consumer Demographics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VACPLACE</td>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>75.6</td>
<td>88.6 (18-25)</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>13.0 (62+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VACPLACE</td>
<td>GENDER</td>
<td>75.6</td>
<td>78.1 (female)</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>9.1 (male)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VACPLACE</td>
<td>OCCUPATI</td>
<td>75.6</td>
<td>96.8 (housewife)</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>22.3 (selfempl)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VACPLACE</td>
<td>EDUCATIO</td>
<td>75.6</td>
<td>86.6 (high)</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>11.7 (univers)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VACPLACE</td>
<td>INCOME (USD)</td>
<td>75.6</td>
<td>91.3 (0-700)</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>45.2 (5600+)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 10. Size of the Travel Group and Consumer Demographics (Highest Values)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable 1 (Travel Group Size)</th>
<th>Variable 2 (Consumer Demographics)</th>
<th>Only Myself %</th>
<th>I and Family %</th>
<th>My Friends %</th>
<th>A Tour Group %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GROUPSIZE AGE</td>
<td></td>
<td>12.0 (26-40)</td>
<td>75.2 (41-62)</td>
<td>57.4 (18-25)</td>
<td>15.2 (62+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GROUPSIZE GENDER</td>
<td></td>
<td>8.5 (male)</td>
<td>57.4 (female)</td>
<td>44.8 (male)</td>
<td>7.5 (female)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GROUPSIZE OCCUPATI</td>
<td></td>
<td>17.5 (selfempl)</td>
<td>74.2 (housewife)</td>
<td>58.9 (student)</td>
<td>11.5 (selfempl)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GROUPSIZE EDUCATIO</td>
<td></td>
<td>9.5 (university)</td>
<td>70.5 (element)</td>
<td>41.5 (university)</td>
<td>6.8 (element)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GROUPSIZE INCOME (USD)</td>
<td></td>
<td>20.5 (5600+)</td>
<td>52.1 (1401-2800)</td>
<td>45.7 (0-700)</td>
<td>9.3 (2801-5600)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*These values are all above average values.

Table 11. Annual Frequency of Travels and Consumer Demographics (Highest Values)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable 1 (Travel Group Size)</th>
<th>Variable 2 (Consumer Demographics)</th>
<th>Once %</th>
<th>A Couple of Times %</th>
<th>More Than Three Times %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TRVLFREQ AGE</td>
<td></td>
<td>45.7 (62+)</td>
<td>52.1 (18-25)</td>
<td>30.4 (62+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRVLFREQ GENDER</td>
<td></td>
<td>33.0 (female)</td>
<td>49.0 (male)</td>
<td>21.9 (female)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRVLFREQ OCCUPATI</td>
<td></td>
<td>58.1 (housewife)</td>
<td>54.2 (student)</td>
<td>36.5 (selfempl)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRVLFREQ EDUCATIO</td>
<td></td>
<td>63.6 (elementary)</td>
<td>52.1 (university)</td>
<td>24.2 (university)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRVLFREQ INCOME (USD)</td>
<td></td>
<td>41.6 (0-700)</td>
<td>52.5 (1401-2800)</td>
<td>61.5 (5000+)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*These values are all above average values.

Table 12. Most Favorable Travel Vehicle and Consumer Demographics (Highest Values)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable 1 (Travel Vehicle)</th>
<th>Variable 2 (Consumer Demographics)</th>
<th>Car %</th>
<th>Bus %</th>
<th>Train %</th>
<th>Boat %</th>
<th>Airplane %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VEHICLE AGE</td>
<td></td>
<td>43.9 (41-62)</td>
<td>53.8 (18-25)</td>
<td>7.4 (18-25)</td>
<td>4.3 (62+)</td>
<td>30.3 (26-40)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VEHICLE GENDER</td>
<td></td>
<td>33.3 (female)</td>
<td>43.2 (female)</td>
<td>7.3 (male)</td>
<td>1.5 (female)</td>
<td>20.1 (female)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VEHICLE OCCUPATI</td>
<td></td>
<td>44.2 (wagesalaried)</td>
<td>55.8 (student)</td>
<td>8.9 (student)</td>
<td>2.4 (business)</td>
<td>48.0 (selfemployed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VEHICLE EDUCATIO</td>
<td></td>
<td>38.6 (elementary)</td>
<td>46.2 (high)</td>
<td>7.0 (high)</td>
<td>2.3 (element)</td>
<td>26.5 (university)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VEHICLE INCOME (USD)</td>
<td></td>
<td>39.5 (1401-2800)</td>
<td>60.7 (0-700)</td>
<td>6.9 (0-700)</td>
<td>2.6 (5600+)</td>
<td>79.5 (5600+)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*These values are all above average values.
Table 13. Usual Accommodation Type and Consumer Demographics (Highest Values)*

| Variable 1 Travel Vehicle | Variable 2 Consumer Demographics | Hotel-Motel % | Boarding-house, Guesthouse % | Boat Cabin % | Trailer-tent % | Bungalow Shack % |
|---------------------------|----------------------------------|---------------|-------------------------------|-------------|----------------|----------------|------------------|
| ACCOMODA                  | AGE                              | 69.0 (26-40)  | 39.1 (62+)                    | 1.5 (26-40) | 5.7 (41-60)   | 3.8(18-25)    |
| ACCOMODA                  | GENDER                           | 64.6 (female) | 30.3(female)                  | 1.0 (male)  | 6.2(female)   | 2.5(female)   |
| ACCOMODA                  | OCCUPATION                       | 75.0(self-em) | 45.2(house)                   | 2.4(business) | 7.6(student) | 3.8(student) |
| ACCOMODA                  | EDUCATION                        | 67.8 (univer) | 40.9 (element)                | 1.1 (univer) | 6.9 (element) | 2.3 (high)    |
| ACCOMODA                  | INCOME                           | 89.7 (5000+)  | 42.2 (0-700)                  | 2.6 (5000+) | 8.7 (0-700)   | 3.5 (0-700)   |

* These values are all above average values.

Table 14. Centrism and Age (Highest Values)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable 1 (Hedonic Traits)</th>
<th>Variable 2 (Centric Traits)</th>
<th>Allocentric</th>
<th>Near-Allocentric</th>
<th>Mid-Centric</th>
<th>Near-Psychocentric</th>
<th>Psychocentric</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>ADVENTURE</td>
<td>29.6 (18-25)</td>
<td>38.1 (18-25)</td>
<td>18.9 (18-25)</td>
<td>42.7 (41-62)</td>
<td>21.7 (62+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>FUNTHRIL</td>
<td>34.6(18-25)</td>
<td>40.8 (41-60)</td>
<td>21.7 (62+)</td>
<td>30.4 (62+)</td>
<td>6.5 (18-25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>INNOVATION</td>
<td>26.6(18-25)</td>
<td>42.318-25</td>
<td>15.3 (41-62)</td>
<td>37.0 (62+)</td>
<td>26.1 (62+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>FAMILIAR *</td>
<td>16.9(18-25)</td>
<td>29.9 (26-40)</td>
<td>24.6(18-25)</td>
<td>39.5 (41-60)</td>
<td>8.9 (41-60)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>EXOTICUN</td>
<td>8.7 (62+)</td>
<td>31.1 (26-40)</td>
<td>20.1 (18-25)</td>
<td>45.9 (41-60)</td>
<td>15.5 (62+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>TRANQUIL *</td>
<td>14.2 (1825)</td>
<td>35.7 (26-40)</td>
<td>24.6 (18-25)</td>
<td>29.9 (26-40)</td>
<td>28.3 (62+)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* These values are all above average values.
### Table 15. Centrism and Gender (Highest Values)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable 1 (Hedonic Traits)</th>
<th>Variable 2 (Centric Traits)</th>
<th>Allocentric</th>
<th>Near-Allocentric</th>
<th>Mid-Centric</th>
<th>Near-Psychocentric</th>
<th>Psychocentric</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GENDER<strong>UR</strong></td>
<td>ADVENTURR**</td>
<td>24.7 (male)</td>
<td>29.9 (male)</td>
<td>18.6 (female)</td>
<td>25.8 (female)</td>
<td>8.9 (male)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GENDER<strong>UR</strong></td>
<td>FUNTHRIL**</td>
<td>22.0 (male)</td>
<td>35.5 (male)</td>
<td>17.4 (female)</td>
<td>22.2 (female)</td>
<td>9.8 (male)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GENDER**R</td>
<td>INNOVATI***</td>
<td>N.A</td>
<td>N.A</td>
<td>N.A</td>
<td>N.A</td>
<td>N.A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GENDER**R</td>
<td><strong>FAMILIAR</strong>*</td>
<td>13.9 (male)</td>
<td>35.3 (male)</td>
<td>21.2 (male)</td>
<td>30.5 (female)</td>
<td>6.0 (male)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GENDER**R</td>
<td>EXOTICUN</td>
<td>8.5 (male)</td>
<td>31.1 (male)</td>
<td>19.1 (male)</td>
<td>40.2 (female)</td>
<td>12.7 (male)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GENDER**R</td>
<td><strong>TRANQUIL</strong>*</td>
<td>12.7 (male)</td>
<td>31.5 (male)</td>
<td>22.8 (female)</td>
<td>26.7 (female)</td>
<td>13.2 (female)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* These values are all above average values.

** Accepted at □<0.0 significance level.

*** Rejected

### Table 16 Centrism and Occupation (Highest Values)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable 1 (Hedonic Traits)</th>
<th>Variable 2 (Centric Traits)</th>
<th>Allocentric</th>
<th>Near-Allocentric</th>
<th>Mid-Centric</th>
<th>Near-Psychocentric</th>
<th>Psychocentric</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OCCUPATI</td>
<td>ADVENTURR</td>
<td>30.1 (student)</td>
<td>25.2 (student)</td>
<td>19.5 (student)</td>
<td>43.5 (housewife)</td>
<td>17.9 (retired)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCCUPATI</td>
<td>FUNTHRIL</td>
<td>27.5 (student)</td>
<td>41.2 (business)</td>
<td>16.9 (student)</td>
<td>35.5 (housewife)</td>
<td>20.9 (retired)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCCUPATI</td>
<td>INNOVATI***</td>
<td>36.0 (student)</td>
<td>46.8 (house)</td>
<td>24.2 (house)</td>
<td>26.9 (retired)</td>
<td>9.4 (business)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCCUPATI</td>
<td><strong>FAMILIAR</strong>*</td>
<td>16.5 (student)</td>
<td>36.4 (wage)</td>
<td>22.0 (student)</td>
<td>54.8 (house)</td>
<td>6.5 (wage)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCCUPATI</td>
<td>EXOTICUN</td>
<td>11.3 (house)</td>
<td>37.3 (student)</td>
<td>24.0 (wage)</td>
<td>51.6 (house)</td>
<td>13.3 (wage)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCCUPATI</td>
<td>TRANQUIL**</td>
<td>17.6 (self)</td>
<td>35.1 (self)</td>
<td>27.6 (wage)</td>
<td>45.2 (house)</td>
<td>16.4 (retired)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* These values are all above average values.
Table 17 Centrism and Education Level (Highest Values)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable 1 (Hedonic Traits)</th>
<th>Variable 2 (Centric Traits)</th>
<th>Allocentric</th>
<th>Near-Allocentric</th>
<th>Mid-Centric</th>
<th>Near-Psychocentric</th>
<th>Psychocentric</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EDUCA TIO</td>
<td>ADVENTURER**</td>
<td>25.2 (univers)</td>
<td>31.1 (univers)</td>
<td>18.1 (high)</td>
<td>38.6 (element)</td>
<td>9.1 (element)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FUNTHRIL</td>
<td>25.6 (univers)</td>
<td>36.1 (high)</td>
<td>17.4 (high)</td>
<td>31.8 (element)</td>
<td>13.6 (element)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>INNOVATION</td>
<td>33.9 (univers)</td>
<td>43.2 (elem)</td>
<td>34.1 (elem)</td>
<td>15.9 (element)</td>
<td>11.0 (high)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FAMILIAR*</td>
<td>15.9 (elem)</td>
<td>39.2 (unive)</td>
<td>20.5 (elem)</td>
<td>33.4 (high)</td>
<td>11.4 (elem)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EXOTICUN</td>
<td>20.5 (elem)</td>
<td>32.4 (unive)</td>
<td>22.7 (elem)</td>
<td>41.1 (high)</td>
<td>13.6 (elem)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>*<em>TRANQUIL</em></td>
<td>20.5 (elem)</td>
<td>26.5 (unive)</td>
<td>23.3 (unive)</td>
<td>36.5 (high)</td>
<td>15.9 (elem)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* These values are all above average values.

** Accepted at $p<0.0$ significance level.

Table 18 Centrism and Monthly Household Income (Highest Values)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable 1 (Hedonic Traits)</th>
<th>Variable 2 (Centric Traits)</th>
<th>Allocentric</th>
<th>Near-Allocentric</th>
<th>Mid-Centric</th>
<th>Near-Psychocentric</th>
<th>Psychocentric</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INCOME</td>
<td>ADVENTURER</td>
<td>33.3 (5600+)</td>
<td>32.8 (1401-2800)</td>
<td>17.9 (701-1400)</td>
<td>28.7 (2801-5600)</td>
<td>13.3 (0-700)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FUNTHRIL</td>
<td>38.5 (5600+)</td>
<td>38.2 (1401-2800)</td>
<td>18.5 (2801-5600)</td>
<td>26.1 (701-1400)</td>
<td>15.5 (0-700)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>INNOVATION</td>
<td>64.1 (5600+)</td>
<td>46.3 (2801-5600)</td>
<td>19.1 (0-700)</td>
<td>19.7 (0-700)</td>
<td>7.5 (0-700)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FAMILIAR*</td>
<td>20.5 (5600+)</td>
<td>53.7 (2801-5600)</td>
<td>23.3 (701-1400)</td>
<td>30.6 (0-700)</td>
<td>15.46 (5600+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EXOTICUN</td>
<td>14.5 (0-700)</td>
<td>36.1 (2801-5600)</td>
<td>23.9 (1401-2800)</td>
<td>40.91 (701-1400)</td>
<td>17.5 (0-700)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TRANQUIL*</td>
<td>35.9 (5600+)</td>
<td>35.9 (5600+)</td>
<td>28.7 (2801-5600)</td>
<td>37.0 (0-700)</td>
<td>16.8 (0-700)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* These values are all above average values.
H₂c is accepted for all levels of consumer demographics

Table 19. E-Travel Styles; Online Booking and Consumer Demographics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable 1</th>
<th>Variable 2</th>
<th>Average Value (Agreement) %</th>
<th>Test Result Highest Score (Agreement) %</th>
<th>Average for Value (Disagreement) %</th>
<th>Test Result Highest Score (Disagreement) %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ETRAVSIT</td>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>55.2</td>
<td>63.5 (26-40)</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>47.8 (62+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ONLINEBO</td>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>56.2 (26-40)</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>39.2 (62+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ETRAVSIT</td>
<td>GENDER*</td>
<td>N.A</td>
<td>N.A</td>
<td>N.A</td>
<td>N.A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ONLINEBO</td>
<td>GENDER</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>50.7 (female)</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>32.6 (male)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ETRAVSIT</td>
<td>OCCUPATI</td>
<td>55.2</td>
<td>64.8 (selfemp)</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>38.9 (retired)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ONLINEBO</td>
<td>OCCUPATI</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>58.8 (selfem)</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>40.3 (housewi)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ETRAVSIT</td>
<td>EDUCATION</td>
<td>N.A</td>
<td>N.A</td>
<td>N.A</td>
<td>N.A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ONLINEBO</td>
<td>EDUCATION</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>50.1 (univer)</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>34.0 (elementa)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ETRAVSIT</td>
<td>INCOME</td>
<td>55.2</td>
<td>77.0 (5600+)</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>35.3 (0-700)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ONLINEBO</td>
<td>INCOME</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>61.5 (5600+)</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>38.8 (0-700)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Rejected

5. Factor Analysis

The exploratory factor analysis reduces 40 variables into nine basic components as follows:

KMO and Bartlett's Test

| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy. | .868 |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square df | 10440.741 780 |
| Sig. | .000 |

Reliability Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
<th>N of Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.747</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 20. Rotated Component Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Component 1</strong>&lt;br&gt;<strong>INNOVATIVENESS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traveling abroad offers me an alternative lifestyle.</td>
<td>0.767</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have a wish for obtaining knowledge about other countries and cultures, including music, art, religion etc.</td>
<td>0.755</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like to visit new places; meet new people and purchase original items which I cannot find in my homeland.</td>
<td>0.709</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can enhance my vision and well-being and develop myself better if I spent my vacation in a developed country.</td>
<td>0.695</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like to share my travel experiences with my friends and give them tips about new places and people.</td>
<td>0.684</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am a frequent traveler and like to visit many places on earth.</td>
<td>0.514</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I still want to spend my vacation in my homeland even though I had facilities to travel abroad.</td>
<td>0.484</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Component 2</strong>&lt;br&gt;<strong>HEDONIC CONSUMPTION BEHAVIOR</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I always prefer high-priced hotels, fancy restaurants, comfortable transports and distinguished entertainment during my vacations.</td>
<td>0.784</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I always choose to stay at 4 or 5 star hotels during my vacations.</td>
<td>0.666</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I generally buy brand-name and an expensive gift on my travels since it gives me prestige in the eyes of my friends and relatives.</td>
<td>0.661</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I adopted some hotel chains as my favorite and try to stay at those hotels during my domestic and international travels.</td>
<td>0.589</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spending my vacation at isolated places (seaside villages, forest cabins, distant spas etc.) appeal to me more than crowded places, luxurious hotels and fancy trips.</td>
<td>0.549</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like to be a prodigal traveler on my vacations whereas I am a disciplined</td>
<td>0.549</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I follow cheap offers, budget travels and promotion flights since they give me the same pleasure as expensive ones.

I like to purchase expensive VIP tour packages since they render value for money.

Shopping is an indispensable part of my travels.

Component 3
LOYALTY TO TRAVEL AGENCY
I prefer to employ travel agencies for my vacation travels since they always meet my expectations.

I like to plan my own travel rather than buying a tour package.

A new tour package from a travel agency attracts highly my interest to buy it.

I prefer to employ the same travel agency for my travels.

Component 4
ALLOCENTRIC BEHAVIOR
I look for adventure in my vacation.

I like to spend my vacations in crowded places where I enjoy fun, thrill and extravagance which set me apart from my daily mundane life.

I spend a lot of time to plan my vacation travels.

I like to travel to exotic and unusual places, even though I could be confronted with several hazards as theft, disease, threat, natural disasters, scarcity etc.

I like to visit places where I have been before, since my former experience avoids me getting lost, cheated and being regretful.

Component 5
PSYCHOCETRIC BEHAVIOR
I like to meet people who speak my mother tongue during my vacation.

I like group travel with my family, friends and other tourist groups rather than traveling alone.

I can easily call myself a regular
international traveler.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component 6</th>
<th>ONLINE SHOPPING BEHAVIOR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I like to use e-travel sites and online booking sites since they offer more opportunities than other means.</td>
<td>.837</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-travel sites are the best sources for me to plan my vacation.</td>
<td>.827</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I obtain extensive information (guides, catalogues, web-sites etc.) about a place before I get started to my vacation.</td>
<td>.490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like to be informed about new holiday chances and latest tours before my friends and relatives.</td>
<td>.377</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component 7</th>
<th>CAUTIOUSNESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I don't like to spend my vacation in such countries which demand visa since I feel insulted.</td>
<td>.802</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication problems make me reluctant to spend my vacation abroad.</td>
<td>.709</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traveling by airplane frightens me most of the time</td>
<td>.454</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component 8</th>
<th>MALADJUSTMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I may experience or witness hostility, violence, deprivation, trouble or discomfort if I visit a third-world country.</td>
<td>.601</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I often dispute with people in a group-trip since generally they cannot be a match for me as far as tastes and expectations are concerned.</td>
<td>.570</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that guided tours limit freedom of people to explore what they are really curious about.</td>
<td>.434</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component 9</th>
<th>RELUCTANCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My work seldom lets me to tear myself off my daily routines even on vacation</td>
<td>.772</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I keep my vacation travels as short as possible, because long traveling is nothing but waste of time.</td>
<td>.629</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 15 iterations.
6. Findings

Some important conclusions are obtained from the analyses of research data as follows:

Hedonic consumption behavior significantly related (positively and negatively) to traveler centrism as follows:

1. **Innovative travelers** who like to visit new places; meet new people and purchase original items which they cannot find in their homelands are the prominent allocentric groups who like to purchase expensive tour packages; prefer high-priced hotels, fancy restaurants, comfortable transports and distinguished entertainment during their vacations; generally buy brand-name and an expensive gift on their travels since it gives them prestige in the eyes of their friends and relatives, and always choose to stay at 4 or 5 star hotels during their vacations.

2. **People who like to travel to exotic and unusual places**, even though they could be confronted with several hazards as theft, disease, who are also allocentric like innovative travelers however exhibit an extremely reverse behavior than innovators since they do not adopt a hedonic behavior.

3. **Fun and thrill seekers** who like to spend their vacations in crowded places where they enjoy fun, thrill and extravagance which set them apart from their daily mundane life and those travelers who look for adventure in their vacations rank between the above groups and positively related to hedonist consumption behavior.

4. **People who adopt some hotel chains as their favorite** and try to stay at those hotels during their domestic and international travels; and those **people who like to visit places where they have been before**, since their former experience avoids them getting lost, cheated and being regretful in short **psychocentric travelers** are **price sensitive** in their travels. Therefore brand and destination loyalty is significantly related to price consciousness. On the other hand people who prefer to employ the same travel agency for their travels (store loyals) stand between the above two groups and are somewhat price sensitive.

5. **Information seeking behavior** of leisure traveling is significantly related to **planning behavior** of travelers; that is people who spend a lot of time to plan their vacation travels are **information innovators**; since they like to be informed about new holiday chances and latest tours before their friends and relatives, obtain extensive information (guides, catalogues, web-sites etc.) about a place before they get started to their vacations and have a wish for obtaining knowledge about other countries and cultures, including music, art, religion etc.

6. **Opinion leaders** are frequent travelers and like to visit many places on earth.

7. **Compulsive buying behavior** of leisure is positively and significantly related with **destination loyalty**. People who regard communication problems as an impediment to spend their vacation abroad; who are reluctant to experience or witness hostility, violence, deprivation, trouble or discomfort if they visit a third-world country and who dread airplane flights most of the time like to visit places where they have been before, since their former experience avoids them getting lost, cheated and being regretful.

8. From consumer demographics point of view, profile of those travelers who spend their holidays in their homeland (country) is as follows: **youngsters (18-25 years old)**, **females**, **housewives**, **high-school graduates** and **lowest income groups (0-700 USD)**. On the other
hand those travelers who spend their vacation abroad are, elder people (+62), males, self-employed people and company managers, university graduates and highest income group (+5600 USD).

9. Consumer demographics are also the major determinants of travel groups. Solo travelers are 26-40 years old, males, self-employed and managers, university graduates and highest income group (+5600 USD); family travelers are 41-62 years old, females, elementary-school graduates and middle income group (1401-2800 USD); those traveling with their friends are youngsters (18-25 years old), males, students, university graduates and lowest income group (0-700 USD); people taking a group tour are elder people (+62 year of age), females, self-employed and managers, elementary school graduates and higher income group (2801-5600 USD).

10. Annual frequency of travels also differs according to the annual frequency of travels. Elder travelers (+62 years), females, housewives, elementary school graduates, and lowest income group (0-700 USD) are infrequent travelers (Once a year); youngsters (18-25 year of age), males, students, university graduates and middle income group (1401-2800 USD) are travelers of average frequency (a couple of times per year); and elder travelers (+62 years)*, females*, self-employed people and managers, university graduates and highest income group (+5600 USD) are frequent travelers.

11. Different vehicles are used for transportation purposes. Bus is the most used vehicle for travel purposes. 40.9 % of the total respondents use bus. Bus users are youngsters (18-25 years old), females, students, high-school graduates and lowest income group. 32.9 % of travelers either use their own cars or they rent a car. Middle-aged group (41-62 years old), females, wage and salary earners, elementary school graduates and middle-income group (1401-2800 USD) prefer this alternative. Airplane is taken by 20 % of the population and young adults (26-41 Years old), females, self-employed people and managers, university graduates and highest income group (+5600 USD) prefer airplane for their leisure travel. On the other hand train and boat (ship) travels are not very welcome by vacationers (5 % and 1.2 % respectively).

12. Hotels and motels are the most favored accommodation types for vacationers (62.3 %). Young adults, females, self-employed people and managers, university graduates and highest income group (+5600 USD) prefer to stay at the hotels and motels during their travels. Boardinghouses and guesthouses rank second after hotels and motels (29.8 %) and preferred by elder people (+62 years of age), females, housewives, elementary school graduates and lowest income group (0-700 USD). The rest accommodation types (Boat cabin, trailer-tent, and bungalow-shack) are not much favorites in this respect (7.9 % total choice).

13. From adventure, fun-thrill seeking behavior and innovativeness point of view youngsters, males, students, university graduates and highest income group unanimously exhibit allocentric behavior and differ significantly from other groups. There is no such accentuated behavior on the part of the psychocentrism. On the other hand, as far as near-psychocentrism is concerned, mature and elderly people, housewives and retirees, elementary school graduates and lower income groups differ significantly from other as the representatives of psychocentric behavior. Categorizing for near-allocentric behavior could not be achieved.
14. Online booking for leisure travel is adopted mostly by young adults (36-40 years old), females, self-employed and company managers, university graduates and highest income group (+$5600 USD)

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Xue Li, Chunhua Mao, Xiaowei Liu, Rong Zhang

Xue Li, Chunhua Mao: Eastern Liaoning University, China
Xiaowei Liu: The 4th Middle School of Dalian, China
Rong Zhang: Nishinippon Institute of Technology, Japan

Application of Reception Aesthetic Theory to Advanced English Teaching Using Multimedia

Abstract:
Advanced English is a specialized subject commonly provided to students majoring in English language or literature in their third year and fourth year learning in colleges in countries where English is not a native language. It is designed to train students’ comprehensive linguistic skills including reading comprehension, understanding figures of speech and writing ability. But, with the spreading use of multimedia in English education, Advanced English teaching is facing more and more challenges than before. Although innovative theories and methods have been introduced to the field of foreign language teaching, most of them focus on the enhancement of basic and principle knowledge of the English language and the acquisition of communicative competence. Much less attention has ever been paid to the issue of how to improve the effectiveness of Advanced English teaching. The traditional teaching method which emphasizes information conveyance doesn’t work well, especially when multimedia devices are being used in class.
This paper suggests that reception aesthetic theory should be applied to the teaching of Advanced English in order to promote the interaction between teachers and students in class, optimize teaching and learning modes, and make the multimedia device a more powerful teaching platform. This study discusses some reasons and implications of the application of this method and examines the possibility to widen students’ horizon in Advanced English learning and the advantages of their more active engagement in class.

Keywords: Advanced English Teaching, Reception Aesthetics Theory, Pedagogic Instructions on English Language Teaching, Multimedia.

1. Introduction
Advanced English is a compulsory subject which is commonly taught to students majoring in English language or literature in the third and fourth year of college study in many countries where English is not a native language. It is the English subject with the highest level in higher education since the textbooks used for the class contain a large vocabulary and very complicated linguistic structures. Advanced English is an important subject to students because it helps extend the scope of students’ English learning and to a certain degree, decides how high they English level could reach. Usually, passages chosen from English newspapers, journals and literature works are used as teaching materials without or with little modification. They tend to show little difference from the original version and are not easy to learn, especially when the language takes on special characteristics of certain authors or when cultural backgrounds get involved. Therefore, Advanced English requires that learners should not only have a full understanding of the basic knowledge of
English language, but also familiarize themselves with specific expressions in English, such as idioms, and some crucial issues in social and cultural environment in English-speaking countries. Teachers are supposed to help students understand deeper cultural and social phenomena which are behind the English language rather than the common practice of focusing on teaching grammar and vocabulary in other English classes with lower English proficiencies.

Traditional teaching method in many countries for English language teaching is typically featured by a text-based, information-oriented and teacher-centered instructional format which emphasizes great efforts to push memorization and detailed analysis of a text (Paine, 1992, see also Wang and Farmer, 2008) because “memorization of texts is more highly valued in China than in any other educational or cultural setting” (Wang, 2007). Teaching is considered as a process to transmit or convey knowledge to students. Thus, students are trained to adapt to “didactic teaching and rote learning rather than critical thinking” (Biggs, 1996).

Advanced English teaching is not an exception. Even nowadays, most teachers generally use the traditional teaching method which pays special attention to the meaning of linguistic expressions and the grammatical structure of a sentence. The historical and cultural backgrounds are not sufficiently introduced in class, and teachers seldom discuss with the students about the organization of the whole body and how the main idea is developed. Teachers are absolutely the center of the class and key points for lexical and grammatical study are explained in detail. No training of critical thinking and compression skills is integrated in the teaching process though many literature works are used as teaching materials. Teaching process is isolated from students’ learning activities though they are closely related. They are put in a situation to be a quiet and passive listener, taking notes and gazing at the translation in the dictionary and other reference books. “There is little engagement of the learner with the text other than for purely linguistic practice” (Savvidou, 2004). Teachers get exhausted because students “have difficulties in comprehending the nuances, creativity and versatility which characterize the standard and transactional forms of English” in literature works though they have acquired linguistic accuracy (Savvidou, 2004).

Advanced English teaching requires more than the mastery of linguistic structures and forms. “It also involves acquiring the ability to interpret discourse in all social and cultural contexts” (Savvidou, 2004). The students’ active participation in class helps them better manage their learning module and thus improves the effectiveness of teaching. As the use of multimedia tools in teaching grows fast, the traditional teaching environment has been largely changed. Teaching resources are optimized through the surfing of the internet and teaching effect can be enhanced by using appropriate pedagogical tools and methodologies. The neglect of interaction with the students in the traditional way of teaching Advanced English has become a most influential obstacle preventing more effective use of the multimedia devices.

This paper suggests that reception aesthetic theory should be applied to the teaching of Advanced English in order to promote the interaction between teachers and students in class, optimize teaching and learning modules, and make the multimedia device a more powerful teaching platform. This study discusses some reasons and implications of the application of this method and examines the possibilities to widen students’ horizon in Advanced English learning and the advantages of their more active engagement in class.
2. Overview of Reception Aesthetics Theory

The reception aesthetics theory was the connotation developed to guide the direction of literary criticism at the University of Constance in West Germany during the late 1960s and early 1970s (Holub, 1995). It was characterized as “a general shift in concern from the author and the work to the text and the reader” (Holub, 1984). He states that “the literary work is neither completely text nor completely the subjectivity of the reader, but a combination or merger of the two”. This new paradigm for literary criticism reveals a new relationship between the reader and the text, stressing the importance of the role of readers’ reception in the reading process and regarding the reader’s reception as an important driving force as to the understanding of a literature work. According to Jauss (1969), the reception aesthetics theory gives much room for the reader to interpret the text and tries to offer chances for readers to get involved in communication with the author and his work. He (1982:23) based his theory on the following description about the term “horizon of expectations”:

A literary work, even when it appears to be new, does not present itself as something absolutely new in an informational vacuum, but predisposes its audience to a very specific kind of reception by announcements, overt and covert signals, familiar characteristics, or implicit allusions. It awakens memories of that which was already read, bring the reader to a specific emotional attitude and with its beginning arouses expectations for the “middle and end”, which can then be maintained intact or altered, reoriented, or even fulfilled ironically in the course of the reading according to specific rules of the genre or type of text.

He argues that the horizon of expectations is formed through the reader’s life experience, social customs and understanding of the world, which in return, have a significant effect on the reader’s reading behavior.

Iser (1974) studies the interaction between the text and the reader and his reader-response theory focuses on the interaction between the reader and a literary work. He points out that he experience of a reader with a literary work affects the production process because the reader’s dynamic role in reception contributes largely to how the literary work is understood and comprehended by the public. Without the participation of the reader, a literary work can never realize its whole creation process. A literary work is not only brought about by its author but also by the joint efforts of both its author and readers.

Explanations of any literary work may vary from people to people and from time to time. The contents of a text are accepted by the reader actively and the text becomes meaningful only when what it implies is unambiguous to readers. In other words, reading is a process where the reader makes use of his personal background knowledge and information he has obtained from his past experience and previous reading. Reading is also a text-related performance which combines the literary work and the interpretation of the reader into a whole.

Understanding and interpretation are the two major procedures for reception aesthetics and were proposed by Jauss in the interview given by Segers (1979). He notes that the aesthetics of reception and effect “define the meaning of a text as a convergence of the structure of the work and the structure of the interpretation which is ever to be achieved anew” and therefore, they can also “make use of the achievements of the structuralist description of texts... in order to interpret semantically structures which are linguistically determinable”. This comment implies that understanding, which stands for “understanding in the succession of its verses, its narration, or its dramatic unfolding”, is the very first step for any reception behavior of literary works and lays the
foundation for the interpretation. “Interpretation as the concretization of a specific significance always remains bound to the horizon of the first reading, perceiving aesthetically and understanding with pleasure; it next has the task of illuminating the verbal and poetic conditions which, from the construction of the text, orient the primary act of understanding.”

3. Implications of Reception Aesthetics Theory in a Teaching Setting for Advanced English Using Multimedia Technologies

The Advanced English class in a multimedia teaching setting should be analyzed from a bilateral activity perspective. On one hand, it is a production process by an English teacher. He focuses on the acquirement of the students’ understanding of the original work and their reception of the beauty of the language and the rational of the notions based on their knowledge and experience. On another hand, it is also a production process by students. Students’ learning performance devotes to the realization of the literary work and finally leads to the completion of the whole creation process.

Different from the traditional teaching approach with only chalk and blackboard, teaching using multimedia devices at the current stage takes more advantage of the computer and the internet technology. It widens the scope of the information range and provides more real-time information to the related topic. Students are no longer passive recipients of knowledge but have turned into active participants in class. All these features make the teaching in a multimedia setting more energetic and attractive.

But unfortunately, the new teaching concept has not been adopted much in the case of Advanced English teaching. Teachers are still using the unilateral lecturing mode to handle the class and the traditional teaching concept puts an emphasis on the learning of linguistic knowledge rather than factors which are beyond this scope, such as the organization and structure of the passage, genre, the historical and cultural background and the appreciation of the works from an aesthetic perspective. Mechanical memorizing takes the place of enjoying and students don’t show interest and enthusiasm in class. They are more anxious to participate in the process and those multimedia devices offer them the benefit to interact more with both the teacher and other students.

Increased interaction between students and the teacher is one of the most distinct differences between multimedia and traditional teaching approaches. Communication between the teacher and students under a multimedia environment consist not only the exchange of knowledge, but also exchange of attitudes and points of view. Students can do a better work with the practice of the reception task when they are better prepared. The interaction refers to more involvement of the students’ in class. They should follow an “interpretative procedure” (Widdowson, 1975) which requires them to infer, anticipate and negotiate the meaning from within the text, which to a degree is not required in the traditional teaching approach. Therefore, when multimedia devices are used for the Advanced English teaching, the reception aesthetics theory gives significant enlightenment to the improvement of the teaching effectiveness. Teaching activity has become a combined creation process for a good balance among the role of the students, knowledge transmission, promotion of the aesthetic entertainment of literary works and other pedagogical teaching methods.

4. Rationale for an Integrated Model for Advanced English Teaching in a Multimedia Setting

Base on the reception aesthetics theory, there are three principles for an integrated model for Advanced English Teaching in a multimedia setting, which aims to take the advantage of the
computer and the internet technology while reinforcing the reception abilities of the students towards literary works:

**Principle I**: Make full use of computer and the internet technology, and enrich the contents for class teaching with visual aids to strengthen students’ basic skills in language training.

Under the multimedia-based teaching environment, the communication between teachers and students is intermittently linked through computer, which makes it possible for visual devices to function a major aid for better communication. According to Smith and Woody (2000), “multimedia benefits students with a high visual orientation” which is supported by “a variety of visual aids designed to supplement the lecture component”. This suggests that teachers use more visual aids for the interpretation of the text instead of the traditional lecturing. They can select some of the proper resources on the internet about the related topic and offer the information by showing students how to get access to it through demonstration. Connecting the passage in a textbook with the internet not only broadens students’ outlook, but also arouses their interest in investigating and examining different points of view about the work. Visual aids help improve students’ understanding level and the reception aesthetics ability of different points of views.

In order to motivate students in Advanced English learning, practical trainings for basic skills in language is of crucial significance because the acquisition of basic knowledge about English leads to the improvement of their comprehension ability. Multimedia devices provide a limitless resources for practical training. It is so much easy to find sites very useful for vocabulary learning and grammar exercises. Operation on a computer gives students a feeling that they are playing a game and the dull spelling and grammatical rules are remembered in a more effective way while working on those sites. Students can also practice speaking by sound imitating, which would be difficult without a computer or a sound player. They can also watch movies, which offer them an alive ambient for the understanding of those conversations, which may too appear on the textbooks for Advanced English. Teachers may also require students to submit their assignment through the internet, adopting those convenient functions such as chatting to facilitate negotiation and discussion in teaching. The enhancement of basic linguistic competence for students lays the foundation for a more feasible schema of teaching based on reception aesthetics theory.

**Principle II**: Narrow the gap between the horizon of teaching and the horizon of students’ expectation.

As mentioned above, readers’ horizon of expectation is formed through his life experience. When students are equipped with necessary background knowledge and information about the related topics in the text, they may feel less difficulty in understanding the works. In other words, when the teaching materials chosen for the class are compatible with their knowledge level, they tend to show better understanding towards the target passage. The level of the teaching materials functions as an index for the horizon of teaching.

Conclusions can be made about effective teaching in Advanced English class: (1) Appropriate teaching materials are selected; (2) The level of the teaching in class is within the reaching scope of the students. Actually, the huge gap between the horizon of teaching and the horizon of students’ expectation has been criticized often as a factor which prevents the class from being a successful one. Passages which are suitable for the needs of the students tend to lead to a more satisfying teaching result.
Teachers are required to deal with these two invisible elements skillfully and make a logical judgment about the gap. When the gap between the contents of the text and the horizon of the expectation is zero, it shows that the teaching scope just meet students’ directional expectation while it might fail to provide more stimuli to those students who cater for innovative challenge. As the gap gradually expands, students are able to get access to new information which is beyond the scope of their old knowledge and the teaching effect starts to be seen. But when the horizon of teaching is high above the horizon of students’ expectation, the teaching effect might be largely reduced. Students tend to be less motivated and show a negative attitude towards learning as they experience constant excessive setbacks.

Two advices can be given to teachers as to their teaching methodologies so that the gap between the two scopes can be controlled within an acceptable range. The first one is about the preparation work of the teachers before class. They can use the internet to search for appropriate materials and use the extracted or adapted versions instead of the abstruse original version first. Usually these versions are rewritten for special needs of less competent readers in a more understandable writing style. After mastering the plot of the whole story, students tend to be more curious about the details in the original works and their understanding about the story helps them better cope with the difficult description in the original work. The second advice is for the students, who are supposed to raise their horizon of expectation about what is taught in class. It is possible for them to help realize a higher teaching horizon because when they are well prepared in class, they can understand more complicated and challenging information so that they can better appreciate the literary works and enjoy the reading process. Certainly, at the very early stage, students need the teacher’s instruction on how to get prepared. Teachers can assign tasks to the students to help be aware of the importance of using an effective learning strategy and get accustomed to a good learning habit. Teachers can ask the students to gather information about the text, its author and the historical and cultural background in which the story happens. Such information including both passages and pictures can be integrated into a PPT file, which can be used for presentation in class before checking the text. Teachers can also ask students to list up all of the questions they have about the text and a discussion can be held in class to help students learn about critical thinking. In sum, the pre-stored knowledge in students’ mind can not only expand their knowledge scope but also raise their horizon of expectation in class.

**Principle III:** Take the advantage of multimedia and foster students’ apprehension ability towards the rhetorical beauty in literary works.

Reception aesthetics theory considers reading as an activity of aesthetic appreciation in which readers are actively engaged. All beauties, words and expressions, objective thinking and the interactions of the two, should be analyzed and viewed on the basis of the aesthetic experience of readers. Literary works are carriers of rhetorical and semantically beauties rather than mechanical combinations of words and expressions. Rather than the boring training of memorizing words and expressions and grammatical rules, students should be taught how to search for the graceful beauty embodied in the language. It is a relatively hard task for Chinese students to feel the beauty in the English language itself, like the simple and smooth structure, vivid and accurate expression, usage of rhetoric devices such as simile metaphor, personification, punchy parallel and the stressed inverted sentence. Due to the limitation in traditional teaching settings, students are hardly given enough information and explanation on such linguistic techniques for better description of proper nuance. Teachers can use the resources on the internet for demonstrations so that students can
understand the writing style better through comparison. Anyhow, through Advanced English teaching, students should be taught how to use their mind thinking while reading English and English language should be treated as a living object rather than a collection of unchangeable and stabilized symbols.

Obviously, the teacher’s attitude towards English teaching can be very influential on students’ reception of how they should learn. Reception aesthetics put emphasis on readers’ creation and imagination abilities in the receiving process. It intensifies the interactive function of exchanging emotions and ideas, which means in teaching settings, teachers should participate the discussion with the students rather than pure disseminators. In Advanced English class, it is the teachers’ responsibility to tell the students that they should have initiatives to explore the language more rather than being satisfied with a high score in test due to perfect memorizing. Students should be encouraged to write essays in a way they feel is the most suitable to communicate their thinking with readers. Application is also an important part of the reception aesthetics theory. How to get students master the rhetorical skills in writing is at the top of the teaching horizon in Advanced English class.

5. Conclusion

“When a new paradigm is effective, this is judged by the new questions which it can formulate for old problems, by seeing whether it can solve them in new ways, by unknown problems which thereby come to light, and by seeing whether, in all these cases, methods, can be developed which contribute to the enrichment of the scholarly tradition” (Segers, 1979). Teaching method based on the reception aesthetics theory should be compared with the old traditional approach to see whether the new paradigm help to solve problems existing in the old paradigm in new ways. Reformation has been required constantly by the teaching guideline of Chinese higher education and the innovation in teaching methods had become the core for improvement. With the development of information technology, employment of multimedia devices has been proved to be the key for the improvement of teaching effectiveness. Advanced English teaching based on the reception aesthetics theory is a prompt response to the needs of such change in the teaching setting. Its implications on the training of students’ creative and critical thinking largely expand the teaching scope in class and devote to positive change in students’ output of the English language. By guiding students to appreciate the beauty of the English language, Advanced English teaching finds its way in a more initiative and energetic mode with more communication and information exchange.

Reference


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A Study on Destination Image and the Behavioral Factors of Destination Loyalty

Abstract:
The research interest on destination loyalty is the result of the generalized idea that returning travelers are the more stable and economically interesting share of the destination markets. Initially explored by the fields of marketing and consumer behavior integrated in studies on brand image and branding, brand loyalty corresponds to an early definition of brand insistence, based on the repetition or iteration of a behavior related to a brand, or a purchase sequence. The applied studies in the field of travel and tourism are linked to destination management, destination branding, and destination marketing. The study focuses on the destination image and behavioral factors of loyalty of travelers to Macau SAR, PR China, analyzed under a cross-sectional survey design during the first quarter of 2012.

Keywords: Destination Markets, Destination Image, Destination Perception, Destination Loyalty

1. Introduction
Destination loyalty is a restriction of the concept of brand loyalty and results in the iteration of a behavior or in a repetition pattern of versions of a positive or negative behavior towards a destination. Brand loyalty is associated to an evolution of behavior from uncertainty to stability, from random behavior towards predictable patterns of behavior. The consumer behavior — in the case of destination loyalty the travelers' and the tourists' behavior — evolves from an initial stage characterized by a neutral equidistant positioning towards a set of destination alternatives to a positive or negative attitude development that attracts some destinations closer to form clusters characterized by the higher probability of a positive economic decision, and forces other destinations away, to clusters characterized by the higher probability of a negative economic decision.

When Oppermann (2000) argues that brand loyalty involves a repeated buying behavior, is in our view showing only one side of the theme, since if the loyalty is negative the repetition of the behavior also exists but in this case, involving a repeated non-buying behavior, perhaps more stable and resulting in more damage to the brand.

The unequal relevance attributed to the positive economic behavior may be derived from the original definition, as brand loyalty corresponds to an early definition of brand insistence (Copeland, 1923; referred by Oppermann, 2000). Later, Brown (1952; referred by Oppermann, 2000) proposed four categories of purchase sequences related to loyalty: (1) undivided loyalty (AAAAAA); (2) divided loyalty (ABABAB); (3) unstable loyalty (AAABBB); and (4) irregular sequences (ABBACDB); that, while still focusing on the positive segment of the economic
behavior, highlighted the importance of identifying and analyzing different patterns of consumer behavior.

Loyal customers are frequent repeat purchasers reluctant to change their purchasing patterns (Henry, 2000; referred by McKercher and Guillet, 2011). Loyal customers are the best market share for a company, as the costs of retaining them are very small against the comparison reference costs of attracting new customers (Haywood, 1989; Rosenberg and Czequiel, 1984; Oppermann, 2000). The higher the loyalty, the higher the repeat purchase propensity and the commitment to the brand. As the loyalty declines, the first effect is the decline of the commitment, with the high frequency of purchases persisting in time afterwards before the final decline (McKercher and Guillet, 2011).

From a behavior perspective, customers can be considered loyal: (1) with a continuous sequence of three purchases (Tucker, 1964; referred by Oppermann, 2000); (2) with a high proportion of purchases of a brand with reference to the total number of purchases (Brown, 1952, Copeland, 1923; Lipstein, 1959; all referred by Oppermann, 2000); or (3) with a high probability of future purchases (Frank, 1962; referred by Oppermann, 2000).

In the line of Brown (1952) purchase sequences, from an attitude perspective Day (1969; referred by Oppermann, 2000) distinguishes two types of loyalty purchases: (1) intentionally loyal; and (2) spurious loyal, in which the strongest reason for the purchase is lateral (e.g. time convenience, availability or differentiated access). The intend to purchase (Juster, 1966; referred by Oppermann, 2000) while being still an attitude indicator, offers a further understanding of the future behavior of the consumer.

A combination of both perspectives (attitude and behavior) designated by composite approach, was also suggested as a more comprehensive alternative for the study of loyalty (Oppermann, 2000).

Li, Petrick, Zhou (2008) exploring the conceptual links between brand knowledge and brand loyalty applied to travel and tourism destinations suggested that there is a relation between destination knowledge and destination loyalty with implications on attitudinal loyalty and behavioral loyalty. The destination branding line of research emerged from demands in terms of destination knowledge and destination strategy (Cai, 2002; Morgan, Pritchard and Pride, 2004; all referred by Li, Petrick and Zhou, 2008). Destination branding is 'the identification and management of a consistent set of brand elements through positive destination image building and awareness creation' (Li, Petrick and Zhou, 2008:82). Backman and Crompton (1991b) proposed a bi-dimensional model with loyalty analyzed in terms of: (1) psychological attachment; and (2) behavioral consistency; and measured in four segments or categories: (1) low loyalty; (2) latent loyalty; (3) spurious loyalty; and (4) high loyalty; consistently supported by later research (Backman and Veldkamp, 1995; Baloglu, 2001; Kozak, Huan and Beaman, 2002; Niininen and Riley, 2003; Oppermann, 1999; all referred by Li, Petrick and Zhou, 2008).

In this paper brand knowledge is understood as the information in memory about a specific brand and brand loyalty is defined as the preference and recurrent behavior linked to a specific brand. The recurrent behavior could be a negative, neutral, or positive behavior depending on the background attitude orientation towards the brand.

Destination awareness and destination image form destination knowledge, which is expected to influence destination loyalty, including both the attitudinal and the behavioral loyalty (Li, Petrick and Zhou, 2008). Anastassova (2011) defines destination image as a combination of the perceptions
of the destination by the tourism market and the travelers profile, and suggests a relation between the loyalty behavior and the destination brand image.

The literature on loyalty presents several measures of behavior loyalty for travel destinations: (1) frequency of visits over a time period; (2) price premium by comparison with other similar destinations; (3) sequence of visits (individual loyalty, unstable loyalty, no loyalty); (4) proportion of visits when comparing with the total number of travel opportunities (adapted from Iwasaki and Havitz, 1998; Petrick, 2004; Aaker, 1996; Pritchard, Howard and Havitz, 1992; all referred by Li, Petrick and Zhou, 2008).

The concept of loyalty is closely linked to the repetition, iteration, or consistency of behavior, presenting a value of increased predictability that reduces risk and uncertainty.

Risk perception studies have been applied to the analysis of consumer behavior patterns (Verhage, Yava and Green, 1990) and Ryan (1995; referred by Oppermann, 2000) notes that high loyalty is consistent with risk aversion. Brand loyalty can be considered a strategy for risk reduction as are information search, purchasing a popular brand, and purchasing very inexpensive or expensive brands (Fuchs and Reichel, 2011; Assael, 1995; Mowen and Minor, 1998; Roselius, 1971; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2007). Risk perception influences the travel patterns and the tourists loyalty associated with a travel destination and might be considered a psychological barrier to travel as perceived risks influence consumer behavior even in the absence of real risks or when the real risks are negligible (Fuchs and Reichel, 2011; Moreira, 2007a, 2007b).

Loyalty depends on several factors influencing repeat visits (Gitelson and Crompton, 1984, referred by Oppermann, 2000): (1) risk reduction I (when content with the destination); (2) risk reduction II (when content with the people at the destination); (3) memories and emotional attachment; (4) further exploration intentions; and (5) the desire to introduce the destination to other people. Loyalty also depends on the traveler profile as visitors searching for novel experiences might not return to a destination even if the experience was positive. The studies of Plog (2001, 1974) on psychographic profiles differentiating the allocentric type (explorers) and the psychocentric type (mass tourists) established a macro forecast model to study the destination life cycle based on the evolution of the dominant share of the travelers profiles. The psychocentric type is the more stable profile, associated with the higher risk reduction tendency or the profile with the lower risk perception threshold. Choy (1992) uses the typology 'explorers' and 'mass tourists' referring to the tendency trend of the pattern of destination evolution, from the dominant 'explorers' travelers in the initial moments of the destination emergence to the 'mass tourists' phase as the infrastructure develops to adapt to the rise of the arrival numbers and the prices and profit margins decrease. The Plog (1974) destination life cycle model argues that 'destinations appeal to specific types of people and typically follow a relatively predictable pattern of growth and decline in popularity over time' (Plog, 2001:13). Later, the Butler (1980) life cycle model further develops this line of research. Without denying the importance of both models to the understanding of the evolution of destinations, some reserves about the life cycle models should be noted and, as an example, after a study on life cycle models for Pacific Islands destinations Choy (1992) concluded that the destination life cycle proposed by Butler is not applicable to all destinations and that the development of a destination is unique and should be considered beyond the previous conceptions of an evolution model.

Although repeat visits and consumer loyalty are generally considered positive and desirable for travel destinations, Oppermann (1998) suggests that as the number of repeat visitors increases and
approaches the 50 percent ratio the destination will enter the decline phase of the Butler's
destination life cycle model (Butler, 1980), consistent with the predictions of the Plog's travelers
psychographic profiles that the destination will start to decline when it only attracts psychocentric,
loyal or dependable travelers (Plog, 1974).

The economic advantages believed to be associated to loyal customers have again more recently
been in dispute in the literature with several authors concluding in favor of the orientation to new
customers and new markets (Reinartz and Kumar, 2000, 2002; Helgesen, 2006; Ranaweera, 2007;
Henry, 2000; Petrick, 2004; all referred by Croes, Shani and Walls, 2010) while more research
evidence of the link between loyalty and organizational results has been identified (Baker, and
Crompton, 2000).

2. TRAVEL, Tourism and Destination Loyalty

"The mass arrival of tourists in cities represents a substantial percentage of the total volume of
tourists in tourism cities and a notable contribution to the creation of wealth."

Hwang, Gretzel and Fesenmaier (2006)
In Forgas-Coll, Palau-Saumell, Sanchez-Garcia and Callarisa-Fiol (2012:1)

The topics on brand loyalty or consumer loyalty have long been studied while loyalty research is a
new phenomenon in the area of tourism, hospitality, recreation and leisure (Backman and
Crompton, 1991a, 1991b; Pritchard and Howard, 1997) which adopts product and service loyalty
literature for its conceptual framework (Oppermann, 1998, 2000; Pritchard and Howard, 1997). In
consumer research, ‘brand loyalty essentially denotes that a person buys the same brand over and
over again’ (Oppermann, 2000:78). The concept is measured by frequency of purchase, intention to
continue buying the same product, and willingness to recommend the product to others (Hepworth,
Mateus, 1994). In tourism context, Hanefors and Mossberg (1999), as referred by Kozak, Huan, and
Beaman (2002), suggested a variety of loyalty types such as travel agency loyalty, hotel loyalty,
tour operator loyalty, and destination loyalty. In particular, destination loyalty measures include
willingness to recommend, intention to return, and actual repeat visitation to a destination (Castro,
Armario and Ruiz, 2007; Chen and Gursoy, 2001; Chi and Qu, 2008; Kim and Crompton, 2002;
Niininen, Szivas and Riley, 2004; Oppermann, 1998, 2000; Pritchard and Howard, 1997; Yoon and
Uysal, 2005; all referred by McKercher and Guillet, 2011). This assessment is used by most
destinations to define loyal customers, based on the assumption that the frequency of past behavior
is the best predictor of future behavior (Campo-Martinez, Garau-Vadell and Martinez-Ruiz, 2010).
In the recency-frequency-monetary (RFM) value paradigm, loyalty is confirmed by purchased
behavior and recent or frequent purchases of the brand as well as prior purchases of high monetary
value are expected to influence future purchases in a positive way (Hughes, 1995; Paas, 1998; all
referred by Croes, Shani and Walls, 2010). On the other hand, destination loyalty might be
negatively affected by the travelers' interest in new and different experiences and destinations
(McDougall and Munro, 1994; Hsieh, O'Leary and Morrison, 1994; all referred by McDowall,
2010).

Antecedents of tourists' loyalty to a destination include motivation, destination image, trip quality,
perceived value, and satisfaction (Chi and Qu, 2008; Bigne, Sanchez and Sanchez, 2001) since
travel and tourism is something that must be purchased at a distance and without the opportunity to
pretest before buying. In this sense, the level of risk of a poor experience would be increased when
trying a new destination, while it would be minimized when returning to a known destination.
Therefore, risk aversion may induce loyalty (Jones, Mothersbaugh and Beatty, 2000). In addition, the perceived value of a service is pertaining to the benefits customers believe they receive relative to the costs associated with its consumption (McDougal and Levesque, 2000). Heskett, Sasser and Schlesinger (1997) stated that high perceived value is positively associated with satisfaction and loyalty. Boo, Busser and Baloglu (2009) and Chitty, Ward and Chua (2007) also found a positive relationship between perceived value and destination loyalty. Forgas-Coll, Palau-Saumell, Sanchez-Garcia and Callarisa-Fiol (2012) confirmed the hypotheses that perceived value has a direct positive influence on affective and conative loyalty of travelers towards a destination. Hence, the attitudinal element of loyalty is as important to the research on destination loyalty as the behavioral element. Besides, customer satisfaction is derived from a comparison between expectations and experience. It is viewed as a cognitive appraisal of the extent to which a product or service performs relative to a subjective standard (Williams, 1989). If the perceived performance is greater than the expectation, consumer satisfaction is derived and the consumer behavior is more likely to be repeated (Barsky, 1992; Madrigal, 1995). In contrast, if the perceived performance is lower than the expectation, dissatisfaction occurs. Thus, a high percentage of repeat travelers is an indicator of a high level of satisfaction (McDowall, 2010). Customer satisfaction was also found to significantly influence repeat purchases and word-of-mouth (Cronin and Taylor, 1992; Fornell, 1992; Halstead and Page, 1992). A satisfied traveler or tourist has a higher probability of choosing the destination again and is more likely to have positive word-of-mouth recommendation behavior. Proponents of the above arguments, thus, identified brand equity, quality, value and image as well as satisfaction, activity involvement, trust, risk perception and switching cost as factors that may influence loyalty either directly or indirectly (Bowen and Shoemaker, 2003; Chi and Qu, 2008; Yoon and Uysal, 2005). Others identified social (Morais, Kerstetter and Yarnal, 2006) or demographic (Homburg and Giering, 2001) factors influencing loyalty, with the older visitors and those who are less adventuresome presumed to have the higher destination loyalty.

To define the degree of being destination loyal, according to Oppermann (1999), only one prior visit in the last five years is regarded as somewhat loyal; two or three visits in the last five years is considered loyal while having made four or five previous trips to the destination in the past five years is classified as very loyal. Oppermann (2000) in a study involving 139 questionnaires from a sample of New Zealand residents analyzed the travel decisions and travel patterns for the period 1985-1995 and found that 16 percent of the respondents could be considered as loyal or very loyal (4 and 5 visits for the loyal category and more than 6 visits for the very loyal category) whilst 41 percent were repeat visitors. There were significant differences between the loyalty types when analyzing if the respondents visited Australia (the target loyalty destination) in 1995 (the last year of the study) and the visits in the previous 10 year interval (1985-1994) and 5 year interval (1990-1994), with the higher percentages of visits in 1995 corresponding to the highest loyalty categories, and also predicting higher future visitation rates for those categories. Niininen, Szivas, and Riley (2004) found a much higher loyalty rate in their study of English tourists, with 59% visiting selected destinations 3 or more times in a 5-year period and 16% visiting every year. The results were described as measuring loyalty based on actual repurchase. With the identification of their visitors, destinations might position themselves to specific segments (Oppermann, 2000:83). More recently, Anastassova (2011) classified tourists loyalty as (1) high loyalty; (2) moderate loyalty; (3) prospective loyalty; (4) first time travelers. Croes, Shani and Walls (2010) compared loyalty in three loyalty segments: (1) no previous visit; (2) one previous visit; (3) multiple visits, with results
showing a higher spending level of first timers and different spending patterns of travelers in the first and on subsequent visits.

The research interest in destination loyalty results from the perception that loyalty travelers are, due to the high economic costs of attracting new travelers and the time required in the conquest of new markets, more profitable to organizations, with an additional value of consistency and an element of equilibrium against uncertainty and market fluctuations. Oppermann (2000) however, notes the absence of longitudinal long term studies on destination choice behavior research and argues that it should essentially look at lifelong visitation behavior of travelers rather than just at a cross-sectional perspective in which today's visitation is completely unrelated to previous visitation or, in a more general perspective, to previous experience per se. An additional argument about the obscure effect of destination loyalty on future behavior is discussed by Prayag (2008). Nevertheless, tourist loyalty still remains an important indicator of successful destination development.

3. DESTINATION PERCEPTION AND DESTINATION IMAGE

The business of tourism is "a business of selling memorable experiences" 
McDowall (2010:24)

"A key problem for many of the low-volume destinations has been the lack of perceived value."
Choy (1992:31)

Tourism has been stressed as a generator of economic development for destinations (Chen, Tsai, 2006). Hence, the concept of tourist destination image has become a very relevant topic of research as many tourists are attracted by specific destinations. The consistent annual increase in the numbers of international arrivals can be understood as an indicator of the attractiveness of a travel destination (McDowall, 2010). Images form the basis of the evaluation or destination selection process (Goodall, 1992). Tourism images play an important role in potential tourist's decision-making process and are also significant in how they affect the level of satisfaction with the tourist experience, which is critical in terms of encouraging positive word-of-mouth recommendations and return visits to the destination.

Baloglu and McCleary (1999:870) defined the concept of destination image as 'an individual's mental representation of knowledge, feelings, and global impressions about a destination.' Kim and Richardson (2003:218) defined it as 'the totality of impressions, beliefs, ideas, expectations, and feelings accumulated towards a place over time.' Tasci, Gartner and Cavusgil (2007:200) suggested that 'destination image is an interactive system of thoughts, opinions, feelings, visualizations, and intentions toward a destination.' Echtner and Ritchie (1991) stated that destination image comprises of attribute, holistic, functional, psychological, common, and unique components.

Destination images are a function of organic sources such as visitation and word-of-mouth recommendations from others, and induced sources such as brand positioning by the Destination Management Organization (DMO) and the activities of travel intermediaries (Gartner, 1993). The main sources of destination image include the opinions of others (e.g., friends, family), media (e.g., TV, magazines, newspapers), and promotion and advertising (Govers, Go and Kumar, 2007). Baloglu and McCleary (1999) and Gartner (1993) considered destination image as a construct formed by the reasoned (cognitive image) and emotional (affective image) interpretation of the visitor. The cognitive image refers to the perceptual-cognitive evaluations and is based on the beliefs and knowledge that individuals have about the attributes of the place, and the affective
image refers to the affective evaluations and is based on the feelings toward the destination. The combination of these two dimensions pertains to a global image and a positive or negative personal evaluation of a destination, and is a much clearer, more specific, and objective vision of it (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999). In Gunn's theory (Gunn, 1988a, 1988b), images are formed in different ways, at organic, induced and modified-induced levels. Organic images are those that arise from supposedly unbiased sources such as books, school, television documentaries, and the experiences of friends and family. Induced images are those that arise from the destination area itself and are derived from marketing and promotional materials. Although little can be done to influence organic images, marketers can induce an image through promotion efforts. Modified-induced images are the result of the personal experience of the destination. The more the travel experience or pre-visit image has been confirmed, the more confident the visitor is of potential satisfaction when he or she considers repeating the experience. In fact, an image is generally very resistant to change if it is pleasant or meets the visitor's expectations (Gunn, 1988a). Since images are slow to change, regular monitoring of traveler images becomes important (Gunn, 1988b), as the favorable decision towards a destination and the tourist loyalty depends on the quality, satisfaction level, and positive image (Correia and Miranda, 2008).

According to Prayag (2008), destination image influences travel decisions and behaviors before and after the first direct contact with the destination. Chon (1990) postulated that a traveler's buying behavior can be explained through a framework of imagery change during travel experience. A positive image and positive travel experience will result in a moderately positively evaluation of a destination (positive congruity). A negative image and positive experience will result in a highly positive evaluation of a destination (positive incongruity). A positive image and negative experience will produce the most negative evaluation of a destination (negative incongruity). This model illustrates the importance of ensuring the compatibility of the image and the experience of the destination. According to Sussmann and Unel (1999), the conclusion of the evaluation process will greatly reinforce or modify the destination image. Thus, the modified post-visitation image will determine whether the same destination will be considered for future purchase, and for recommendation to friends and family.

A destination is also a perceptual concept (Buhalis, 2000), therefore linked to perceived value, and the perception of the performance of destination image indicators influences destination loyalty (Kozak, 2003), being supported by research findings (Prayag, 2008; Chi and Qu, 2008; Castro, Armario and Ruiz, 2007; Chen and Tsai, 2006; Lee, Lee and Lee, 2005; Bigne, Sanchez and Sanchez, 2001; Kozak and Rimmington, 2000). It is believed that understanding the process of forming the destination image can help to improve its attractiveness and competitiveness. A potential tourist will take the decision to choose the destination only when the positive image exceeds the negative perception (Milman and Pizam, 1995). In other words, destinations with a stronger and more positive image have a higher probability to be considered and chosen in the decision process (Pearce, 1982). A number of research studies revealed that previous travel experience with a destination is likely to influence the perceived destination image and future behavior (Baloglu and Mangaloglu, 2001; Chon, 1991; Echtner and Ritchie, 1993). Past visitors have more positive images of a destination than non-visitors (Fayeke and Crompton, 1991), thus suggesting a relationship between previous experiences and consumer satisfaction and loyalty as indicated by revisit intention and word-of-mouth (Oppermann, 2000; Petrick and Sirakaya, 2004). Similarly, Oppermann (2000) explored New Zealanders' travel patterns and found a close relationship between past travel, positive image, and repeat behavior. Therefore, images have an
influence on destination positioning and ultimately on tourist buying behavior (Govers, Go and Kumar, 2007). In particular, destination image is a crucial element in the tourist's loyalty (Bigne, Sanchez and Sanchez, 2001) and on future behavioral intentions (Prayag, 2009).

As stated earlier, loyalty can be measured using feelings and attitudes in the form of preference, liking, motivation, trust, or behavioral patterns such as actual repeat business and positive word-of-mouth (Jacoby and Chestnut, 1978; Backman and Crompton, 1991b; Pritchard, and Howard, 1997). The two behavioral measures considered as common indicators of destination loyalty (Gartner and Hunt, 1987; Li and Petrick, 2008): (1) repeat destination visitation (the number of visits to the destination per period of time); and (2) destination recommendation (the number of recommendations to visit), are discussed next.

As defined by Oppermann (1999), repeat visitors could include someone who returns to the same destination often in the same year or someone who visited once perhaps many decades ago. Thus, repeaters are not time bound especially for long-haul destinations (McKercher, 2008), which take into account visitors' airfare costs, travel time, and their confidence during periods of political instability, economic uncertainty, and terrorism activities. Repeat travel may be less likely even when the destination fulfills the tourists' expectations. This suggests it is insufficient to consider destination loyalty as an important factor in international travel as empirical research results show that only 10 percent to 33 percent of the medium to long haul markets of a destination are repeat travelers, in contrast to the dominant 67 percent to 90 percent of first-time arrivals (McKercher and Guillet, 2011). Conversely, the proportion of first-time visitors seems to be directly related with the distance (McKercher and Guillet, 2011) and therefore the lower the distance between the origin market of the travelers and the destination, the higher should be the destination loyalty and the repeat travel patterns.

Risk aversion may influence loyalty (Jones, Mothersbaugh and Beatty, 2000; referred by McKercher and Guillet, 2011), and Gitelson and Crompton (1984) identified five reasons why people undertake repeat visits in which two are related to risk reduction. Fuchs and Reichel (2011) suggest that repeat visits and destination loyalty can be compared to the wider concept of product familiarity, increasing customer confidence by reducing the risks and influencing the consumer behavior pattern by reinforcing the probability of future purchases. They compared first-time visitors and repeat visitors risk perception in a highly volatile or chronically high risk destination, finding significant differences in the dominant risk dimensions, with the risk perception of first-time visitors directed to human induced risks, socio-psychological risks, food safety and weather; and the repeat visitors risk perception directed to financial risks, service quality risks, and risks associated to natural disasters and car accidents. Ryan (1995) suggested that the high loyalty segment is consistent with theories of risk aversion and the importance of past satisfactory holiday experiences in determining destination choice. Research demonstrated that past travel experience to some destinations would increase the intention to travel there again (Mazursky, 1989; Perdue, 1985; Sonmez and Graefe, 1998). It is believed that once travelers have visited a destination, it is more likely to be perceived as less risky and more safe if choosing it again in the future. Tourists would revisit places without in depth information searches for other places if the previous visit proved to be satisfactory (Oppermann, 1998; Crotts, 1999). Hence, willingness to repeat visit to a destination is a useful variable in determining the profitable visitor segments (Gitelson and Crompton, 1984; Moutinho, 1987; Oppermann, 1997) as well as in assessing tourists' destination loyalty (Oppermann, 1998).
Destination recommendation intention refers to the likelihood of a person recommending a place to others for a trip. Recommendations are viewed as an important type of information potentially considered by consumers during the decision-making process (Howard, 1963; Peter and Olson, 1993). Um and Crompton (1990) found that evaluation of the perceived destination product attributes are often formed by external factors such as friends and relatives' recommendations or word-of-mouth. Similarly, Baloglu and McCleary (1999) noted that pleasant experience for the tourists of a place can be taken as a reliable information source for other potential tourists and can have a major impact on the development of positive images for non-visitors. Oliver and Swan (1989) found that as satisfaction increased, word-of-mouth activity increased. Eventually, a satisfied tourist will have a higher probability of choosing the destination again and he or she is more likely to engage in positive word-of-mouth behavior (Kotler, Haider and Rein, 1994).

Finally, it is crucial for destination managers and destination management organizations to have a better understanding and acquire more knowledge on repeater market segments so as to accommodate their requirements, demands and desires more effectively and efficiently when devising marketing strategies (Oppermann, 2000). Product attributes of a destination must be attractive to increase the repeat visiting behavior of the tourists and their recommendations to others (Ashworth and Voogt, 1990; Pritchard and Howard, 1997), and Oppermann (1998) highlighted that more attention should be given to repeat visitation, especially multiple-repeat visitation patterns, in the tourism literature. The present study will focus on the behavioral dimension of loyalty to investigate the perceived destination image of Macau and the travelers behavioral intentions related to future travel decisions, repeat visitation behaviors and destination recommendation behaviors.

4. METHOD

A sample of 240 travelers was interviewed in Macau SAR, PR China during the first quarter of 2012. The interviews were carried out at the city centre, tourist attractions and travel entry points. The interviews' distribution by locations was the following: (1) Macau Airport, 50; (2) A-Ma Temple, 30; (3) China Border Gate, 40; (4) Senado Square, 30; (5) Taipa, 50; (5) Macau Ferry Terminal, 40. The gender distribution was of 57 percent of female to 43 percent of male respondents. The dominant age categories were 25-34 with 33 percent and 35-44 with 35 percent, with an even percentage distribution on the adjacent categories (15-24, 15 percent and 45-54, 14 percent). The first place of residence of the respondents was Mainland China (50 percent), followed by Hong Kong (35 percent) and Taiwan (10 percent). Other places of residence included Singapore, Thailand, Malaysia and the Philippines, all with 2 percent or less of the sample each.

The questionnaire structure included the demographic information and the technical data about the data collection presented above in this section, followed by a small group of 6 questions on the travel and loyalty behavior, and travel and loyalty intentions (including the respondent travel and loyalty intentions and the respondent recommendations to others to visit Macau). The third section of the questionnaire included a 1-5 rating scale over the current image and perception of the travelers on 19 items related to the travel experience expectations or direct experience, with lower scores reflecting a negative image or perception and higher scores a positive image or perception of the destination.

The questionnaire was bilingual (Chinese/English), and the interviewers' fluency in both languages was adequate to the survey requirements. A residual number of answers in the questionnaires were
considered blank answers. As the number of these answers was minimal the results will all be presented by reference to the total sample.

5. RESULTS

A dominant percentage of the travelers interviewed was not visiting Macau for the first time (f=179, 75 percent) and on average visited Macau more than two times in the last 12 months. Only one in four of the respondents was a first time visitor (f=61, 25 percent).

The number of travelers intending to visit Macau again was extremely high (f=225, 94 percent), with only a small number not intending to return (f=14, 6 percent). Although there was a high variation in the answers the travelers intending to return intended to do so on average around six months later (M=6.5, SD=5.7).

A large number of the respondents would recommend traveling to Macau (f=211, 88 percent). Most of these would recommend a Macau visit to 1 to 5 persons (f=145, 60 percent), followed by a recommendation to 6 to 10 persons (f=48, 20 percent); 11 to 15 persons (f=8, 3 percent) and over 15 persons (f=9, 4 percent). Close to one in each ten respondents would not recommend a visit to others (f=28, 12 percent).

Table 1. Destination image attributes' means, standard deviations, item-scale correlations and reliability and internal consistency statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destination image attributes</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Item-total correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach Alpha if deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Casinos and casino resorts</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Monuments and historical heritage</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Festivals and events</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Travelers' safety and security</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Restaurants and local cuisine</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Entertainment and nightlife</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Urban and natural landscape</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Shopping</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Urban infrastructure and city transports</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Air, noise and city pollution</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Hotels</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Weather and climate</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Access to Macau: Travel price</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Access to Macau: Travel time</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Arrival terminals and immigration procedures</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Average standards and quality of services</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Macau citizens' hospitality</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Macau reputation and international image</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Your personal overall image of Macau</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The destination image attributes' scale included 17 specific items and 2 general items at the end. A significant effect of the specific destination image attributes is expected on the general perception of the destination reputation and international image and on the personal overall image of the destination. The means and standard deviations of the destination image attributes are presented in Table 1.

The Cronbach Alpha calculated for the 19 items was .90, supporting the reliability and internal consistency of the scale. The detailed item results for item-total correlation and Cronbach Alpha if deleted are also presented in Table 1.

The original theoretic factor structure of the scale would group a primary factor including attractors (items 1 to 3 and 5 to 8) and a secondary factor including general conditions of the destination (items 4 and 9 to 17). The last two items (item 18 and 19) are considered complex items and serve as a final evaluation of the destination in a more generalized and a more personal perspective, respectively.

The statistical factor analysis isolated four factors with eigenvalues higher than 1. The four factors explain 57 percent of the total variance. The first factor alone explains 37 percent of the total variance (the first factor would be the only factor selected if considering only the scree plot analysis, supported by the factor distribution plot). The factor distribution plot was not conclusive as all the items were too close to define factors. In that way we suggest that the theoretic factor structure serves as the initial reference to analyze the results and consider a 1-7 rating scale for future surveys to find if the wider rating range generates sufficient variation to differentiate the factors.

The regression results analyzed for item 18 as a dependent variable of the effect of items 1 to 17 as predictors indicate a R coefficient of .72 and ANOVA sum of squares of 61.4, df=17, F=13.6, p<.01. The regression results analyzed for the item 19 as a dependent variable of the effect of items 1 to 17 as predictors are very similar, with a R coefficient of .72 and ANOVA sum of squares of 59.2, df=17, F=12.9, p<.01. These results confirm the expected effect of the specific destination attributes on the general perception of the destination reputation and international image and on the personal overall image of the destination.

The Pearson correlation between the last two items was of r=.62, p<.01, confirming the theoretically expected consistency between the two complex items, the 'Personal overall image of Macau' and the 'Macau reputation and international image.'

The regression results also show a significant effect, although not very strong, of the 'Personal overall image of Macau' on the number of visits in the past year, R=.23, F(1,173)=9.52, p<.01.

The attributes' ranking presented in Table 2 contributes to a more expressive interpretation of the organization of the attractors, even if at this point such interpretation should not be considered conclusive due to the insufficient variation of the ratings confirmed by the undifferentiated medians.

The items 'Travelers safety and security', 'Hotels', 'Shopping', 'Restaurants and local cuisine', and 'Monuments and historical heritage', with the upper quartile positioned in the highest score (5) show the items receiving the highest ratings which could be considered as the strengths of the destination under a strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) model approach. These items also exhibited the higher means and in the first three the lower quartile was positioned on the second highest score (4), showing a clearly positive perception.
Table 2. Destination image attributes' median and lower and upper quartiles ordered by descending means

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destination image attributes</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Lower quartile</th>
<th>Upper quartile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Travelers' safety and security</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotels</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurants and local cuisine</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your personal overall image of Macau</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monuments and historical heritage</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macau reputation and international image</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average standards and quality of services</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macau citizens' hospitality</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to Macau: Travel time</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to Macau: Travel price</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban and natural landscape</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Festivals and events</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment and nightlife</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weather and climate</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casinos and casino resorts</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arrival terminals and immigration procedures</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban infrastructure and city transports</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air, noise and city pollution</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The three items with the lowest ratings: 'Arrival terminals and immigration procedures', 'Urban infrastructure and city transports', and 'Air, noise and city pollution'; are items that could be identified as destination weaknesses and for which there are already some government actions (e.g. the evolution of the land, sea and air terminals and the immigration procedures in planning phase, and the new light railway system already in the execution phase).

The two general items 'Personal overall image of Macau', and 'Macau reputation and international image' were positioned within the higher ratings and should be considered positive.

6. DISCUSSION

As there is still limited research on destination loyalty this study aims to present some results that may contribute to the further understanding of the nature of destination loyalty and the influence of loyalty to the prediction of travelers and tourists future patterns of decision and behaviors and to the forecast of future arrivals and occupation rates.

The study provides an overview of travelers' perception of Macau and their loyalty to the destination in behavioral measures (repeat visitation and recommendation to visit). The results show that travelers to Macau generally have a positive destination image, though some attributes received a comparatively lower rating. In terms of loyalty, the majority of the travelers interviewed were repeat visitors and had on average visited Macau more than two times in the last 12 months. Almost
all intended to return around six months later and most were willing to recommend others a visit to Macau. The results seem to be consistent with other studies (Pearce, 1982; Milman, Pizam, 1995; Kozak, 2003), suggesting that travelers revisit a destination and intend to return again in the near future following the positive perception and previous or current experiences during their visits, in line with Chon (1990) and Prayag (2008) argument that visitors' travel decision and behavior can be influenced by destination image.

Other factors influencing the destination loyalty behavior must be considered, and one of these factors is the access or proximity convenience factor. The results shows that the majority of the respondents are Mainland China and Hong Kong visitors (reflecting the official percentages for the total visitors origin markets). The high percentages of Mainland visitors are largely due to the eased travel restrictions for China citizens that generalized the visits to Macau and Hong Kong on an individual visa since 2003. Cultural and language proximity contribute to the comfort of the travel experience. The travel access time and price are also favorable as, traveling from most Mainland cities, Macau can be reached by road or by air in a few hours (additionally, flights to and from Hong Kong benefit from a direct ferry one-hour connection to Macau from the airport ferry terminal with a one stop check in and luggage transfer for passenger convenience). From Hong Kong city centre, visitors can travel to Macau in just one-hour ferry ride, or even in a flash fifteen minutes by regular helicopter service (daily flights every 30 minutes from 0930 to 2300).

The positive perception of the image attributes 'Travelers safety and security', 'Hotels', 'Shopping', and 'Restaurants and local cuisine' reflects the recent rapid development of Macau with new hotel resorts, Michelin rated and international restaurants, and shopping malls with top brand exclusive outlets. These places are marked as attraction sites in Macau trip itineraries and possibly become primary reasons of visits to Macau, and a contributing factor to the recommendation behavior. After a visit to Macau, having been to tourist attractions, visited casino resorts, shopped at brand outlets and tried the local cuisine, the travelers will act as an information source when they later review their trip with others, especially those who have not been to Macau, to introduce them to what they have seen, eaten, bought and experienced.

The paper aims to contribute to the study of the destination loyalty behavioral aspects and the results show both positive destination image and loyalty, and some influence of the destination image on the loyalty behavioral indicators. A more positive destination image is expected to lead to more repeat visits and a higher intention to return and to recommend the place, especially to non-visitors. The identification of positive and negative destination perceptions provides information to destination planners and marketers about the importance of maintaining the identified destination strengths and devising appropriate strategies to improve those destination image attributes viewed as weaknesses.

The current study statistical factor analysis on the destination image attributes is not conclusive as all items were too close to define factors. The rating scale measurement is to be revised to a 1-7 or even 1-10 rating to find if with a wider rating range the variation will be sufficient for factor differentiation.

As this survey only included visitors to Macau, the results may not be completely generalizable. Similar studies in other destinations are suggested and will surely contribute to assess the external validity of the findings. In the future, with a larger sample size, we intend to further investigate if significant differences on the image perceptions and behavioral loyalty dimensions exist between repeat and first-time visitors to Macau. The travelers' origin markets could be another factor to
consider if differences on these measures emerge. In future research the travelers' source of image formation will also be explored to understand their organic (e.g., books), induced (e.g., destination promotion) and modified-induced (e.g., personal experience) images of Macau. The knowledge would be important to destination planners and hotel and restaurant marketers to understand which information sources exert the dominant influence on the travelers' decision process to visit Macau, suggesting targets to deploy the marketing resources more effectively and efficiently when conducting promotional activities. Finally, it is suggested to conduct a longitudinal study on a continuing basis to analyze if the visitors image perception of Macau and their degree of behavioral loyalty change overtime.

References


Russia's 'Security' Policy: Understanding the Change or Continuity

Abstract:
Russia is constantly defining and redefining its interests, be it economic, energy or military. Of all these interests the most important and primary interest, whose definition has not changed and which occupies the first priority in Russia’s foreign policy is, safeguarding national integrity and sovereignty.

1. Overview
Russia is the world’s largest country which is said to cover twice the territory of Canada, the second largest country in the world. Its total area in sq. km is 17,098,200 (Seventeen million ninety-eight thousand two hundred). Its huge landmass extends across the whole of northern Asia, spans across nine time zones and incorporates great range of environments and landforms from deserts to deep forests. Though its climate is harsh and has often saved Russia from invasion by foreign powers in the past, however it is devoid of any natural barriers.

After the disintegration of Soviet Union (former Union of Soviet Socialist Republics) in December 1991, and the fall of the once mighty Red Army led to the country’s frontiers being pushed back farther than it were earlier since the 17th century. Russia was no longer feared and hence not accorded the respect given to the major powers. Its objections were ignored as NATO moved to take in its closest neighbours (Britannica 2013). In this background security became a major concern for Russia.

In the first half of 1990s national security policy under Yeltsin mainly displayed a pro western stance and considered the non-military, internal socio-economic situation as Russia’s biggest threat. It focused on international cooperation. However in the second half of 1990s, following armed conflicts in Chechnya, heavy criticism from the West and NATO’s advancement towards Russia’s neighbor countries despite of its objections, led to a drastic shift in the Security policy of Russian Federation. In addition to this a longing for regaining the superpower status led Russia to emphasise on cooperation within CIS (Commonwealth of Independent States) unlike its earlier emphasis on international cooperation. Advancement of NATO posed threat to Russia as it started playing a predominant role in international security, dictating terms to other nations through the use of military force (NATO 1999: 14 as quoted in Mishra 2007: 216). This led to a shift towards an anti-western stance. Pragmatic thinking became the trend among the Russian leadership by the end of 1990s. Finally in the NSC draft of 1999 and 2000 (under President Putin) these external development and internal problems were reflected and this aimed at placing authority on the centre with power being in the hands of the President of Russia who would ultimately have the right to take the final decision in guaranteeing national security (Mishra 2007: 215-216). Russia realized that national interest is of primary importance and the goal of the national security is to protect these interests.
This paper has been divided into five sections. First the concept of ‘security’ in general would be noted. This would be followed by what security means in Russia. After which the security policy since 1991 to present shall be discussed following which the change or continuity would be looked into finally providing the conclusion to the article.

2. What is ‘security’?
Understanding of World Politics, International Relations and Foreign Policy has been essentially an understanding of power, survival and the wherewithal which provides a state with ‘security’ which ensures that the state has the means to counter external (as well as internal) threat to its cherished values and existence. Though ‘security’ is essentially a contested concept yet in general from the above understanding it follows that, security is alleviation of threat to certain cherished values which if left unchecked would be a threat to survival itself (Williams, 2008).

3. ‘Security’ in Russia
According to the 1992 ‘Russian Federal Law on Security’, ‘security’ means ‘a condition of protectability of vital interests of an individual, the society and the state from external and internal threats’. The law was updated in 2010 but did not change this definition (European Union 2012: 6). This definition would be better understood from the following understanding of the development of security policy of Russia under the following heads.

4. Security Policy of Russia
Russia’s security policy is defined as “actions by organs of state power, (lower) government agencies, social and other organizations directed at safeguarding national interests against foreign and domestic threats. These actions consist of predicting and identifying threats, determining tasks to secure national interests; improving forces, means and the system of guaranteeing national security, and finally, mobilizing resources and determining the order of using them” (Manilov 2000: 232-233, 39, 310 and 165 as quoted in Haas 2003: 3).

Immediately after the disintegration of the Soviet Union in 1991 the predominant view amongst the military and political leadership of the emergent Russia was that, the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) would eventually under the leadership of Russia become a powerful organization like former Soviet Union. However, this was not to be since the CIS states decided to have their own course of action and developed their own security policies. Unlike Soviet Union’s reliance on Marxist and Leninist ideology for providing theoretical foundation for security strategy, the Russian federation had to develop its own security policy (Mishra 2007: 215).

Sergei Rogov, Deputy Director of the Institution for American and Russian studies of the Russian Academy of Sciences in 1992 argued for having a security policy, as differences with Ukraine on nuclear arms, Crimea on energy deliveries, was beginning to emerge. It is said that, there was an urgent need to establish a mechanism for military-political decision making.

Yeltsin who took power of the new Russia leadership and his government were not sure of the direction of Russia’s security policy mainly because of lack of clarity and indecision. On March 5, 1992 a decree on National Security was issued and Security Council of the Russian Federation (SCRF) was established to deal with internal and external security matters. It was in order to develop a security strategy that the National Security Council was formed. In May 1992, Colonel-General Igor Rodinov, Head of the General Staff of Academy placed an alternative to the military
doctrine that was published earlier that month. This was however rejected by most members at the head of the military. Yevgeny Shaposhnikov, Marshal of Aviation who served as Secretary of SCRF said that the doctrine was premature. The general view was that first a national security concept should be developed that would include national interests and threats against national security and only after these other subordinate documents related to the concept like military, foreign policy doctrine could be drafted (Dick 1994 as quoted in Mishra 2007: 214).

Russia in 1992 described its National Security Concept (NSC) as the highest security document, though NSC was published after five and a half years (Mishra 2007: 213). There was an atmosphere of indecision and lack of clarity among the leaders of the Russian Federation immediately after the breakdown of the Soviet Union. This is stated to be the reason behind the non-development of the National Security Concept which was proposed in a draft military doctrine for CIS in February 1992 (Klimenko 1992: 16 as quoted in Haas 2003: 3) until 1997, though the military doctrine was derived from the NSC. The aim of NSC was to safeguard national interests against external and internal threats. This consists of not just military threat but also political, economic, social and environmental threats (Mishra 2007: 213).

Below, security policy under three Presidents since 1991 has been discussed in order to understand the change or continuity and the direction of the security policy of Post Soviet Russia. This would provide the readers with a clear picture of the security documents signed and the threat perception that led to these documents would also be analysed since it is threat perception that gives primacy to security issues in the Russian Federation.


Table 1.1 Chronology of Yeltsin’s major security documents (1991-1999) (Haas 2010: 6).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Policy Document</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>May 1992</td>
<td>Draft RF Military Doctrine published</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April 1993</td>
<td>Foreign Policy Concept ratified by presidential decree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 November 1993</td>
<td>Military Doctrine ratified by presidential decree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 December 1997</td>
<td>National Security Concept ratified by presidential decree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29 September 1999</td>
<td>Draft Military Doctrine accepted by the MOD Collegium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 October 1999</td>
<td>Draft National Security Concept accepted by the SCRF</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When Security Council was established in 1992, it was feared that Yeltsin was trying to recreate the old centralized Soviet decisionmaking system dominated by the Politburo and the Central Committee which would provide Security Council with too much power. This in reality proved just the opposite. Security Council proved to be ineffective in coordinating security policy and providing Yeltsin with concrete policy options (Larrabee and Karasik 1997: vii).

During Yeltsin’s first term there was increased rivalry between the Defense Ministry and Foreign Ministry especially with regard to policy toward NATO enlargement due to lack of clear demarcation in the foreign and security field of Russia. Sometimes Defence Ministry was seen conducting quasi-independent policy by often bypassing the Foreign Ministry. However, relations between these two organs of state were smoother under Defence Minister (July 1996) Igor
Rodionov than under his predecessor Pavel Grachev. Rodionov focused more on military and defence issues. Rodionov was a very strong advocate of military reform and played a prominent role in writing Russia’s new military doctrine. The blueprint of the military reform was broadly approved at the first meeting of Defence Council on October, 1996. Under this reform the goal was to create a smaller, more flexible and more highly mobile forces, because of which a reduction in the size of the Russian Armed Forces to 1.2 million men was proposed (Larrabee and Karasik 1997: viii).

Defence Council which was established in July 1996 emerged as a key bureaucratic mechanism for the formulation and coordination of defence policy and military reform. Defence Council provided the President with advice regarding important decisions on military policy. This apparatus eclipsed the Security Council which was mainly focused with internal security aspects and Chechnya.

With the appointment of Yevgeni Primakov as foreign minister in January 1996 there were marked improvements in the foreign policy of RF. Primakov was much more effective compared to his predecessor Andrei Kozyrev. Under Primakov Russian Foreign Ministry regained some of its lost influence and control over its foreign policy and also started to show consistency and coherence which it lacked under Kozyrev (Larrabee and Karasik 1997: ix).

Though Yeltsin had legal authority over foreign and security policy, however he was unable to exercise that authority effectively. He has been criticized for failing to set up a well-organized and efficient system for foreign and security policy decisionmaking. During the first half of his tenure several “alternative power structures” emerged within the government and presidential bureaucracy actively competed with one another for shaping the foreign and security policy thus creating difficulties for the foreign ministry to conduct a clear and consistent policy in world affairs. It was only during his second term that Yeltsin took steps towards developing the foreign and security policy (Larrabee and Karasik 1997: 2-3). Three crucial security documents, namely, National Security Concept (NSC), Foreign Policy Concept (FPC) and a Military Doctrine were generated in the late 1990s under Yeltsin, thus showing to the world that Russia was a crucial actor in the international arena in general and in the CIS in particular. Moreover although the doctrinal development made the Military doctrine seem to be on the defensive, in reality, it was more on the offensive side and considered it as a leading form of combat. It was during this time that Russian doctrines began to specify the ‘encirclement syndrome’ similar to that under the Soviet Union which considered threat from hostile capitalist states and considered them to be surrounded by these states.

Although, the Marxist-Leninist ideology was officially abandoned, yet certain features were seen in the 1990s security documents. Continuation in some form, of the previous ideological principles were considered to demonstrate continuation of traditional Russian (tsarist) characteristics. Thus, as aptly put by Haas (2010: 5) tsarist, Soviet and the Russian Federation security thinking were quite akin, despite of having different state building systems.

The shift in position was made official by President Putin when he ratified the final draft of the NSC on 10 January 2000. In this revised draft under the leadership of Putin for the first time after the disintegration of Soviet Union, there was a strong emphasis on military power and anti-western policies.

Putin started his first term in office as President in 2000 and immediately adopted three major security documents; the National Security Concept, the Foreign Policy Concept and the Military
Doctrine. Russian Ministry of Defence published a defence white paper (DWP) in 2003. It was at the end of Putin’s second presidential term that these new security policy documents were published (Haas 2010: 15). These documents were standard modern documents of post-Cold War era, these preceded the 9/11 attack and were already elaborated during the Yeltsin period. Thus, with the change in circumstances there was a need to renew these documents which was ultimately done in late 2003.


Table 1.2 Chronology of Putin’s major security documents and statements (2000-2008) (Haas 2010: 6).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Policy Document</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10 January 2000</td>
<td>National Security Concept ratified by presidential decree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 April 2000</td>
<td>Military Doctrine ratified by presidential decree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28 June 2000</td>
<td>Foreign Policy Concept ratified by presidential decree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 October 2003</td>
<td>MoD publication ‘The priority tasks of the development of the Armed Forces of the Russian Federation’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 March 2007</td>
<td>MFA publication ‘Review of foreign policy of the Russian Federation’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 February 2008</td>
<td>Speech by President Putin on ‘Strategy for the development of Russia until 2020’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On October 2, 2003 the defence leadership held a so-called enlarged meeting along with president Putin following which they made public a document which for the first time presented Russia’s security perspective in an extreme open and detailed manner which was partially a continuation and partially a change from the previous security documents (Poti 2008: 29-30). This 73 page document was named “‘The priority tasks of the development of the Armed Forces of the Russian Federation’”. This doctrine not only explained military operations but also described military capabilities (MoD 2003). The document consisted of six chapters and numerous illustrations. However, the main points can be summed up as follows:

First, globalization has led to new threats, for instance, proliferation of weapons of mass destruction, international terrorism, drug-trafficking, etc. Military force is being applied outside the traditional military-political alliances. Ad-hoc coalitions have increased in importance and economic goals are often causes of war. Non-state actors are playing greater role in formulating world politics and foreign policies of individual countries.

Second, regions considered as belonging to Russia’s natural interests from the point of view of national security were pointed out in this document which are; Europe, the Middle East, Central Asia and the Pacific. The documents interestingly states that Russia does not identify itself as a global power but is interested in regions smaller in scope.

Third, besides classification of threats as external and internal, this report introduces a new category ‘trans-border threats’ which the document states that by its form it is internal but by its substance (sources, instigators, executors) is external. For example, support groups aiming at overthrowing Russia’s constitutional order, hostile information activities, international drug trafficking etc.

Fourth, the main message of the report which has been formulated in different but consistent statements is the one which states that role of military as means of safeguarding security not only
remains but is growing. This document states that, to safeguard “the security of the Russian Federation by only political means (membership in international organizations, partnership ties, political influence) is more and more impossible”. This was the biggest change from the security document of 2000.

Fifth, with regard to nuclear weapons besides reiterating the points of the previous document which states that first-use of nuclear weapons is permissible under well-defined conditions, the new document further stated that the nuclear weapons could be used as a means of deterrence. This was guided by the circumstances since nuclear weapons are considered by more and more states as a usable kind of weapon and the threshold of the use of nuclear weapons has been lowered lately.

Sixth, the document though did not provide anything new regarding NATO, nonetheless it used unusual words for NATO. Besides briefly discussing the existing framework of cooperation between NATO and Russia it states that there are differences of opinion between two sides regarding two issues which are the Eastern enlargement of NATO and NATO’s involvement in military conflicts. The most controversial statement asserted that NATO should “take out the directly or indirectly anti-Russian components of its military planning”. This was not a return of rhetoric instead this was a blunt expression of how the lessons of the NATO air campaign against Yugoslavia made their way into the Russian security thinking.

Finally, it was stated that the reduction of the army has reached to a level where further reduction is not advisable. This meant that after reducing from 2.75 million men (1992) to 1.6 million (1996) no more reductions should take place beyond 1 million by 2005.

Thus, from above it follows that an increased likelihood of the use of military force, increased role played by nuclear weapons, decreased role of the main security institutions and legitimization of preventive strikes makes it inevitable for Russia to accept the new rules of the game and act accordingly. According to Laszlo Poti (2008: 32) “What we are witnessing is not a Russian return to cold war, or the beginning of a new assertive Russia, but rather the proliferation of the new post-bipolar security rules of the game and their adoption for use by Moscow. It is the essence of the Ivanov doctrine”.

Immediately after the Beslan hostage crisis of September 1-3, 2004 President Putin delivered a speech where he expressed the restoration of the lost international position of the Soviet Union to the maximum level possible and for the first time used a term which had a major impact on the formulation of security documents, namely, anti-Westernism (Putin 2004 as quoted in Poti 2008:32). This speech portrayed the change in attitude of Russia which had a major impact on its foreign and security policy documents.

2006 saw a major change in Russia’s policy structure. This brought about a qualitatively new phase in Russian foreign policy. There was a new Russian national ideology, new emphases of Russian global foreign policy and radical shift of the Russian-CIS policy.

Deputy prime minister and defense minister Sergei Ivanov made public the basis of the new Russian national ideology. This consists of three main components namely sovereign democracy, strong economy and robust military force. The term ‘Sovereign democracy’ was originally coined by Vladislav Surkov, main Kremlin ideologist in order to counter the Western term ‘managed democracy’ which was used to criticize Russian democracy. Sovereign democracy was not only a special Russian model of democracy but it also held that there is no political sovereignty without
economic sovereignty. Economic sovereignty according to Surkov meant integrating Russia into the world economy (Poti 2008: 40).

Russian global foreign policy emphasized upon five issues: new balance of power with the United States, new arms control talks with the United States, increased importance of military force, have Russia recognized as an energy superpower, finally, no compromise on territorial issues.

With regard to Russian CIS policy there was a radical shift in 2006 pertaining to the frozen conflicts in the region and pricing policy of energy. Putin stated that the frozen conflicts should be solved by referenda and at the ambassador’s conference in June 2006 proposed that the price of Russian energy delivered to the post-Soviet region which was much cheaper in comparison to the world market would now be subjected to the principles applied in world economy and trade.

Thus, from above it follows that Russia was now to be perceived as an evolving great power who was creating ever clearer identity, with an increasingly strong economic base, aware of its ambitions and asserting them more effectively (Poti 2008: 40-41).

The ‘Overview of Foreign Policy of the Russian Federation’ (OFP) prepared by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MFA) was approved by President Putin on 27 March 2007. The preparation of OFP was ordered by Putin in 2006 during his meeting with Russian ambassadors and permanent representatives. According to MFA, the OFP and its recommendations would serve as guidance for preparing foreign policy positions on different topics (MID 2007b as quoted in Haas 2010: 22). OFP stated that international position of Russia has considerably strengthened and it has regained its foreign policy independence. OFP warned that formation of an independent state of Kosovo would create instability in Europe. It stated that withdrawal of USA and NATO from Afghanistan would create threats of narcotics, terrorism, fundamentalism and cause destabilization. The role of Collective Security Treaty Organization (CSTO) and Shanghai Cooperation Organization (SCO) were distinguished in order to address these threats. OFP mentioned that Russia had put forward the CSTO as a counterpart for NATO in Afghanistan. Joint NATO-CSTO venture guarding the Tajik-Afghan border was also suggested. Millions of Russians living abroad were brought within the purview of OFP which mentioned pursuing active policy in protecting them and also encouraging them to resettle in Russia (Haas 2010: 22-23).

By the end of his second term, Putin on 8 February 2008 in a speech on ‘Russia’s Development Strategy towards 2020’ in the State Council meeting stated the deplorable condition of Russia when he assumed power and followed it with the improvements that occurred during his tenure. Considering his points of emphasis and his audience, the State Council, he mostly discussed domestic developments in his Strategy 2020. Only one out of ten pages of this statement dealt with military, security and other international aspects (Kremlin 2008a). The external security aspect of his speech revolved around NATO’s enlargement, Conventional Forces in Europe (CFE) Treaty, energy security, US deployment of troops in Eastern Europe and missile shield. The reply to these external threats was to be in the form of arms procurement and military reforms (Haas 2010:23).

The security documents published under Putin show the development of Russia’s security thought and policy between 2000 and 2008. These documents provide a number of consistent entries. Both NATO and the USA were perceived as threats to Russia’s national interest. There was also constant emphasis on CSTO and in 2003 document SCO was added. Russia in all its documents from 2000 to 2008 stressed on protecting Russian citizens living in it’s near abroad regions. The 2007 OFP document and 2008 Strategy 2020 emphasised on Russia’s return to powerful status in the
international arena which could no longer be ignored by other states. A new issue that was not included in the security documents of Putin’s first term from 2000 to 2003 documents was included only in the 2007 OFP and the Strategy 2020 document of 2008 included for the first time topics related to energy namely energy politics, energy diplomacy, reserves, conflicts and threat of force to obtain energy resources (Haas 2010: 34-35).


Table 1.3 Chronology of Medvedev’s major security documents and statements (2008-2012) (Haas 2010: 83)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Policy document</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12 July 2008</td>
<td>Foreign Policy Concept approved by RF President</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 August 2008</td>
<td>Statement by Medvedev on principles of foreign/security policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 September 2008</td>
<td>Principles of policy on the Arctic approved by RF President</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 May 2009</td>
<td>National Security Strategy until 2020 ratified by presidential decree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 February 2010</td>
<td>Military Doctrine of the Russian Federation through 2020</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Putin’s successor President Dmitry Medvedev immediately after taking office, published the ‘Foreign Policy Concept’, which was the first major security document that included policy statements made by Putin in 2007-2008 which remain the basic principles even today. It stressed on Russia’s role in international arena as a great power. It expressed the importance of spreading Russian influence abroad and protect rights and interests of Russian citizens in other countries. This was the first document that explicitly proposed changing the existing European security architecture by creating a regional collective security and cooperation system and by rejecting further expansion of NATO, especially in Ukraine and Georgia. The document argues that a key instrument for maintaining stability and security in CIS is the Collective Security Treaty Organization (CSTO), a Russian-led military alliance that includes Armenia, Belarus, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan and Uzbekistan. In this document energy issues were also given priority and the importance of Russia’s nuclear arsenals to its strategic nuclear deterrence was reconfirmed though it was mentioned that there is a need to negotiate reducing nuclear weapons reduction. The National Security Strategy of the Russian Federation to 2020 (NSS) that replaced the National Security Concepts of 1997 under Yeltsin and 2000 under Putin emphasized that the emerging system of international relations is multipolar, with Russia’s status equal to that of other great powers. A very important point of this document is Medvedev’s description of ‘Security Through Development’ by which Medvedev emphasized upon national security being dependant on Russia’s economic potential thereby underlining the importance of controlling national resources and maintaining social stability in the country. One of the economic goals listed in the NSS is for Russia to become the world’s fifth largest economy in terms of GDP. While Russia has neared this goal, the country remains outside the ‘top five’. This document was supplemented with the ‘Military Doctrine’ which emphasized on the military aspects of security and army reform. It states that although a major war has become less likely yet Russia’s security situation has not improved as there exists number of external military dangers. Of 11 dangers listed, 5 were related to NATO and the US: use of force without the approval of the United Nations Security Council (UNSC), expansion of NATO towards the east, deployment of troops near Russian borders, militarization of space and the violation or non-compliance with international security issues.
The document points to opportunities for cooperation and gives special importance to military cooperation with Belarus and the CSTO. Some threats are stated to require cooperating with western countries, such as threat of terrorism, situation in Afghanistan, proliferation of weapons of mass destruction and frozen conflicts in Russia’s neighbourhood. Russia is open to cooperation led by the UN on arms control, missile defence and peacekeeping operations. The doctrine increases the number of circumstances which would justify sending Russian troops abroad. For instance, Russian forces can be sent abroad following resolutions from the CIS or in order to protect Russian citizens abroad (European Union 2012).

Thus, security policy under Medvedev, emphasized on a multipolar world without any unilateral domination, especially by the USA. At the same time, Russia’s desire to cooperate and maintain friendly relations also with the West was pointed at. Every security scheme stated protection of Russians abroad. Finally, it was evident in some documents while concealed in others but Russia emphasized on having privileged interests in certain regions that were earlier under Soviet Union. The policy documents of Medvedev displayed a coherent approach to foreign security policy (Haas 2010:88).

8. Security Policy under Vladimir Vladimirovich Putin (May 2012-Present)

Table 1.4 Chronology of Putin’s major security documents and statements (2012 to present)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Policy document</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7 May 2012</td>
<td>Decree on the Measures to implement the Russian Federation Foreign Policy published by RF President</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 February 2013</td>
<td>Concept of the Foreign Policy of the Russian Federation approved by RF President</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Immediately after Putin assumed office on May 2012 after his re-election, he cancelled his participation in the G8 summit which was to be held at Camp David on May 18-19. He also cancelled his planned meeting with US President Barack Obama. In few days time President Putin issued a presidential decree where new measures for the Russian Federation were outlined (President of Russia 2012). This document published on 7 May 2012 highlights the key role given to the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS). It describes Moscow’s plans for the CIS that includes number of integration initiatives with an economic focus such as Free trade zone (as on 18 October 2011) and establishment of the Eurasian Economic Union (to be completed by 1 January 2015) were given priority. In an analysis of the roadmap it has been stated that perhaps political integration which is not mentioned in the decree is excluded from Moscow’s roadmap. The Russian-Belarus Union State is privileged while bilateral relations with other CIS countries are not mentioned (European Union 2012).

Interestingly, USA is mentioned almost at the end of the document, after the CIS, EU and the Asia-Pacific region. This is thought to be a response to the US strategic documents which reduced the level of priority given to Russia, during the last decade. Russia stated in its document that it would not accept “unilateral extraterritorial sanctions against Russian individuals and legal entities” by US and talks on Ballistic Missile Defence (BMD) system could only proceed as per Russian terms (President of Russia 2012 as quoted in European Union 2012).

In the context of Russia-EU relation, principle of equality and need for common benefits was emphasized. However, the relation is expected to continue within specific framework which is in
line with Russian interest such as visa facilitation, focus on equality in the new partnership agreement and in common energy partnership. This according to the experts mean that Russia is no longer willing to bargain for ‘imaginary benefits’ (Kolerov 2012 as quoted in European Union 2012).

Putin’s foreign policy decree includes principles which does not contain marked shift from the existing documents on Russian external policies. The shift is in terms of opposition to the West which during 2000 under Putin expressed clear antagonism has now turned to frank distrust which though occasionally is marked with elements of cooperation (European Union 2012).

On 12 February 2013, the Concept of the Foreign Policy of the Russian Federation was approved by President Putin (MID 2013) and published by Russia’s Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Preparation for the document was set in motion by Putin through his decree issued in May 2012 immediately after assuming office. According to some media sources a draft was submitted on early November which was delayed by Putin in order to make it more robust. The FPC fits into the wider framework of Russia’s strategic thinking and acknowledges the NSS 2020 document as well as the Military Doctrine. Although the document suggests that change in international circumstances calls for rethinking the national priorities, however ‘rethink’ does not mean ‘change substantially’ and there is a strong sense of continuity in the FPC (Monaghan 2013: 2-3). The FPC lists traditional grievances against the West, however, interestingly the FPC states reliance on “soft power” in international affairs (Institute of Modern Russia 2013). As before the FPC is structured in five main sections, namely, ‘general provisions’, ‘the modern world and Russian foreign policy’, ‘Russia’s priorities in resolving global problems’, ‘regional priorities’ and ‘formulation and implementation of Russian foreign policy’ (Monaghan 2013: 3). The document puts focus on the East and the Asia-Pacific region. Besides external threats and priorities, the document places focus on domestic threats as well and primary priority under current circumstances is placed on economy.

9. Change or Continuity

Under the Soviet rule for more than seventy years, its citizens were surrounded by the Marxist-Leninist views which determined the course of action as well as provided theoretical basis for its grand strategy. This theoretical thinking abruptly ended in 1991 after the breakup of the Soviet Union. Russia was now faced with two challenges in the field of security. There was suddenly lack of a school of thought and theoretical bases for policy making. The former was addressed by pragmatic thinking while for the latter the leading Russian circles came to a conclusion that a National Security Concept (NSC) would replace the earlier ideology. It was opined that from the NSC, the Foreign Policy Concept (FPC) and a Military Doctrine would be derived. However, since a very important section of the Russian military and political elite were educated in Soviet ideology, hence the thinking behind security aspect in the 1990s still showed signs of the Marxist-Leninist ideology. The NSC, FPC and the Military Doctrine showed that Russia like Soviet Union was eager to play a crucial role in the international arena in general and in the CIS in particular. Also, like Soviet Union’s revolutionary nature, Russia stressed on offensive form of combat. Although Russia presented its military doctrine as defensive but in practice it emphasized on offensive as the leading form of combat. Finally with regard to threat perception, Russia like former USSR is subject to ‘encirclement syndrome’ whereby it fears being surrounded by hostile powers (Haas 2010: 5).

From above, one thing is clear that Russia’s claim to superpower status like its predecessor (Soviet Union) is constant from Yeltsin to Putin. The shift is in coherence and clarity regarding national
interest. Under Yeltsin security policy was still developing, while it was under Putin mainly, that Russia got a strong security policy.

There has not been much change in the priorities over the years as NATO and the West remain the biggest threat and there is constant emphasis on military development. Nonetheless it was Putin under whom security policy of the Russian federation underwent a marked change which led the West look at Russia with skepticism and uncertainty. From Putin of 2000 to Putin of 2012 the priorities are almost same except for the fact that the vigour with which it would be addressed has strengthened and from anti-West its policy has now shifted to a complete distrust of the West.

10. Conclusion

As is evident from the foreign policy concept and the military doctrine that, there is constant focus on ‘security’ which establishes the claim that unlike other countries where foreign policy is considered the grand document from where security policy is derived, in Russia the National Security Concept which is the security policy of Russia has given rise to the FPC and the Military doctrine. Thus In case of Russia it is the National Security Concept which is the Security Policy from which military and foreign policies have been derived.

The security concept of Russia was mainly influenced by the traditional bureaucracy which included the military, security police and interior forces. It is interesting to see how this bureaucracy has used these issues of security to provide legitimization to its survival in the conditions of democracy. It is because of this reason that the official doctrine of Russian security is worked out and adopted within the narrow circle of trusted experts and approved by the President instead of making it a subject for public debates and parliamentary approval. The conclusions of these documents are influenced by the traditional Russian view of the outside world as a source of threat rather than a source of investment and assistance. Constant stress is laid on traditional Russian security mechanisms, namely, armed forces, security police and government’s control over business relations with the outside world. Interestingly, some modern Russian security experts like to quote Tsar Alexander III who in the 1880s said that ‘Russia has two trusted allies: its Army and its Navy’ (Kremenyuk 2004).

Though Marxist-Leninist thinking was officially abandoned, yet certain features of this were found in the Russian security thinking of 1990s. An interesting observation points to the fact that this Marxist-Leninist ideological principles on security consisted of features similar to the thinking of the traditional Russian (tsarist) characteristics. Therefore it can be said that the tsarist, Soviet and Russian Federation security thinking were very similar despite of having different state-building systems (Haas 2010: 5).

Thus we can see that Russia is constantly defining and redefining its interests. But the most primary and important interest whose definition has not changed and which occupies the first priority is safeguarding national integrity and sovereignty. It is for this reason that Russia’s leadership is constantly engaged in identifying the threats to Russia’s security interest and coping with the security challenges that the vast country faces. Russia is said to have shed its hegemonic tendencies but in the National Security Strategy the emphasis on Russia as a great power contradicts this view. Moreover though Russia puts emphasis on economic wellbeing but it is mainly to cater to its military establishment since it is the military that is the means to security of such a vast nation.
References


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Neck & LB Pains as Predictor of Psychological Stressors among UCAS Professional Workers

Abstract:

Background
Objectives. This study aims at realizing the prevalence of neck & LB pains among UCAS professional workers. It also investigates the level of psychological stressors that raised due to neck & LB pains among UCAS professional workers. Further, it inspects the difference between male & females in psychological stressors among the professional workers.

The study revealed that there is a high prevalence of Neck & LB pains amongst Workers in secretarial and administrative occupations. In addition, there is a high prevalence of psychological stressors raised due to neck & LB pains among UCAS professional workers in the sample of the study. Evidence suggests that these conditions are related.

Methods
A random sample of (95) administrators and secretaries of both sexes was selected. The researcher prepared and applied a measure of psychological stress on the sample. The study provided descriptive cross-sectional design.

Results
The researcher found that there is a high prevalence of Neck & LB pains amongst workers in secretarial and administrative occupations in the UCAS; in addition, there is a high prevalence of psychological stressors that raised due to neck & LB pains among UCAS professional workers in this population. Evidence from other researches suggests that these conditions are related to both males & females which conforms with the results in our study sample.

Conclusions
These findings strongly support the need to consider both psychological and pain symptoms when providing assessments and treatment for adolescents. Further research is required to inform causal models.

1. Introduction
Neck &LB pain is a common global problem, and may constitute a significant source of psychological stressors. Musculoskeletal disorders in general have become increasingly common worldwide during the past decades. It is a common cause of work-related disability among workers with substantial financial consequences due to workers’ compensation and medical expenses (Andersson, 1999). A study of 5424 children and adolescents by Perquin and colleagues (Perquin et al., 2000) found that over 50% had experienced pain in the last 3 months and that for a quarter of the sample the pain was chronic. The most common types of pain reported by adolescents are headaches, stomach, back, and limb-musculoskeletal pain with much comorbidity (Fichtel &
Larsson, 2002). This study seeks to extend earlier findings by examining the relationship between psychological stressors and the experience of back and neck pain in UCAS professional workers.

**Research problems**

Workers in secretarial and administrative occupations exposed to sitting in front of computer screens for long hours every day. Risk factors include repetitive work, prolonged periods of the cervical & back spine in flexion, high psychological job strain, which may lead to exposure to neck & LB pain and may have a negative impact on the psychological state of UCAS professional workers.

**Study aims**

This study aims at realizing the prevalence of LB & neck pains among UCAS professional workers. It examines the level of psychological stressors that raised due to neck & LB pains among UCAS professional workers. Further, it explores the difference between male & females in psychological stressors among the professional workers.

**Study Question**

1. What is the prevalence of LB & neck pains among UCAS professional workers?
2. What is the level of psychological stressors among UCAS professional workers?
3. Are there statistically significant differences between males & females in their exposure to psychological stressors that raised due to neck & LB pains?

**Operational definitions**

**Neck pain:** is a common complaint. Neck muscles can be strained from poor posture — whether it is leaning into your computer at work or hunching over your workbench at home. Wear-and-tear arthritis also is a common cause of neck pain. (MFMER, 1998-2013)

**Low Back Pain (LBP):** affects most every one at one time or another; up to 85% of people suffer at least one bout of LBP during their lifetime. (Lively MW, 2002)

**Psychological stressors:**

It is a feeling of strain and pressure. Excessive amounts of stress may lead to many problems in the body that could be harmful. Stress could be something external and related to the environment.

2. **Literature review**

Korhonen et al., (2003) had investigated work related factors and individual factors as predictors for incident neck pain among office employees working with video display units (VDUs). The results demonstrate 34.4% annual incidence of neck pain. Additionally, they reported that Poor physical work environment and poor placement of the keyboard increased the risk of neck pain. Among the individual factors, female sex was a strong predictor. Smoking showed a tendency for an increased risk of neck pain. There was an interaction between mental stress and physical exercise, those with higher mental stress and less physical exercise having especially high risk. In addition, they concluded that in the prevention of neck disorders in office work with a high frequency of VDU tasks, they recommended that attention should be given to the work environment in general and to the more specific aspects of VDU workstation layout. Moreover, they suggested that physical exercise might prevent neck disorders among sedentary employees.
Cagnie et al., (2007) have studied individual, work related risk factors for neck pain among office workers, and the result was that 12-month prevalence’s of neck pain in office workers was 45.5%. Multivariate analysis revealed that women had an almost two-fold risk compared with men (OR = 1.95). The odds ratio for age indicates that persons older than 30 years have 2.61 times more chance of having neck pain than younger individuals (OR = 2.61). Being physically active decreases the likelihood of having neck pain (OR = 1.85). Significant associations were found between neck pain and often holding the neck in a forward bent posture for a prolonged time (OR = 2.01), 21 often sitting for a prolonged time (OR = 2.06) and often making the same movements per minute (OR = 1.63). The results of this study indicate that physical and psychosocial work factors, as well as individual variables, are associated with the frequency of neck pain. These association patterns suggest also opportunities for intervention strategies in order to stimulate an ergonomic work place setting and increase a positive psychosocial work environment.

Siivola et al., (2004) estimated the prevalence and incidence of neck, shoulder pain in young adults, and tried to identify the associated and predictive factors of neck and shoulder pain based on 7-year follow-up. The result was in 7 years, the prevalence of weekly neck and shoulder pain increased from 17% to 28%. Among those who were asymptomatic at baseline, 6-month incidence of occasional or weekly neck and shoulder pain was 59% 7 years later. In an adjusted model, psychosomatic symptoms remained an associated factor for prevalent neck and shoulder pain 7 years later for both females and males. In females, neck and shoulder pain in adolescence was associated with prevalent neck and shoulder pain in adulthood, and sports loading dynamically in the upper extremities were an associated factor for a low prevalence of neck and shoulder pain 7 years later. In separate analyses of incident neck and shoulder pain, psychosomatic stress symptoms predicted neck and shoulder pain in adulthood. They concluded that in young adults, the incidence of neck and shoulder pain is high, and the associated factors of neck and shoulder pain are already multifactorial in a young population.

The 1-year prevalence of neck pain and possible risk factors among university academic staff were investigated by Chiu et al., (2002) using self-administered questionnaires were distributed to all the full-time academic staff in one of the universities in Hong Kong. The 1-year prevalence of neck pain was investigated. The relationship between individual factors, job nature, psychosocial factors, and neck pain were also analyzed. The 1-year prevalence of neck pain among an academic staff was 46.7%. A significant association was found between gender and neck pain (p = 0.02).22 The percentage of female academic staff with neck pain (62%) was higher than that in male staff (38%). This matched the results of other studies, which demonstrated that neck pain was more prevalent in women. There was a significant association between head posture during computer processing and neck pain (p = 0.02). Among those with neck pain during computer processing, 60.5% had a forward head posture. However, a low correlation between psychosocial factors and neck pain was demonstrated (r = 0.343). Academic staff in tertiary institutions could be considered as a high-risk group of job-related neck pain.

Barnekow-Bergkvist, (1998) studied the determinants of self-reported neckshoulder and low back symptoms in general population and reported that in a 16 year follow up that high performance in bench press at the age of 16 was associated with a significant decrease in risk of neck/shoulder symptoms at the age of 34 in men, but not women. Women attain 50–80% of the neck strength of men.
A study conducted by Ostergren, (2001) concluded that job related mechanical exposure in both sexes, and psychosocial factors in women, seem independently of each other to play a part for development of shoulder and neck pain in vocationally active people. The effect of psychosocial factors was more prominent in women, which could be the result of biological factors as well as gender issues. These results suggest that interventions aiming at reducing the occurrence of shoulder and neck pain should include both mechanical and psychosocial factors.

The experience of physical pain is also a common problem in this age group. A study of 5424 children and adolescents by Perquin and colleagues (Perquin et al., 2000) found that over 50% had experienced pain in the last 3 months and that for a quarter of the sample the pain was chronic. The most common types of pain reported by adolescents are headaches, stomach, back, and limb/musculoskeletal pain with much comorbidity (Fichtel & Larsson, 2002). Low back pain is very common in adolescence (up to 46% by the age of 14 years) (O'Sullivan PB,2008) and an organic cause is rarely found. The presence of this disorder in adolescence increases its risk for chronicity in adulthood (Hestbaek L.,et al2006). In children and adolescents, neck and shoulder pain is also common (Murphy S.,et al2007) and there is significant co-morbidity with back pain, especially in adolescents (Vikat A.,et al2000). As with mental health problems, sex differences in reports of pain become apparent around puberty (Fillingim RB,et al2009). The study by Perquin and colleagues (Perquin CW,et al 2000) found that girls tended to report more chronic and severe pain than boys, particularly girls aged between 12 and 14 years. A study by Roth-Isigkeit, Thyen, Raspe, Stoven, and Schmucker (Roth-Isigkeit A.,et al 2004) found the 3-month prevalence of any pain amongst adolescents aged 13-15 years or 16-18 years was significantly higher for girls than for boys. Sundblad, Saartok and Engstrom (Sundblad GMB,et al2007) conducted a study of Swedish students and examined the seven day prevalence of headache, abdominal and musculoskeletal pain. The authors found no difference in the prevalence of musculoskeletal pain between boys and girls but found that girls were twice as likely to report headache and abdominal pain. An earlier study by Mikkelsson, Salminen and Kautiainen (Mikkelsson M,et al1997).

A local research studied the occupational hazards among governmental healthcare workers in Gaza strip, it reported that slightly less than half of the study population (45.9%) complained of myalgia and arthralgia where female workers were affected three times more than male (Jouda, 2006).

Theoretical framework

**Neck pain:** is the sensation of discomfort in the neck area (Med Terms, 2008).

**Epidemiology of neck pain:**

Patient with neck pain represent the second largest population seeking manipulation or manual therapy (Muye et al., 2003). Neck pain is commonly encountered in clinical practice. The prevalence of neck pain with or without arm pain is approximately 13% of females and 9% of males in the general population. One out of every three individuals can recall an incidence of neck pain at least once in their lifetime. This percentage is greater in work place, where 51% to 80% of laborers can recall an episode of neck and arm pain. The frequency of neck complaints increase with age in the workplace. In the 25 to 29 age group, 25% to 30% complain of neck stiffness and 5% to 10% complain of pain radiating into the upper limb. In those over 45% years old, 50% complain of neck stiffness and 25% to 40% complain of pain radiating into the upper limb. Over all, 45% of working men have experienced at least one episode of neck discomfort (Randall et al., 2000).
Causes of neck pain:
Neck pain may originate from any of the pain sensitive structures in the neck include the vertebral bones, ligaments (anterior and posterior longitudinal ligaments) the nerve roots, the particular facets and capsules, muscles, and dura. Other structures of the neck region, visceral and somatic structures are encountered (Delisa et al., 1988).

Major and severe causes of neck pain include:
• Spondylosis: degenerative arthritis and osteophytes
• Spinal stenosis: a narrowing of the spinal canal
• Spinal disc herniation: protruding or bulging discs, or if severe prolapse.

The more common and less severe neck pain causes include:
• Stress: physical and emotional stresses can cause muscles to tighten and contract, resulting in pain and stiffness.
• Prolonged postures: many people fall asleep on sofas and chairs and wake with sore necks.
• Poor posture: prolonged use of a computer keyboard.
• Minor injuries and falls: car accidents, sporting events and day to day minor injuries.
• Referred pain: mostly from upper back problems.
• Over-use: muscular strain is one of the most common causes.
• Obesity: weak abdominal muscles often disrupt the spine’s balance, causing the neck to bend forward to compensate. Although the causes are numerous, most are easily rectified by either professional help or using self help advice and techniques (wikipedia, 2007).

Symptoms may include:
Neck soreness on one or both sides, burning pain, tingling sensations, stiffness, pain around the shoulder blades, Arm complaints (pain, numbness, or weakness), pain that moves around the body, dizziness and headache are the common symptom. Trouble walking or writing, trouble swallowing or talking, nausea, blurred vision, fever, night sweats, tiredness and unintentional weight loss are the less common.
(Spine universe, 2007)

Warning Signs:
Neck pain is one of the symptoms of meningitis, a relatively rare but very serious contagious infection; need urgent medical care if neck pain present with high fever, Sensitivity to light, irritability, and severe tenderness with neck movement.

Neck pain also can be due to injury. A severe neck injury could be life-threatening; may need medical treatment if neck pain present with numbness, weakness, and tingling symptoms (Spine universe, 2007)

Treatment of neck pain
Neck pain is treated by numerous physical therapies. They range in complexity depending on the severity and underlying causes of the pain. Treatment is administered by chiropractic, osteopathic
and physical therapy. All of these specialties treat neck pain issues. The benefit of mobilization and manipulation is not clear (Gross et al., 2004).

Neck pain can also be eased via many self help techniques such as stretching, strength building exercises. Non-traditional methods such as Acupressure, Reflexology and therapeutic massage are commonly used as well (Hoving et al., 2002).

**Neck pain and work related factors:**

Almost two thirds of EU workers report being exposed to repetitive hand and arm movements and a quarter to vibrations from tools; significant risk factors for work-relate neck and upper limb disorders. Many workers, in a wide range of jobs, develop work related upper limb disorders WRULDs and they are the most common form of occupational disease in Europe, accounting for over 45% of all occupational diseases (OSHA, 2007).

**LB pain**

**low back pain** (LBP) affects most everyone at one time or another; up to 85% of people suffer at least one bout of LBP during their lifetime. (Lively MW,2002)

**Causes of lower back pain:**

Back pain is a symptom. Most back pain is musculo-skeletal in origin. Pain arising from other organs may be felt in the back. This is called referred pain. Many intra-abdominal disorders - such as appendicitis, aneurysms, kidney diseases, bladder infections, pelvic infections and ovarian disorders, among others - can cause pain referred to the back. Your doctor will consider this when evaluating your pain.

1. Musculo-skeletal lower back pain is the most common cause of back pain. It is commonly caused by poor posture, twisting awkwardly, or incorrect lifting techniques.

2. Nerve root syndromes are those that produce symptoms of nerve impingement (a nerve is touched), often due to a herniation (or bulging) of the disc between the lower backbones. Sciatica is an example of nerve root impingement. Impingement pain tends to be sharp, in one spot (or can radiate to other parts of the body as in the case of sciatica where pain may be felt down the leg) and associated with numbness in the area of the leg that the affected nerve supplies.

1. Herniated, or slipped, discs are produced as the spinal discs degenerate or grow thinner. The jelly-like central portion of the disc bulges out of the central cavity and pushes against a nerve root. Intervertebral discs begin to degenerate by the third decade of life. Slipped discs are found in one-third of adults older than 20. However only 3% of these produce symptoms of nerve impingement.

2. Spinal stenosis is an abnormal narrowing of the spinal canal. It can occur as intervertebral discs lose moisture and volume with age, which decreases the canal space. This coupled with disease in joints of the lower back, causes spinal canal narrowing. These changes in the disc and the joints produce symptoms and can be seen on an X-ray or scans. A person with spinal degeneration may have morning stiffness or pain while standing for a long time or walking even short distances. Even
minor trauma under these circumstances can cause inflammation and nerve root impingement, which can produce classic sciatica without disc rupture.

3. Cauda equina syndrome is a medical emergency. Disc material expands into the spinal canal, which compresses the nerves. A person experiences pain, possible loss of sensation and bowel or bladder dysfunction. This can include inability to control urination, causing incontinence, or the inability to begin urination.

3. Musculoskeletal pain syndromes that produce lower back pain include myofascial pain syndromes and fibromyalgia.

   1. Myofascial pain is characterized by pain and tenderness over localized areas (trigger points), loss of range of motion in the involved muscle groups and pain radiating in a characteristic distribution but restricted to a peripheral nerve. Relief of pain is often reported when the involved muscle group is stretched.

   2. Fibromyalgia is a poorly understood condition defined as causing pain and tenderness on 11 of 18 ‘tender points’ when touched, one of which is the lower back area, as described by NHS guidelines. Generalized stiffness, fatigue and muscle ache are reported.

4. Other skeletal causes of lower back pain include osteomyelitis, sacroiliitis, and osteoporosis vertebral fractures. This pain is often worse at night and when sitting or standing for a long time.

5. Tumours, possibly cancerous, can be a source of skeletal pain in the back.. (Rob, 2011)

**Symptoms of Low Back Pain:**

Symptoms of low back pain depend on the cause.

**Back sprain or strain:**

Symptoms generally include:

1. Muscle spasms, cramping, and stiffness.

2. Pain in the back and buttocks. It may come on quickly or gradually. It most often occurs in episodes. Certain movements make it worse, and resting makes it feel better. The worst pain usually lasts 48 to 72 hours and may be followed by days or weeks of less severe pain. It is very easy to reinjure your back during this time.

**Nerve-root pressure:**

Symptoms generally include:

1. **Leg pain.** If pain extends below the knee, it is more likely to be due to pressure on a nerve than to a muscle problem. Most commonly, it is a pain that starts in the buttock and travels down the back of the leg as far as the ankle or foot. This pain pattern is known as sciatica (say "sy-AT-i-kuh"). For more information, see the topic Sciatica.

2. **Nerve-related problems,** such as tingling, numbness, or weakness in one leg or in the foot, lower leg, or both legs. Tingling may begin in the buttock and extend to the ankle or foot. Weakness or numbness in both legs, or loss of bladder and/or bowel control, are symptoms of cauda equina syndrome, which requires immediate medical attention.
Arthritis of the spine:

Arthritis of the spine usually causes pain that:

1. Is worse in the back and hip region.
2. Starts gradually, gets worse over time, and lasts longer than 3 to 6 months.
3. Is generally worse in the morning or after prolonged periods of inactivity. Arthritis pain gets better when you move around.

Other conditions:

Symptoms of diseases that affect the spine depend upon the disease. They may include:

1. Pain that is worse in the affected part of the spine (for instance, if there is a compression fracture, tumor, or infection).
2. Pain that starts gradually, is constant, and may be sharp or a dull ache. Bed rest doesn't help and may make it worse (tumors on the spine often cause night pain). The pain lasts longer than 2 to 3 weeks.
3. Fever.
4. Sensitivity of the spine to touch and pressure.
5. Pain that wakes you up from sleep. (Healthwise, 1995-2012)

Prevalence

Low back pain is second only to upper respiratory illness as a cause for visiting a physician. (Andersson GBJ, 1999) Up to two thirds of the population has low back symptoms at some time in their lives. In 1995 there were about two worker’s compensation claims for low back pain for every 100 workers. Seventy-five percent of patients with acute low back pain are back to work within 1 month of the onset of symptoms, and only 5% are disabled for more than 6 months (Carey TS, et al, 1995). However, among those with continuing pain 6 to 10 weeks after onset, most still have some symptoms at 1 year (Wahlgren, 1997).

Among persons with chronic low back pain without neurologic deficits, a number of factors play a role in the length of disability. Recurrent low back pain and prolonged disability tend to correlate with prior history of low back pain, advancing age, job dissatisfaction, emotional distress, heavy or repetitive lifting and physical work, prolonged sitting or standing, and the presence of a worker’s compensation claim or pending litigation (Shakelle, 1977).

Lumbosacral radiculopathy and radicular low back pain are less common than nonspecific low back pain. L5 radiculopathy is the most common lumbosacral radiculopathy, usually produced by disk herniation between the fourth and fifth lumbar vertebral bodies. S1 radiculopathy is the next most common, followed by L3 to L4 radiculopathy.

Examination

A general examination should be performed to identify potential systemic disorders, such as rheumatologic disease, skin disease, or bone deformities. The spine should be inspected for alignment, curvature, range of motion, focal tenderness, and overlying skin abnormalities such as a tuft of hair or pore. Mechanical maneuvers to elicit radicular and hip-joint symptoms should be
considered, including straight-leg raising, reverse straight-leg raising, Patrick’s test, and Lasègue’s sign.

A careful neurologic examination should be undertaken to exclude motor and sensory deficits. Muscle strength in the L2 through S1 myotomes should be examined. The sensory examination should include soft-touch and pain sensation in the same segmental distributions. Muscle stretch reflexes should be elicited at the knee for the L3 to L4 segment and at the ankle for the S1 segment, and they can also be performed in the posterior thigh at the tendinous insertion of internal hamstrings for the L5 segment.

Waddell and colleagues have also described a number of findings on the physical examination that point to nonorganic causes for low back pain, predicting delayed recovery and suggesting the need for a multidisciplinary approach to treatment (Waddell G, 1980)

**Acute Low Back Pain**

Acute spine pain is very common, and the likelihood of spontaneous recovery is in the range of 80% to 90%. Prolonged inactivity prolongs recovery. Because there is seldom a recognizable structural cause, treatment regimens tend to be nonspecific.

Patient education is important, and part of the therapeutic effort should include patient education about the nature of the condition, the likelihood of a good outcome, and the approach to be taken to speed recovery and minimize the risk of recurrence. Once these approaches to management have been undertaken, if there is no meaningful response to treatment, it is necessary to explore the possibility that psychosocial issues underlie the symptoms.

**Acute Nonspecific Back Pain**

There is general agreement that patients with acute nonspecific spine pain or nonlocalizable lumbosacral radiculopathy (without neurologic signs or significant neurologic symptoms) require only conservative medical management. Patients should abstain from heavy lifting or other activities that aggravate the pain. Bed rest is not helpful and has been shown to delay recovery. (Malmivaara A, 1995) Bed rest may be recommended for the first few days for patients with severe pain with movement. Recommended medications include nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs such as ibuprofen or aspirin. If there are complaints of muscle spasm, muscle relaxants such as cyclobenzaprine may be used in the acute phase of pain. Narcotic analgesia should be avoided, in general, but it can be prescribed in cases of severe acute pain.

A study by Cherkin and coworkers compared standard physical therapy maneuvers and chiropractic spinal manipulation for the treatment of acute low back pain and found that both provide small short-term benefits and improve patient satisfaction, but they increase the cost of medical care and do not decrease the recurrence of back pain. (Cherkin DC, 1998) Although patients were somewhat less satisfied with reassurance and an education booklet (the third group in that study), this group fared no worse than the groups receiving therapy.

**Chronic Low Back Pain**

When symptoms of spine pain extend beyond 4 to 8 weeks, the condition has moved from the acute to the chronic phase. At this point it is appropriate to reassess the patient’s symptoms and examination. If no neuroimaging was performed in the acute phase of the illness, the need for studies at this time should be reassessed. In the face of true radiculopathy with new or worsening neurologic deficits, a surgical opinion should be considered. Depending on the full clinical picture,
a number of alternative nonsurgical approaches may be considered at this point, although in general their efficacy has not been proved.

**Chronic Nonspecific Back Pain**

The standard approach to the patient with nonspecific chronic spine pain is physical therapy. By 3 to 4 weeks after onset of symptoms, unless there is serious underlying structural disease, there is no reason the patient should not be enrolled in an aggressive program of mobilization, postural improvement, and increased endurance. Yoga techniques provide useful stretching maneuvers that the patient can learn by video instruction. In the treatment of subacute and chronic spine pain, osteopathic physicians and chiropractors provide spinal manipulation techniques, such as thrust, muscle energy, counter-strain, articulation, and myofascial release. A study by Andersson and associates in patients with nonradicular lumbar spine pain of 3 to 26 weeks’ duration compared a medical program that included physical therapy with a program that included active spinal manipulation. (Andersson GB, 1999) At 12 weeks, there was no significant difference in the degree of improvement between the two groups, although the group that received manipulation required significantly less analgesia, anti-inflammatories, and muscle relaxants, and they used less physical therapy. More than 90% of the patients in both groups were satisfied with their care.

**Summary**

1. Low back pain is usually caused by mechanical disorders of the spine, with or without involvement of the spinal nerve roots, but it may be a result of nonmechanical causes or may be referred from retroperitoneal sources.
2. Diagnosis starts with a careful examination, followed by consideration for neuroimaging studies and electrodiagnostic studies.
3. Specific management decisions are based on the duration of symptoms and the presence or absence of neurologic deficits.
4. Chronic pain syndromes are often perpetuated by nonmedical factors. Treatment requires a multidisciplinary approach.

**Psychological stress**

In psychology, stress is a feeling of strain and pressure. Symptoms may include a sense of being overwhelmed, feelings of anxiety, overall irritability, insecurity, nervousness, social withdrawal, loss of appetite, depression, panic attacks, exhaustion, high or low blood pressure, skin eruptions or rashes, insomnia, lack of sexual desire (sexual dysfunction), migraine, gastrointestinal difficulties (constipation or diarrhea), and for women, menstrual symptoms. It may also cause more serious conditions such as heart problems.

Small amounts of stress may be desired, beneficial, and even healthy. Positive stress helps improve athletic performance. It also plays factor in motivation, adaptation, and reaction to the environment.

Excessive amounts of stress may lead to many problems in the body that could be harmful. Stress could be something external and related to the environment (Fiona Jones, 2001) but also may not be directly created by external events, but instead by the internal perceptions that cause an individual to have anxiety/negative emotions surrounding a situation, such as pressure, discomfort, etc., which they then deem stressful.
Stress responses

In terms of measuring the body's response to stress, psychologists tend to use Han Selye's general adaptation syndrome. This model is also often referred to as the classic stress response, and it revolves around the concept of homeostasis. According to the concept of homeostasis, in response to stressors the body seeks to return to its equilibrium state, or the normal level of stress resistance. During the alarm phase, the body begins to build up resistance to the stressor beyond normal resistance levels. Gottlieb, (Benjamin, 1997)

During this phase the body mobilizes the sympathetic nervous system to meet the immediate threat. The individual's body reacts by releasing adrenal hormones that produces a boost in energy, tense muscles, reduced sensitivity to pain, the shutting down of digestion, and a rise in blood pressure. In the resistance phase the individual's body attempts to resist or cope with a persistent stressor that cannot be avoided. The physiological responses of the alarm phase continue and make the body much more vulnerable to other stressors. (Benjamin, 1997)

The body continues building up resistance throughout the stage of resistance, until either the body's resources are depleted, leading to the exhaustion phase, or the stressful stimulus is removed. This three phase response is designed to help humans in life or death situations, but all types of stressors can trigger this response. A stress response results in elevated physiological arousal, often associated with the release of stress hormones such as cortisol. The physiological arousal in response to stressors is designed to help the body adapt quickly in order to survive and rid itself of the stressful stimuli. (Foley DL, et al. 2006)

This physiological stress response involves high levels of sympathetic nervous system activation, often referred to as the "fight or flight" response. The response involves pupil dilation, release of endorphins, increased heart and respiration rates, cessation of digestive processes, secretion of adrenaline, arteriole dilation, and constriction of veins. This high level of arousal is often unnecessary to adequately cope with micro-stressors and daily hassles; yet, this is the response pattern seen in humans, which often leads to health issues commonly associated with high levels of stress. (10)

Stress and health

As seen in the previous section, the physiological response to stress demands much of the body's energy and resources. This often has a great impact on disease and risk for disease. When the body's energy is used to respond to minor (or major) stressors, the immune system's ability to function properly is compromised. Ogden, J. (2007). This makes the individual more susceptible to physical illnesses like the cold or flu. Stressful events, such as job changes, (Greubel, et al. 2007)

Chronic stress and a lack of coping resources available or used by an individual can often lead to the development of psychological issues such as depression and anxiety (W, 2011)

Studies have also proven that perceived chronic stress and the hostility associated with type A personalities are often associated with much higher risks of cardiovascular disease. This occurs because of the compromised immune system as well as the high levels of arousal in the sympathetic nervous system that occur as part of the body's physiological response to stressful events. (Margaret E. Kemeny, 2003)
Stress prevention & resilience building

Although many techniques have traditionally been developed to deal with the consequences of stress considerable research has also been conducted on the prevention of stress, a subject closely related to psychological resilience-building. A number of self-help approaches to stress-prevention and resilience-building have been developed, drawing mainly on the theory and practice of cognitive-behavioral therapy. (Robertson, D: 2012).

Biofeedback may also play a role in stress management. A randomized study by Sutarto et al. assessed the effect of resonant breathing biofeedback (recognize and control involuntary heart rate variability) among manufacturing operators; depression, anxiety and stress significantly decreased. (Sutarto, AP; 2012)

Types of stressors

A stressor is any event, experience, or environmental stimulus that causes stress in an individual. (Collins English Dictionary, 2012) These events or experiences are perceived as threats or challenges to the individual and can be either physical or psychological. Researchers have found that stressors can make individuals more prone to both physical and psychological problems, including heart diseases and anxiety. (Pastorino, E. & Doyle-Portillo, 2009)

Stressors are more likely to affect an individual's health when they are "chronic, highly disruptive, or perceived as uncontrollable". (Pastorino, E. & Doyle-Portillo, 2009) In researchers generally classify the different types of stressors into four categories: 1) crises/catastrophes, 2) major life events, 3) daily hassles/microstressors, and 4) ambient stressors.

Crises/catastrophes

This type of stressor is unforeseen and unpredictable and, as such, is completely out of the control of the individual (Pastorino, E. & Doyle-Portillo, 2009) Examples of crises and catastrophes include: devastating natural disasters such as major floods or earthquakes & wars etc. Though rare in occurrence, this type of stressor typically causes a great deal of stress in a person's life. A study conducted by Stanford University found that after natural disasters, those affected experienced a significant increase in stress level. (Pastorino, E. & Doyle-Portillo, 2009)

Major life events

Common examples of major life events include: marriage, going to college, death of a loved one, birth of a child, etc. These events can be either positive or negative. Research has found major life events are somewhat rare to be major causes of stress, due to its rare occurrences. (Pastorino, E. & Doyle-Portillo, 2009)

The length of time since occurrence and whether or not it is a positive or negative event are factors in whether or not it causes stress and how much stress it causes. Researchers have found that events that have occurred within the past month generally are not linked to stress or illness, while chronic events that occurred more than several months ago are linked to stress and illness. (Cohen S, 1997)

Additionally, positive life events are typically not linked to stress—and if so, generally only trivial stress—while negative life events can be linked to stress and the health problems that accompany it. (Pastorino, E. & Doyle-Portillo, 2009)
Daily hassles/microstressors

This category is the most commonly occurring type of stressor in an individual's everyday life. This includes daily annoyances and minor hassles (Pastorino, E. & Doyle-Portillo, 2009). Examples include: making decisions, meeting deadlines at work or school, traffic jams, encounters with irritating personalities, etc. Often, this type of stressor includes conflicts with other people. Daily stressors, however, are different for each individual, as not everyone perceives a certain event as stressful. For example, most people find public speaking to be stressful, nevertheless, a seasoned politician most likely will not.

There are three major psychological types of conflicts that can cause stress. First, the approach-approach conflict occurs when a person is choosing between two equally attractive options, i.e. whether to go to see a movie or to go see a concert. (Pastorino, E. & Doyle-Portillo, 2009) The second type is the avoidance-avoidance conflict, where a person has to choose between two equally unattractive options, for example, to take out a second loan with unappealing terms to pay off the mortgage or to face foreclosure on one's house. (Pastorino, E. & Doyle-Portillo, 2009)

The third type is an approach-avoidance conflict. (Pastorino, E. & Doyle-Portillo, 2009) This occurs when a person is forced to choose whether or not to partake in something that has both attractive and unattractive traits—such as whether or not to attend an expensive college (meaning taking out loans now, but also meaning a quality education and employment after graduation).

Stressors

As their name implies, these are global (as opposed to individual) low-grade stressors that are a part of the background environment. They are defined as stressors Ambient that are "chronic, negatively valued, non-urgent, physically perceptible, and intractable to the efforts of individuals to change them". (Campbell, Joan, 2013) Typical examples of ambient stressors are pollution, noise, crowding, and traffic. Unlike the other three types of stressor, ambient stressors can (but do not necessarily have to) negatively impact stress without conscious awareness. They are thus low on what Stokols called "perceptual salience". (Campbell, Joan, 2013)

A literature review found that epidemiological research has shown a link between low back pain and psychological factors. Depression and anxiety are thought to be the most common psychological conditions associated with low back pain. The three components of low back pain are described as the somatic, the depressive and the social aspects. In relation to low back pain, depression is often described as being atypical as it takes the form of a so-called masked depression, often following a traumatic event. Individual psychological intervention is recommended as the primary treatment, with medical treatment secondary. Different theories have been developed to explain the connection between chronic low back pain and depression, but none is comprehensive.

A study of Gestalt therapy and chronic pain reported that the most significant issue for the patient was to be understood. Individual psychotherapy was recommended with a view to understanding the patients' subjective experiences, since everyone experiences illness differently. The study showed, furthermore, that responses depended on the severity of the illness, family background and history, networks, social class and economic situation. Furthermore, the best results were seen in those who were willing to work with their own psychological process.

Given the substantial rates of mental health problems and the common experience of pain in this age group, and the possibility of a shared pathway for these disorders (Gatchel RJ, 2007), the relationship between them has already been the subject of considerable research. A study by
Larsson and Sund (Larsson B& Sund AM,2007) found that pain frequency was strongly related to levels of both internalising and externalising problems among adolescents irrespective of pain location. There are also sex differences in the experience of pain and associated mental health problems. In epidemiological studies, depressive and anxiety disorders have been associated with recurrent headaches and stomach aches in girls but not boys, while musculoskeletal pain has been related to depression in both sexes (Egger HL, et al1998). It is surprising that neck pain has not received the same amount of research attention as low back pain, given its high prevalence in the general population and in adolescent cohorts (Perry MC, et al 2008). Hogg-Johnston and colleagues (Hogg-Johnson S, et al 2009) conducted a best evidence synthesis of the burden and prevalence of neck pain and reported studies showing that poor psychological health both predicts and coexists with the experience of neck pain. In addition to this there is evidence that neck pain is specifically associated with depression (Carroll LJ,2004).

Furthermore, higher levels of distress are associated with stress biomarkers which are known to be related to spinal pain (Schell E, et al 2008) and muscle tension (Marras WS, et al2000).

3. Methodology:

The researcher used descriptive analytical cross sectional study to collect the data

**Study Population:**

The study population consists of all workers in occupation offices administrators and secretaries at the University College of Applied Science's of Gaza, The total number of the administrative and secretaries employees is 142 persons.

**Study Sample:**

A random sample was selected and consists of (95) of both sexes which work as administrators and secretaries, (67 males, 70.5%) and (28 females, 29.5%), and most of the employees spent on there offices duration (6 – 8) hours.

**Study tool:**

**Psychological stressors scale:**

The researcher applied the instruments of this study on a 22 pilot sample from the original population of the study sample, and they excluded from the study sample, where this technique used to estimate and discuss the validity and reliability of the instruments used in this study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions of psychological stressors</th>
<th>R. value</th>
<th>P. value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psychological stresses</td>
<td>0.701</td>
<td>0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Body stresses</td>
<td>0.790</td>
<td>0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social stresses</td>
<td>0.684</td>
<td>0.001***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Reliability of the scale**

To test the reliability of the Psychological stressors scale, the researcher used the following two methods: Split half method were reliability coefficient was (0.83), and by using Cronbach’s alpha
equation where alpha coefficient was (0.86). The Psychological stressors scale measurement device is valid and reliable for data collection from the study sample.

4. Study results

The researcher used some statistical equations to investigate and answer the study questions as the following:

Table 2: Prevalence of Neck pain and Low Back pain among the study sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Neck pain</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>81.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Back pain</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>81.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The prevalence of neck pain among the UCAS workers, the results indicated that UCAS workers with neck pain because of long sitting in front of computer screens represented 77 (81.1%).

The prevalence of LB pain among the UCAS workers, the results indicated that UCAS workers with LB pain as a result of long sitting in front of computer screen represented 72 (75.8).

Distribution of study population by average of number hours they work, showed that: nearly about half of study population 41 (43.3%) work for 7 hours.32 persons (33.7%) work for 8 hours, while 8 (8.4%) persons work for 6 hours.4 (4.20) person work for 5 hours. 4(4.2%) persons work for 3-4 hours, 4(4.2%) worked for 10-11 hours and 1 (1.1) work for 12 hour

Table 3: means and stander deviation and ratio scale of the psychological stressors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Ratio scale</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I wait eagerly for Vacations.</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>1.158</td>
<td>73.8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Pressures and burdens associated with neck and back pain make me feel upset</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>1.078</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I feel distressed when I deal with the problems of neck and back pain</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>0.931</td>
<td>71.0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Neck or back pain caused me a lot of psychological pressure.</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>3.267</td>
<td>68.6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I feel tired when I wake up in the morning.</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>1.026</td>
<td>66.6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I feel frustrated because of the routine work I do every day.</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>1.203</td>
<td>63.0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I have a strong feeling that I am on the verge of collapse.</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>1.311</td>
<td>59.2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I have a desire to sleep in order to dispose of the problems of neck and back pain.

I feel upset when I talk about neck or back pain in front of others.

The activities which I do cannot achieve my ambitions and desires

I feel bored as long as I am in the same place

I feel that I am unable to remain in the activity that I do any longer.

I feel that the neck or back is the cause of my problems.

I feel that I couldn’t improve my performance

I have no motivation to accomplish and improve my professional level

As shown above in table 3 that the ratio scale of the total degree of psychological pressure is located at the level of 61.3 and stress levels ranged between ratio scale 50.4 to 73.8%. Paragraph 6 came in the top rank with ratio scale 73.3%, followed by 4 with relative weight 71.4%. In the third place came paragraph 5 with the ratio scale of 71%. The researcher found that the administrative work contributes to the kind of pressure as they exposed to sit for long hours every day in front of computer screens.

Our findings support those of Murphy and colleagues (Murphy S, et al, 2007) who found that low back, upper back and neck pain were all associated with emotional problems. Importantly, our findings also support and extend those of Watson and colleagues (Watson KD, et al, 2003) who found that the experience of low back pain was strongly related to a variety of emotional and behavioral problems in a similar sized cohort of 11-14 year olds.

### Table 4: Body stressors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Ratio scale</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I feel that I have a headache.</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>1.167</td>
<td>60.4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I feel that the burdens of life are beyond my endurance.</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>1.135</td>
<td>54.8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>When I have a problem, I feel my blood pressure is rising.</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>1.173</td>
<td>54.4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I suffer from sleep disorders symptoms.</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>1.230</td>
<td>53.4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I have no ability to perform daily life skills</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>1.150</td>
<td>52.4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown above in table 4 that the ratio scale of the total degree of psychological pressure is located at the level of 53.6, and the body stress levels ranges between ratio scale 49.4 to 60.4. The item “I feel that I have a headache” comes at the top rank ratio scale of 60.4%, followed by “I feel that the burdens of life are beyond my endurance” with the ratio scale 54.8. In the third place comes the item number 5 with a ratio scale of 54.4.

The researcher thinks the neck or back pains and administrative work leads to headache and to the feeling of high blood pressure. In addition, this implant the feeling that the burdens of life are above their endurance.

This results agree with Watson and colleagues found associations between LBP and emotional, conduct and somatic complaints on the SDQ. For example, elevated scores on the Internalizing/Emotional problems scale of the SDQ is made up of five items (often complains of headache; often worries; often unhappy/tearful; often nervous/clingy; often fearful)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Social stresses</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Ratio scale</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I doubt my abilities in different social situations.</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>1.277</td>
<td>54.4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I feel discomforted when my friends do not co-operate with me.</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>1.661</td>
<td>52.2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I feel upset about not being able to fulfill my personal needs.</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>1.257</td>
<td>50.8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>It worried me that others can achieve their work faster than I can.</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>1.164</td>
<td>47.8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I feel comfortable when I stay alone instead of being with others.</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>1.109</td>
<td>45.6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Direct contact with others causes me a sense of psychological tension.</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>1.231</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I try to stay away from group sessions.</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>1.150</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I feel turbulence because of the problems that others face.</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>1.251</td>
<td>44.0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>0.795</td>
<td>48.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown above in table 5 that the ratio scale of the total degree of social stresses is located at the level of 48.6. The social stresses levels ranges between ratio scale 44.0 to 47.8 came. The item “I doubt my abilities in different social situations” comes at the top rank with the ratio scale 54.4%. It is followed by “I feel discomforted when my friends do not co-operate with me” with a ratio scale of 52.2. The item number 3 comes in the third place with a ratio scale of 50.8.

Table 6: Prevalence of neck pain among male and female

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th></th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>83.6</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As we shown in table 6, 83.6% males suffer from neck pain while 75% females suffer from neck pain.

Table 7: Prevalence of Low back pain among male and female

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th></th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>79.1</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows that 79.1% males suffer from back pain while 67.9% females suffer from neck pain.

The researcher thinks that both males & females are nearly the same in the prevalence of neck pain, its likely to occur as they are suffering from neck and back pains which is a key factor in the presence of stress.

Table 8: T tests and differences between male and female in stressors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>T value</th>
<th>P. value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psychological</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>46.04</td>
<td>11.121</td>
<td>0.173</td>
<td>0.863</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>45.61</td>
<td>11.468</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Body stresses</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>23.31</td>
<td>7.256</td>
<td>0.821</td>
<td>0.414</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>24.64</td>
<td>7.041</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social stresses</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>19.01</td>
<td>6.623</td>
<td>1.234</td>
<td>0.220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>20.82</td>
<td>6.213</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total scores</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>88.37</td>
<td>22.057</td>
<td>0.551</td>
<td>0.583</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>91.07</td>
<td>21.085</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in the table 8, there were no statistically significant differences in total scores of stress and its dimensions according to the sex in the study sample.

The researcher found that the working methods for both sexes are the same and they also suffer from neck and back pains which is a key factor in the presence of stress so the result was that there was no statistically significant differences among members of the sample.

These results comply with another study which found no difference in the prevalence of musculoskeletal pain between boys and girls but found that girls were twice as likely to report headache and abdominal pain. (Mikkelsson, Salminen and Kautiainen (Mikkelsson M,1997)

5. Recommendation:

1. Providing range of advices and guidance for administrative and secretary workers to make them avoid neck and low back pain LBP problems
2. Attempt to modify the physical environments for the UCAS workers
3. Provide cognitive behavioral heuristic program to reduce the pressure arising from neck and back pain
4. Practice a daily exercise program, specially walking because of its effects in reducing the factors causing neck and back pain,

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Marras WS, Davis KG, Heaney CA, Maronitis AB, Allread WG(2011): The influence of psychosocial stress, gender, and personality on mechanical loading of the lumbar spine. Medically Reviewed by Dr Rob Hicks on March 02, 2011© WebMD, LLC. All rights reserved. (MFMER).1998-2013 Mayo Foundation for Medical Education and Research All rights reserved.

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Predictive Factors for Neck and Shoulder Pain: A Longitudinal Study in Young Adults: Spine (Aug 1); 29 (15): 1662-1669


Are Relationships the Key to Corporate Longevity?  
A Study of Behaviors of 100-Year-Old Companies

Abstract:
Research in Japan over the last decade has identified several common corporate behaviors exhibited by companies that have survived for over 100 years. Several of these factors emphasize relationships, including relationships with customers, employees, suppliers, and local communities. How culturally specific is this importance placed on relationships? Interviews with a sampling of CEOs who lead organizations in the United States that were established over 100 years ago indicated that relationships are just as important to corporate longevity in the United States as they are in Japan. To test the relevance of the Japanese longevity model to U.S. firms, the authors analyze survey responses from 100-year-old U.S. companies and compare their responses to those from old Japanese companies.

Keywords: Corporate Longevity, Corporate Culture, Social Responsibility.

JEL Classification: M14

1. Introduction
Several of the oldest known continuously operating companies in the world are Japanese, with at least five having been founded prior to 1000. In compiling the database of old Japanese companies, it was discovered that these firms did not have to grow large in order to survive: The companies range in size from very small (annual sales volume of 100 million yen or ~ $1 million) to large (over 100 billion yen or ~ $1 billion), with the average company at 5 billion yen or ~ $50 million in annual sales volume. This is especially interesting when one considers how ingrained is the maxim of “grow or die” in modern management theory. Several research questions arose during the study of these old companies: Since less than one percent of all companies currently operating in the United States are over 100 years old, how have these old companies survived so long? Are there any ‘secrets’ of corporate longevity we could learn by studying their management behaviors and strategies? How culturally specific are these behaviors?

In general, businesses are overwhelmingly small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) and privately owned (both over 95 percent, according to the U.S. Census Bureau). Previous research on corporate longevity has been conducted on large, publicly-owned companies – often with very small sample sizes (Collins and Porras, 1994; Pascale, 1990; Hall, 1997; de Geus, 1999; Grossman and Jennings, 2002; Miller and Le Breton-Miller, 2005; Stadler, 2007; Kwee, 2009). Therefore, this research study focuses on companies that represent the majority of businesses as well as the majority of firms that are over 100 years old: small and medium-sized business.
In-depth case study interviews were conducted with top managers of 17 Japanese companies over 100 years old to identify key success factors in these businesses. Based on these interviews, a theoretical framework was developed concerning longevity factors. A survey containing 125 questions was then developed using a Likert-type scale. This survey was sent to 7,000 Japanese companies located in one geographic area. To test the theoretical model, the survey was sent to both old companies and those in operation for less than 100 years to see if there was, indeed, anything unique about the old companies. The response rate was 19 percent. Eighty-nine percent of the companies surveyed were less than 100 years old and 11 percent of responding companies had over 100 years of continuous operation. To further test the framework for its relevance in the United States, the same survey was translated into English and sent to 282 U.S. companies over 100 years old; responses were received from 61 firms for a response rate of 21.6 percent.

2. A Theoretical Framework

Based on the initial case study interviews, five factors were identified that together resulted in a unique position for the old Japanese companies that built loyalty in customers and were difficult for competitors to imitate. Following are the five factors.

Management of Corporate Identity and Culture

The existence and deliberate transmittal of certain values and beliefs was described as a key survival factor in the case study companies. Similar to the idea of a “relatively fixed core ideology” identified by Collins and Porras in their book *Built to Last*, these values and beliefs function as the fundamental business guidelines for the firm and provide the core ideas around which members of the company identify. Most companies had precepts that were developed by the founder and passed on through the generations. Certain lessons, warnings, and exhortations are described in these precepts. Though the style and content differs from company to company, current leaders consistently confirm the importance of their corporate creed or values as a primary factor in the success of their business. These values and beliefs form the fundamental culture of the company and are used to enhance employee identification with the business.

An interesting common cultural aspect identified in the case studies was the tendency toward conservative approach to managing their finances. They are very reluctant to go into debt as a way of financing their business even if this means slower growth. They also operate with a level of leanness and efficiency that enables them to set aside money in prosperous times to weather the lean years and also to fund new opportunities when they arise without depending on external sources of financing. Managers clearly see themselves as stewards or custodians of the business and feel an obligation to manage it in a way that ensures its survival into the future.

Management of Core Strengths

The existence and protection of a particular technical specialty or core competency was another factor leading to longevity identified in the case studies. These company “secrets” or special methodologies are believed to make the organization unique. Such a resource-based strategy that offers differentiation from the competition and is difficult for others to imitate is consistent with J.B. Barney’s resource-based theories of competitive advantage.

Building on their inherited unique technology, the companies also said that the ongoing development of their unique capabilities was one of their strengths. The image of old companies is often that they are very conservative, sticking to tradition and resisting change. The reality is that
they are aggressive towards change or they would not have survived the many environmental challenges encountered over the centuries. Long-term survival comes from their continuous efforts toward change while protecting and building on their core strengths. These old companies have precious histories and a heritage they protect at all costs. However, they do not stubbornly observe their traditions without challenge: it is their ability to change by first affirming their traditional past and then altering what is necessary – the balance of tradition and innovation – that enables their long lives.

**Management of Business Relationships with Suppliers and Customers**

Relationships are at the core of operations for the old companies. These firms regard the maintenance of relationships with customers and the development of their suppliers from generation to generation as very important to their long-term success. These companies truly believe they cannot maintain their success for such a long period of time without the cooperation of others. This emphasis on long-term relationships leads to a kind of symbiosis with organizations outside the company. These relationships have a significant effect on the company’s ability to weather environmental challenges as well as their ability to learn and adapt over time.

The old companies’ approach to managing change grows out of the importance they place on maintaining their relationships. They understand that their firm is part of a large, interdependent system. While aggressively pursuing internal change, they patiently work with their external partners so no one is left behind once the change is implemented. The systemic effect of this approach is to reinforce the loyalty of customers and the dedication of distributors and suppliers to the success of the company. Thus they are able to survive upheavals in their industry, advances in technology, and other environmental changes while retaining loyal customers and a close relationship with their suppliers.

Since these old companies tend to believe they cannot maintain success without the cooperation of others, they put a premium on actions that will retain their suppliers and customers from generation to generation. They regard working with vendors to develop the capabilities needed to continue to supply their own organization as an obligation. Continuing to provide long-term customers with the products and services they desire is seen as a sacred duty.

Because these old companies view the relationship with their business partners as something more than mere transactions or the trading of goods and services for financial gain, they are willing to share technologies and ideas. These relationships result in mutual learning: the development of these business relationships – the willingness to learn from all transaction partners – was seen as an important factor in their long-term survival.

**Management of Human Resources, with a Focus on Leadership Succession**

As mentioned earlier, relationships are at the core of how old companies operate, and the development of long-term relationships with their employees is another keystone factor in our theoretical framework. These companies invest heavily in the training and development of their employees; they are very deliberate about teaching the history of their company as well as the technologies and skills that are needed to keep the company successful into the future. Because of this investment in their employees, these companies make every effort to retain their employees and, as a result, many become lifelong, loyal members of the organization.

A second observed factor of human resource management in the old companies is the emphasis they place on development of future leaders from within the company, resulting in a systematic process
for leadership succession. Though they want future leaders to first have experience in other companies, they do not hire people from the outside into top positions. Rather, they have a systematic career plan within the company for developing leaders – plans that include hands-on experience in company operations to learn the business from the inside. Once leadership candidates have built their own personal network and understand the business inside and out, they are expected to think for themselves rather than blindly following tradition. The majority of these firms have already identified who their next leader will be.

**Management of Social Relationships within the Local Community**

Because the old companies see themselves as an integral part of a web of relationships connected to their family history and reputation, the development of relationships within their local community is just as important as the development of relationships with their transaction partners. A close connection with their community, including social as well as business relationships, was identified as an important longevity factor in the case studies. The old companies tend to be active participants in their local communities, promoting the community and developing local networks for mutual learning and benefit. They believe these connections with people in other industries and across generations have a positive influence on the reputation of their firm. They also see the positive influence on their business that comes from their local community’s good reputation. Old companies recognize the value of community and invest their time and resources in projects that develop their local communities.

3. **What is Unique about Old Companies?**

To understand which of these behaviors identified in the case studies are unique to the old companies, survey responses of old companies were compared to those of companies in the same geographic area that were less than 100 years old. Following are the results of these comparisons. All factors noted as significant are at the 0.05 level unless otherwise indicated.

**Management of Corporate Identity and Culture**

The mere existence of a corporate credo is not a significant characteristic of old companies: though 87.9 percent had such a credo, so did 85.4 percent of younger firms. There were, however, some significant differences in the content of the old companies’ credos and in how they utilized such credos to manage their corporate culture. The old companies did place more importance on relationships with suppliers and customers in their credo, as well as in statements about their special technologies or unique skills. However, it is in the area of utilization of the credo that the old firms were significantly different from other companies: 100-year-old companies scored higher in every aspect of credo utilization, putting more emphasis on managing according to the credo. In other words, they really lived their mission statement – it wasn’t just some words developed for their website because mission statements are the current fad in management theory.

The old firms are more intentional about sharing their credo with others, teaching it to employees and discussing it with customers and other business partners. They also expressed a strong intention to carry on their mission into the future: It was clear that this isn’t just how they intend to manage their business today - they are establishing a framework for continuity, intentionally setting up the company for longevity. Consistency in managing corporate culture was also seen in the way the old firms put more importance than younger companies on their brand identity and the consistency of their brand in products, services and facilities.
The 100-year-old companies also reported being significantly more conservative in their financial management than the younger firms. They are less likely to depend on borrowing as a way of financing their business and report operating with a level of leanness and efficiency.

**Management of Core Strengths**

There were a number of statistically-significant factors that differentiated old companies from younger ones in terms of how they managed their core strengths. Though all the companies were fairly similar in their belief about how difficult their products or services were to copy and whether they had a strong appeal other than price, the older firms indicated that they pursue their unique characteristics into fine details of their products, often resulting from accumulated knowledge and skills regarding raw and processed materials. Further, the older firms were significantly more likely to convey their corporate history and unique product story as part of the sales process.

Another area where management of core strengths was unique among the older companies was how they built on their strengths over time. They were significantly more likely than young firms to say they had some things that do not change in product quality, raw and processed materials, and production and sales methodologies. And, though the young companies were just as likely as old firms to continuously update their business operations to adapt to changing times, old companies were significantly more likely to take longer when introducing a big change. By first affirming their traditional past and then altering what is necessary – the balance of tradition and innovation – the older firms carefully plan for change. Even though approaching change this way takes longer to implement, it appears to be a factor in successful adaptation over time.

**Management of Business Relationships with Suppliers and Customers**

It may seem obvious that the old companies are more likely to emphasize their corporate history and product “story” when working with customers, but they also make every effort to see that their products are used in the best way. Further, it is clear from their survey responses that the older firms are significantly more likely than the younger ones to see their relationships with customers as a learning opportunity.

Older firms were also significantly more likely to share information with suppliers – about their production and sales, about products and services, as well as information about customers and markets.

**Management of Human Resources, with a Focus on Leadership Succession**

When it comes to educating employees, there were no significant differences between old and young companies except that the older firms are far more likely to teach employees about company history and about their customers. There also was no statistical difference in stated efforts to retain employees for the long term.

Where there was a significant difference in employee development was in the area of succession planning. One-hundred-year-old companies scored significantly higher than younger firms on every question pertaining to development of future company leadership: They have a basic rule for succession; they work within the company to educate and train successors; they have a systematic career plan for future leaders; they give future leaders time to build their own personal networks and an opportunity to understand the business. The old companies also clearly state that they expect the future leader to think for him/herself rather than to blindly follow tradition, so this lengthy learning period is an important part of the process. Interestingly, 53.6 percent of the older firms said they had
already selected the next leader of their company, compared with only 37.9 percent of the younger companies surveyed.

**Management of Relationships within the Local Community**

Old companies scored significantly higher than young firms on every question relating to building relationships within their local communities. Whether it was participating in business organizations, building personal connections with people in other industries, or being involved in projects that promote the values of their local community, the older firms are active community members.

4. **Testing the Theoretical Framework on 100-Year-Old U.S. Firms**

The results of the study of old Japanese companies clearly identified unique behaviors or strategies employed that were not reflected in younger organizations, confirming several major factors in the theoretical framework. However, this still leaves unanswered the question of how culturally-specific these behaviors are. For instance, the emphasis old Japanese firms put on relationships is reminiscent of the theories put forth in books and scholarly articles written in the 1980s about Japanese business practices, such as *The Art of Japanese Management* (Pascale, 1982) and *Theory Z* (Ouchi, 1981).

Therefore we administered the survey from the 2011/12 study of Japanese companies to U.S. firms over 100 years old to test whether the same theoretical framework ‘fits’ U.S. companies. While not yet testing for statistical significance on individual questions, an evaluation of the overall framework indicates verification in all but a few areas.

**Management of Corporate Identity and Culture**

Old U.S. companies scored higher than old Japanese companies on every element of managing corporate identity and culture except one. Out of 18 questions only the existence of the company’s mission and values since the founding of the enterprise was scored lower by U.S. companies. Utilization of the company credo was an area where 100-year-old Japanese companies scored significantly higher than younger firms, so seeing this emphasis of old U.S. companies on managing according to the credo is an important confirmation of the model. U.S. firms also reported a similar conservative financing approach to that of old Japanese companies.

**Management of Core Strengths**

Though there were many similarities between old U.S. and Japanese companies in how they managed and developed their core capabilities, there were a few differences on some significant items. Old U.S. companies were less likely to have accumulated special knowledge or skills in the area of raw or processed materials and were less likely to agree that they had some materials or methods of production or sales that should not change. There was clear agreement, however, on the statistically significant question about taking a long time to implement big changes.

**Management of Business Relationships with Suppliers and Customers**

There was clear confirmation of the customer relationship aspect of managing business relationships, but American firms did not indicate investing nearly as much in the development of relationships with their suppliers as did old Japanese companies. Old U.S. companies were less likely to share information about company production and sales, about their products and services, or customers and markets with suppliers. These were the very areas where the old Japanese companies were significantly different in their relationship with suppliers compared to younger companies.
Management of Human Resources, with a Focus on Leadership Succession

The other area where the theoretical framework does not seem to fit U.S. companies as well is in succession planning for future leaders. Here, old Japanese companies scored significantly higher than younger companies in every category. When comparing the response of old U.S. companies to those of the old Japanese companies, however, there was an interesting – almost contradictory – variation in responses. U.S. companies scored much higher than their Japanese counterparts on developing and training successors within the company, but the U.S. companies also were more likely to expect new leaders to learn by and think for themselves, placed much less emphasis on leaders working in operational jobs in the company before assuming a leadership role, and were less likely to have any kind of systematic career plan for future leaders.

Management of Relationships within the Local Community

Every item addressed in the theoretical model regarding the relationship of old firms with their local communities was confirmed in the study of U.S. companies.

5. Conclusions and Recommendations

There are many similarities in behaviors of old U.S. and old Japanese companies. In fact, on many of the items in the theoretical model the U.S. companies reported the behaviors being even more important than did the old Japanese firms. Further, when analyzing the specific questions where old Japanese companies’ answers were significantly different than the responses of younger companies, U.S. companies mirrored the responses of old Japanese companies on over 70 percent of the questions.

The two areas of the theoretical model that do not seem to test out on U.S. firms are in the areas of relationship with suppliers and the process used to develop future leaders. Both these areas will bear additional scrutiny as the authors test for significance before drawing any conclusions. However, based on these survey responses from U.S. companies it can be assumed that the overall theoretical framework is not culturally specific to Japan. This would seem to confirm that relationships – with the possible exception of those with suppliers – are as important to corporate longevity for U.S. firms as they are in Japan.

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Regional Journalism in Latvia: Evolution of Journalist Professional Standards from Soviet Latvia to Post-Soviet Latvia  

Abstract:  
Local newspapers have been having significant value in everyday life of local communities in Latvia since the end of the World War II, when the Soviet mass media system provided for the compulsory existence of newspapers in every region and in every city of republican status. Latvian journalism has experienced both structural and also professional changes in core values due to historical events and political regime. Journalists play a significant role in constructing the understanding of reality and therefore have impact on the life of the local community. Journalists have a possibility to influence society about direct actualities and events, and therefore the level of understanding of the ethics of journalism and professional standards (neutrality, accountability, objectivity, truth) is an essential factor.  

Keywords: Regional Journalism, Journalist, Professional Values, Women, Local Environment.  

1. Introduction  
Study of regional journalism in Latvia has been fragmentary so far, thus there is a shortage of information on the principles, values and practice of journalists’ professional activity, its feminization and the consequences of these processes at the same time revealing the interaction between traditional and non-traditional practice of discrimination against women.  

Professional activity of journalists of regional press differs from daily work of journalists operating in other mass media. The local environment in which journalists live physically and work professionally facilitates becoming closer to the audience, breaking down the limits of neutrality. There is a continuous interaction between the local community and journalists (who mainly belong to the local community). The study is aimed at establishing how the work, professional values and professional prestige of journalists of regional press have changed over time as well as identifying the potential future development trends of the occupation. The process of gathering information, developing the study and drawing conclusions involved various research methods: case studies, deep, semi-structured interviews, gathering and analyzing statistical data as well as research work at zonal state archives in Kurzeme (one of four historic districts in Latvia).  

2. Development of regional journalism in Latvia  
Regional press in Latvia became a significant ‘player’ in the mass communication system after WW2 when the Soviet mass media system prescribed mandatory existence of papers in each region and each city of republican importance. Initially in 1945 25 city and regional papers were published in Latvia whereas in 1950 the number reached 62 papers (Latvijas PSR prese, 1940-1956: statistisko datu krājums (1958, p.90).
During the time when Latvia was part of the Soviet Union (1944-1990) all press was consciously used as an ideological weapon in the fight for communism and as a means to cultivate opinions and beliefs more favourable to power in society. The press system in Latvian Soviet Socialist Republic was subordinate to the governance of the Communist (members) Party of Latvia, thus it had full control over editorial staff as well as the content, volume and artistic layout of papers ensuring dissemination of information in line with Communist ideology as well as shaping and influencing public opinion (Opolska 2004, p.52). However, journalists of regional press also shaped not only symbolic environment pertaining to the ideology of power but also common local symbols, self-definitions and self-evaluations. “Local papers designed the so-called “identity stories” which united their reader audience and made it different from other local communities and – more importantly – from the big Soviet community”, points out V. Zelce, Researcher of Communication Processes (Zelče 2006, p.150). In Soviet times regional and city press and consequently journalist occupation in general had high social prestige.

Along with the fall of the Soviet Union, regaining of Latvia’s independence and establishment of a democratic state administration Latvian mass media system experienced large-scale changes (both structural and professional). Former (Soviet) concept of journalism values and underlying principles collapsed and a new media system matching more democratic traditions was designed gradually. As a result trust of the audience in regional press, consumption tradition (opposed to national press) decreased only slightly. For instance, in 2011 regional papers along with weekly and monthly papers were among the most consumed papers (especially outside Riga (the capital of Latvia) Region) (Vendele 2012).

Even though circulation of regional papers has decreased, according to studies conducted by TNS Latvia, regional press has maintained trust of the audience as, for instance, in the spring of 2006 49% of respondents had read or leafed through one regional paper while in the spring of 2012 – 39% and in the spring of 2013 – 36%. The decrease is remarkably sharper in case of daily papers: in the spring of 2006 – 50%, in the spring of 2012 – 21% and this year only 17% of respondents had read or leafed through one daily paper (Tolka 2006; Vendele 2013). For people living in the local community regional press is one of the primary sources of information about the latest developments in the local environment, therefore, it is safe to assume that regional papers will not disappear in the future, however, they will be forced to transform to adapt to advantages ensured by the new type of (electronic) media.

3. Characteristics of regional journalism and journalists

Terms ‘journalist’ and ‘journalism’ are most commonly used to define “activities associated with compiling news and people who create it” (Zelizer 2004, p.12). Regional journalism may symbolically be compared to ‘a window’ through which one sees “part of the world we live”, points our B. McNair, Researcher of Communication Processes (McNair 2006, p.37).

In order to facilitate ‘professionalization process’ of journalism, researchers of mass communication all around the world have conducted numerous studies trying to define what a ‘true’ journalist should be like (what professional values, character traits s/he should have, what functions s/he should fulfil etc.), however, they have failed to agree on a common vision. According to Researcher of Communication Processes T.K. Russo, there are 5 typical values or traits ideally associated with journalists: 1) public service – journalists fulfil informative function in society (‘watchdog’, information collector and disseminator); 2) objectivity – journalists are fair, neutral, objective,
honest, and reliable; 3) independence – journalists should be autonomous, free, and independent in their work; 4) urgency – journalists should have a sense of urgency and speed; 5) ethics – journalists should have a sense of ethics, argumentation, and legality (Apker and Eggly 2004, p.415). Communication researchers believe that possession of these 5 ideally typical traits/values would not only have a positive impact on journalists’ professionalism but also improve the quality of work of representatives of other occupations.

Nowadays people live in a mediated world, therefore they are inevitably influenced by media created products. A particular portrayal of reality is done depending on the way journalists select events and sources to be published, systemize the content of publication thus rejecting any other possible depictions of the event (Camauër 2010, p.98). Ability of the media to affect public opinion creates a symbolic sense of power in representatives of mass media which means assuming even greater responsibility for their work and the potential consequences (Lester 2010, p.591). Symbolic power is the ability to influence, draw attention as well as shape reality in society and consequently affect the life of local communities through various symbolic shapes.

Journalists of regional press are not only portrayers of local daily life who inform, educate, and entertain but also creators of the sense of belonging to the respective community and local environment. Journalists of regional press are part of the local community thus they are non-anonymous individuals who are closely related to the audience and processes within it and consequently under (un)intentional pressure of the local community (Krogh 2008, p.16). For its consumers regional paper is a ‘lesson’ at the end of which its developers (journalists) must take responsibility for objectivity, neutrality of the content, possible response in society and consequences.

4. Possibilities and threats of regional journalism in Latvia

Regional journalism in Latvia has been little studied, so that the profession of history and development of the overall picture is patchy. In 1920 media environment in Latvian had only about 10% of women who worked mostly in editions that addressed to women and children. The rapid entry of women into journalism was during the Soviet period. It was supported by the soviet ideology - socialism for women is preferable than capitalism.

Nowadays, opposed to the experience of foreign countries (Fröhlich 2007, p.163-165) – 71% of journalists at regional papers are women (Uzule 2012), feminization trends have been observed in regional journalism in Latvia. Persons interviewed during the study explained this situation by giving several reasons associated with the decreased prestige of occupation (compared to Soviet times) and relatively low salaries as well as the common belief in society that journalism is not a masculine occupation and the tradition that men mostly want to take higher offices, namely, be editors, deputy editors or department heads. Researchers in studies conducted in the Netherlands, USA, and the UK have found a common ever-increasing trend regarding occupations dominated by women – the so-called ‘gender switch’ (Van Zoonen 1999, p.50), namely, such occupations are more and more often called ‘pink collar’ or ‘velvet’ occupations – traditionally low paid areas for women, such as cosmetologist, waitress, secretary. For decades there has been a global trend when occupations dominated by women are getting less and less paid compared to occupations dominated by men. One might even say that “journalism and other related areas have become the bottom level of ‘pink-collar ghettos’ in terms of salary and status” (Beasley 2007, p.24).
Female journalists and editors agreed that this occupation is not a ‘walk in the park’, namely, it is hard for women to work in this occupation. According to studies conducted in foreign countries, women face the so-called ‘double shift’ on a daily basis: “first family and care and responsibility for children [...] and job responsibilities, career growth” (Fröhlich 2007, p.173). One of the female journalists interviewed said that even though she has a really nice family her daily work life is so tense that it has somehow become of primary importance in her life: “I was asked to tell about myself at an event and the first thing I mentioned was my work. My husband and little son were standing next to me and my heart trembled with horror.” Family is often the thing that prevents women from reaching higher goals in their personal career: “As I have children, this fact interrupted my career. After returning to the editorial office I had to start all over again”, says one of the female journalists. Moreover, many journalists interviewed said that the specific character of occupation – work almost 24/7 – leads to overload and exhaustion which affects health. “I get up at 4 or 5 in the morning to write as I cannot manage to do everything”, says a journalist. According to studies in foreign countries, younger female journalists leave journalism: “Many young journalists face the ‘glass ceiling effect’ in their careers sooner and later and decide to change their occupation” (Mahtani 2005, p.306). Women do not see any opportunities for growth and they do not want to lose their femininity for the sake of professional growth. Female journalists working in Kurzeme’s regional press also admit thinking about the change of occupation to reduce the level of stress and load, have more time to themselves (health, sleep, education) and family but in the majority of cases they have changed their mind as “they cannot do anything else”, “they have formed a habit as they have been working for many years” or “it would be hard to find another workplace in the vicinity”. When asked about the most common problems faced in their professional activity journalists interviewed mention the limited number of sources and ‘closeness’ to audience. “The longer a person works in regional press the better he gets to know nearly all people in the vicinity, the more he grows together with the local environment thus the probability of becoming unprofessional increases”, says a female journalist. Developers of papers believe it is very hard to maintain neutral attitude in the local environment as readers of papers often do not separate professional life of the respective person from his/her private life. Journalists are frequently identified as ‘friends of society’ and ‘conscience’ – help is searched for if a matter needs to be resolved, an injustice prevented or a common problem solved, home for a stray pet found. “The reader appreciates our work, asks us for help as we have earned trust”, this journalist’s observation is also confirmed by studies conducted by TNS on habits of the society of regional press consumption (Vendele 2012).
Even though employees of regional papers say that their basic task is to inform about local events as “a person buys this paper to find out what is happening in the vicinity”, they are also aware of their supervisory function: “We will never reveal state secrets but we are fulfilling the role of ‘little watchdog’ in the region!” Along with fulfilling informative, supervisory, entertaining and social functions journalists also have an explanatory and research role: “It is not as important to make a one-day scandal as it is to explain and show problems to people.” Even though none of Kurzeme’s regional papers has put down editorial code of ethics in writing, there are certain ‘unwritten principles’ journalists never breach, such as to always be as objective, neutral, and honest to the reader and themselves (their conscience) as possible, to respect sources of information and the audience. Although journalists have experienced unethical, abusive situations in their daily editorial work – attempted physical and emotional intimidation after publishing ‘unwanted information’, financial bribery by putting an envelope (with money in it) on the desk or giving a trip to a resort as a gift for holiday in order to ensure ‘more favourable’ publication, all editorial staff interviewed denied their participation in such unethical activities.

In Latvia (along with Awakening) as in other post-Soviet countries (Lauk 1996), mainly national scale papers faced gradual journalist generation change while in regional press there are still many seniors who began their career during the Soviet press system. They say they have adjusted to the new working conditions at the same time maintaining their scrupulous attitude to work. They reproach their younger colleagues for carelessness, negligence and poor ‘sense of language’. In Soviet times journalism was a very prestige occupation as “papers were cheap, people read a lot and we were their ‘family’ members who earned respect over time”, whereas nowadays journalists are sometimes called ‘žurnalugas’ (žurnalaļugas – scornful derivative of the word ‘journalist’ – žurnālists in plural). According to journalists, the decreased prestige of journalist occupation may be explained by the sudden mass emergence of tabloids and journalists’ sometimes negligent attitude to work as well as the rapid pace of life in the 21st century which requires ‘instantaneousness’ which poses a threat of losing professional standards of journalism and endangering not only the general image but also the existence of occupation in the future.

In order to maintain their position in the media system and compete with modern mass media, their features (Chapman 2011, p. 307), journalists and editors of Latvian regional press are actively working on developing websites for papers: “We will not earn anything that way but it is a very good opportunity to rouse interest in people”, says a journalist. Moreover, editorial offices conduct studies (surveys, questionnaires, focus groups, and phone interviews) more and more often to find out wishes, interests, and expectations of the audience, the content of papers is planned better by making separate series of articles, for instance, on subjects that might interest young families – “thus accustoming the family to the paper and shaping the next generation of its readers!”

5. Conclusion

Along with the end of WW2 when regional press in Latvia became a stable value in the general mass media system, development and transformations of regional papers begun. Media system developed intentionally by the Soviet power, its control, content censorship according to Communist ideology and consequently use of the press to achieve their political goals created a stable ever-increasing press consumption tradition over a long period of time. The number of regional papers increased gradually and maintained its position almost intact until the Awakening.
Paper consumption tradition has been affected not only by the experienced global economic crisis, rise in unemployment and thus decreased financial resources of people and emigration to foreign countries to earn a living but also by the increasing development, availability, and popularity of modern technologies, electronic (internet) media.

Also nowadays even though circulation and number of subscriptions to papers are decreasing regional paper consumption traditions decrease more gradually than those of, for instance, national papers. This phenomenon may be explained not only by the legacy of traditions created by the Soviet system (consumption of numerous papers and steady high social status of occupation) but also by the specific task of regional papers in the local environment, namely, to fulfil informative, educational, research and social role thus not only influencing and shaping public opinion and understanding of developments but also shaping and transforming the local identity. Thus the underlying professional principles of journalists, responsibility to their work and readers to avoid losing trust of the audience is even more important.

Foreign experience shows that failure to prevent the development of feminization processes of regional journalism encourages projections that regional journalism in Latvia might become a comparatively low paid occupation that loses its status in society and consequently experiences regression. Decreasing the current feminization trends and ensuring that journalists are satisfied with agenda of the occupation as well as encouraging transformations of the former format of regional papers according to the opportunities ensured by the modern technologies and expectations of the audience may facilitate growth in this area.

Close and systematic interaction between creators of regional papers and the audience pose a threat to lose objectivity and independence by turning from ‘little watchdogs’ into ‘lapdogs’ which follow instructions by authorities instead of fulfilling supervisory functions. Consistent separation of professional activities from the personal ones, resistance to the wish of ‘local oligarchs’ to influence (buy) the content of papers as well as focused and well-thought-out “nurturing of the new generation of readers” will facilitate development of regional journalism, rise in professional value standards and consequently professional prestige.

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Globalisation, European Integration and Institutional Changes

Abstract:
In the process of globalization there not only exchange of goods and capital flow takes place, but also a permeation of certain ideas, values, and systemic solutions. Theoretically it should cause some institutional changes. Is that actually true? And what is the direction of this changes? The second issue is that countries are not involved in the process of globalization with the same intensity. In addition, the EU countries are not only involved in globalization, but also in more intensive integration, which theoretically should accelerate the institutional changes. The aim of the paper is to examine the impact of European integration on globalization and the relationship between globalization and chosen elements of institutional environment. The institutional environment is defined as both: a part of the public regulation sphere as well as less formal rules (the level of corruption, the approach to gender equality, political accountability, etc.). The first part of the research is a comparative analysis of the intensity of globalization in the countries which participate in the European integration process and in those that do not participate in integration. The second part examine the relationship between different areas of globalization and chosen elements of institutional environment. The study is based on statistics published by international organizations, and is conducted with usage of cluster analysis, distance matrices, panel analysis and other methods of statistical description.

Keywords: Globalization, European Integration, Institutions, Institutional Changes.

JEL Classification: F15, F60, F69, H10, O50, P48

1 Introduction
Considerations on determinants of the prosperity of nations has a long history in economic research. D. Rodrik concludes, that the research on the causes of socio-economic development can be specified in three main fields: geography, integration/globalisation and institutions (Rodrik, 2003). Contemporary, there is no doubt that the institutional environment matters. Many studies show that the quality of institutions is causal for economic development and often primary also for other factors affecting the development (Rodrik, Subramanian, Trebbi, 2004). E.g. natural resources may become a factor of development as well as a brake (so called 'Dutch disease') - it depends on how countries use it, which is also a part of institutional approach (Stiglitz, 2007, p. 151-176).
The quality of the institutional environment (both formal and informal) is a result of combination of many factors, and countries in this respect are very diverse. In the process of globalization there not only exchange of goods and capital flow takes place, but also a permeation of certain ideas, values, and systemic solutions. That can raise a question, what are the links between the globalization and the institutions. The second issue is that countries are not involved in the process of globalization with the same intensity. In addition, the EU countries are not only involved in the process of globalization, but also in more intensive integration, which theoretically should accelerate the institutional changes. Figure 1 visualizes the subject of the research.

Institutional environment is defined in the paper widely, as formal and informal rules that influence behaviour in society (Groenewegen, Spithoven, van den Berg, 2012, p. 24). It refers to three main dimensions: economic, political and ideological (Kirdina, 2003). There are many indicators that can be used to measure institutional environment. The paper focuses on issues connected with respect for the law and property rights, size of regulations and government, political stability and possibilities of participation in the process of establishing the authorities, and also some social issues (the attitude to education, gender and natural environment), which are not literally institutions, but some effects of institutions rooted in values present in the society. The indicators are described in the next part of the paper.

The aim of the paper is to examine the impact of European integration on globalization and the relationship between globalization and chosen elements of institutional environment. Hence, there are two main questions in the research:

- Does the European integration accelerate globalization?
- Do some particular institutional changes accompany the globalization process?

Source: Own compilation.
In order to answer the first questions countries were divided into groups with usage of a cluster method. The basis of the division was a similarity of the countries in three spheres of globalization: economic, social and political (KOF Index of Globalization and its component were used in this part). The cluster analysis enabled a comparison between countries – which countries participate in globalization process, and how intensively, where the EU countries are and with which other countries they create a clusters. On the basis of the cluster analysis there was created a control group (the non-EU courtiers involved in the globalization process with similar intensity in comparison to the EU courtiers) and conducted comparative analysis of the dynamics and directions of the involvement in the globalization process.

The second part of the research includes the analysis of the relationship between KOF Index of Globalization and selected indicators connected with institutional environment. As a method were used coefficients of determination (to get general view of the relationship) and the panel analysis.

The empirical analysis is preceded by a brief review of the literature on the subject of the research.

2 Institutions, globalization, and European integration

Although institutions are a frequently used term in economics, the way of defining the institutions is not homogenous. In the literature it is common to make distinction between the Original/Old Institutional Economics (OIE) (e. g. T. Veblen, J. Commons, W. Mitchell) and the New Institutional Economics (NIE) (e. g. R. Coase, D. North, O. Williamson, E. Ostrom) (Stankiewicz, 2005, p. 10-31; Groenewegen, Spithoven, van den Berg, 2012, p. 64-78). T. Veblen defines institutions as “prevalent habits of thought with respect to particular relations and particular functions of the individual and of the community” (Veblen, 1899/2005, p. 144). J. Commons sees them as “collective action in control, liberation and expansion of individual action” (Commons, 1931). D. North defines institutions as “the rules of the game in a society or, more formally, are the humanly devised constraints that shape human interaction” (North, 1990, p. 3). Adding the word “constraints” subtly changes the previous meaning. As G. Hodgson points: “Institutions both constrain and enable behaviour. However, a constraint can open up possibilities: it may enable choices and actions that otherwise would not exist. (…) But a hidden and most pervasive feature of institutions is their capacity to mould and change aspirations, instead of merely enabling them. This aspect of institutions is neglected in the new institutional economics”.

Another difference in perception of institutions is an approach to organizations. D. North makes a distinction between institutions (the rules and the enforcement characteristics of these rules) and organizations (the group of individuals bound by a common purpose) (North, 1993), while such economists as O. Williamson or J. Stiglitz treats organizations as a special form of institutions (Williamson, 2000, Stiglitz, 2000).

Institutions are also variously classified. A. Kuncic proposes three classifications of institutions (Kuncic, 2012): subject category (political, social/ideological or economic, sometimes in addition legal (Kirdina, 2003, Joskow, 2008), degree of formality (formal and informal), and classification based on the institutional matrix and action arena (hierarchic classification developed by North: Level 1: social environment that contains mainly informal institutions such as customs, traditions, norms, religion, cultural patterns; Level 2: institutions or institutional environment, defined as the formal institutions or formal rules of the game, especially property rights, polity, judiciary and bureaucracy; Level 3: the institutions of governance, where governance structures are aligned with transactions, especially contracts with their transaction costs; Level: 4 the rules that govern resource
allocation and employment. The more primary is the level, the more difficult is to change institutions present in the society (Williamson, 2000, Kuncic 2012).

The paper is embedded in the classification based on the subject and takes the approach of understanding institutions as certain informal and formal rules that influence behaviour and which are meant to provide certain ordering or safeguards in the society’s life (Groenewegen, Spithoven, van den Berg, 2012, p. 64-78; Furubotn, Richter, 2000, s. 6). Economic dimension of institutions is connected with market institutions (enforcement of properly working market by legal system, property rights, regulation). In political area it covers such aspects as rules of establishing the authority, rules and limits of a government/state, in social – some beliefs, attitudes, capacity of social capital (Kuncic 2012).

One of the main interests of institutional economists is an impact of institutions on socio-economic development. D. Rodrik, A. Subramanian, and F. Trebbi (2002) proves that the impact of institutions has primacy to geopolitical factors for economic growth. There are many research also on economic and political freedom (e. g. De Haan, Sierrmann, 1998, De Haan, Sturm, 2000; Carlsson, Lundström 2002, Ayal, Karras 1998; Dawson 2003, N. Berggren, 2003). Authors most often point that political and economic freedom supports the growth, but there is a special importance of property rights, well-functioning legal system, and free competition. However some aspects in this area are moot. The impact of property rights is not that obvious when we consider the countries in imitating stage (for example in Central and Eastern Europe results of protection of property rights are not that beneficial as in Western Europe; Brycz, 2013). Also the research on governance are not always homogenous in conclusions. For example, M. Olson’s research shows that political stability may have negative impact on the rate of growth, because people become less adaptive in a very stable environment.

Independently of the impact of a particular institutions on a different areas of socio-economic development, economists generally agree that institutions matters. And one of the factors that can influence the institutional environment is a globalization. Globalization in the research is frequently reduced to international trade and capital flows. In the literature, however, there can be found a distinction between internationalization and globalization. H. Daly clarifies that “Internationalization refers to the increasing importance of international trade, international relations, treaties, alliances, etc. (…) Globalization refers to global economic integration of many formerly national economies into one global economy, mainly by free trade and free capital mobility, but also by easy or uncontrolled migration” (Daly, 1999). Hence, in relation to institutions, globalization is not only about creating the formal rules and organizations for supporting international trade. In globalization process there are many possibilities for a contact between different cultures, hence values, habits, attitudes (Kearney, 1995). In that context the process of globalization has probably as many advocates as opponents and is considered as a factor that stimulates technological, economic and social development, as well as a cause of deepening the social and economic inequalities and degrading of national cultures (Dulupçu, Demirel, 2005). It is also pointed that the process of globalization needs to be accompanied by growing the size of government. D. Rodrik claims that “the small, highly open European economies like Austria, the Netherlands, and Sweden, have large governments in part as a result of their attempts to minimize the social impact of openness to the international economy. It is in the most open countries like Denmark, the Netherlands, and Sweden that spending on income transfers has expanded the most” (Rodrik, 1997). However, the statement that it is globalization that stands behind the policy of these
countries seems to be risky, especially in case of the Scandinavian countries where the Law of Jante has a strong impact on shaping formal and informal rules in the society.

In the literature there is also present a debate on the relationship between European integration and globalization. While by some economists the European integration is perceived as an answer, or even antidote to globalization and the way of protection against Americanization, by other is seen as a driving force for globalization process because of promoting liberal and democratic values (Ladi, 2006). M. Castells combines this two idea in one statement: “European integration is, at the same time a reaction to the process of globalization, and its most advanced expression” (Castells, 2000, p. 348). B. Rosamond and C. Hay provide a detailed meta-analysis of the different approaches to the role of the European integration in the context of globalization, where globalization is treated as a challenge or as a threat for social model of capitalism, and the European integration process is seen as a form of attempting to control a global economy or as a global campaigning for core labour standards and corporate social responsibility, and setting globalisation within a moral framework (Rosamond, 2005; Hay, Rosamond 2002) P. Graziano even suggests that in the near future we can expect the “Europeanization of globalization” (Graziano, 2003). In fact, Europe had already put a contribution into globalizing in 18th and 19th century during colonisation and industrial revolution (O'Rourke, 2002), so the present process in that context is rather changing the face of the way of participation in globalization.

Leaving aside judging if the impact of globalization and integration is a positive or negative phenomenon or which institutional changes are desirable, the next part of the paper focuses on the empirical study of the impact of European integration on involvement in globalization and a coexistence of some institutional elements that accompany the globalization process (in a worldwide scope).

3 Cluster and comparative analysis of the world in the context of globalization

The aim of this part of the research is to examine if the European integration accelerates globalization. For measuring the intensity of globalization the KOF Index of Globalization was used. Table 1 shows components of the index. The index was constructed by A. Dreher from the KOF Swiss Economic Institute and is based on three main pillars: economic, social and political globalization. The index is in the range from 0 to 100 and is available for 187 countries, for the period 1970-2010. In case of Restrictions higher score means less of restrictions.

The KOF Index of Globalization is not the only measure of globalization. There also exists the Globalization Index that was developed under TransEurope Research Network - the programme directed and managed by the ESF Standing Committee for the Social Sciences (France). The index contains data on economic, socio-technical, and cultural globalization, but covers years 1970-2002 (Raab et al, 2008). Another worth of mention project on globalization was conducted by scientists from the Centre for the Study of Globalisation and Regionalisationis of University of Warwick (The United Kingdom). CSGR Globalisation Index measures the economic, social and political dimensions of globalisation in the period 1982-2004 (Lockwood, Redoano, 2005). The KOF Index was chosen because of a comprehensiveness and the most actual data.
Table 1. Components of KOF Index of Globalization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. Economic Globalization</th>
<th>B. Social Globalization</th>
<th>C. Political Globalization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Actual Flows</strong></td>
<td><strong>Restrictions</strong></td>
<td><strong>B-I.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade (percent of GDP)</td>
<td>Hidden Import Barriers</td>
<td>Personal Contact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Direct Investment, stocks (percent of GDP)</td>
<td>Mean Tariff Rate</td>
<td>Information Flows</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portfolio Investment (percent of GDP)</td>
<td>Taxes on International Trade (percent of current revenue)</td>
<td>B-II. Information Flows</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income Payments to Foreign Nationals (percent of GDP)</td>
<td>Capital Account Restrictions</td>
<td>B-III. Cultural Proximity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Telephone Traffic</td>
<td>Internet Users (per 1000 people)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transfers (percent of GDP)</td>
<td>Television (per 1000 people)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International Tourism</td>
<td>Trade in Newspapers (percent of GDP)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Foreign Population (percent of total population)</td>
<td>Number of McDonald's Restaurants (per capita)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International letters (per capita)</td>
<td>Number of Ikea (per capita)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Trade in books (percent of GDP)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Dreher, 2006.

The countries were divided into groups with similar level of the KOF Index with usage of hierarchic and the k-means cluster methods. The cluster analysis was based on Euclidean distance for all categories of KOF Index (A-I, A-II, B-I, B-II, B-III, C) for the year 2010. The following formula was used:

\[
d(x_i, x_k) = d_{ik} = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{p} (x_{ij} - x_{kj})^2}
\]

The average distance is a square root of the sum of differences between the value of \( j \) characteristic for the objects \( x_i \) and \( x_k \) and \( p \) is the number of characteristics.

Hierarchic cluster analysis was conducted in order to choose the number of the groups for k-means analysis. Figure 2 shows the dendrogram for 187 countries (because the dendrogram was too large, similarities/dissimilarities below 20 points are not shown). According to the results (the line on the figure 2) there was chosen 11 as a number of groups for k-means cluster analysis.
Figure 2. Cluster analysis of globalization for 187 countries (2010)

Source: Own study.

Table 2. Cluster groups for the KOF Index of Globalization – part 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I</th>
<th>II</th>
<th>III</th>
<th>IV</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>VI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Bahrain</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>Argentina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Kuwait</td>
<td>Belarus</td>
<td>Dominican Rep.</td>
<td>Azerbaijan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>Brunei</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech Rep.</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>Darussalam</td>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>Chile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>United Arab Emirates</td>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>Colombia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>Costa Rica</td>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>Ecuador</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>Dominican Rep.</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>Iceland</td>
<td>Icealnd</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>El Salvador</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>Fiji</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>Guatemala</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>Honduras</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovak Rep.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Indonesia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Korea, Rep.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Nicaragua</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Own study.
Tables 2 and 3 show the cluster groups. The EU countries are bolded. The EU countries are in group I, II, IV, and only Romania in V, so the EU countries do not create one separate cluster group. There are also some non-EU countries in the same groups, so they can be a control group for the next part of the analysis.

Table 3. Cluster groups for the KOF Index of Globalization – part 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VII</th>
<th>VIII</th>
<th>IX</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>XI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Albania</td>
<td>Antigua and Barbuda</td>
<td>Angola</td>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Armenia</td>
<td>Bahamas</td>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>Bhutan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bolivia</td>
<td>Barbados</td>
<td>Congo, Rep.</td>
<td>Benin</td>
<td>Burundi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bosnia and</td>
<td>Belize</td>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>Burkina Faso</td>
<td>Central African Rep.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Herzegovina</td>
<td>Dominica</td>
<td>Lesotho</td>
<td>Cameroon</td>
<td>Chad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td>Grenada</td>
<td>Mauritania</td>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>Comoros</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cote d'Ivoire</td>
<td>Seychelles</td>
<td>Papua New Guinea</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>Eritrea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Djibouti</td>
<td>St. Kitts and Nevis</td>
<td>Vanuatu</td>
<td>Iran, Islamic Rep.</td>
<td>Guinea-Bissau</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gabon</td>
<td>St. Lucia</td>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Haiti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambia</td>
<td>St. Vincent and the</td>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>Mali</td>
<td>Madagascar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>Grenadines</td>
<td></td>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>Malawi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guyana</td>
<td>Swaziland</td>
<td></td>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>Mozambique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>Turkmenistan</td>
<td></td>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>Myanmar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kazakhstan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>Niger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kyrgyz Rep.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>Sierra Leone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libya</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>Sudan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Namibia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yemen, Rep.</td>
<td>Tajikistan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Tanzania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samoa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syrian Arab Rep.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Togo</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trinidad and Tobago</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Own study.

The countries participate in the globalization process in different ways. Figure 3 shows the comparison of the cluster groups for sub-indicators of the KOF Index. Two first groups are quite similar and highly globalized in all spheres. Actual Flows Index is slightly lower in the second group. Groups III and IV are less globalized. The main difference between these two groups is Cultural Proximity (lower in fourth group). Groups V and VI are far less globalized in spheres described as economic and social globalization. Only political globalization is on a relatively high level, and in case of group V also Cultural Proximity. Groups VII and VIII are very specific. Although highly restrictive (especially group VIII), they have a high level of Actual Flows, and do not participate in Cultural Proximity. In eighth group are such countries as Maldives, Seychelles, Bahamas, so mainly touristic, island countries - that can explain the specificity of this group. Group IX participates mainly in economic globalization (Actual Flows) and in the Information Flows. Group X has a high score only in political globalization. The last group is the least globalized in all spheres.
In order to examine if integration accelerates globalization there were created control groups. Figure 4 shows the cluster analysis only for this groups which includes the EU countries. Hierarchic cluster
is more precise on similarity of countries in comparison to k-means method, so according to the dendrogram form figure 4 some countries were eliminate form a comparative analysis, because they were too different. Those are: whole cluster in the middle (China-Russia), and also Bahrain, Oman (next to Russia), and Montenegro (the last one).

**Figure 4. Dendrogram for groups containing the EU countries (I, II, IV, V)**

![Dendrogram](image)

Source: Own study.

**Table 4. Groups for a comparative analysis of involvement in globalization process (the EU and control groups)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Highly globalized</th>
<th>Less globalized</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>EU</strong></td>
<td>Group 1E</td>
<td>Group 2E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Slovak Republic</td>
<td>Luxembourg, Bulgaria, Estonia, Malta, Latvia, Lithuania, Slovenia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Non-EU</strong></td>
<td>Group 1N</td>
<td>Group 2N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Australia, Canada, Norway, Switzerland, Singapore</td>
<td>Belarus, Brunei Darussalam, Costa Rica, Croatia, Georgia, Iceland, Jordan, Lebanon, Macedonia, Mauritius, Qatar, Moldova, New Zealand, Panama, Serbia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Own study.
Table 4 shows the final groups for a comparative analysis. There are groups 1 and 2 (with a different level of average globalization) with separation of the EU and Non-EU countries. New member states are bolded. Control groups were created in order to compare countries with similar level of globalization and to check how did they get to the point they are now (how fast, what was the level of starting point, do groups followed some different paths of globalization).

Tables 5 and 6 show the Euclidean distances for considered groups in period 1991-2010. Extension of the EU took place in 2004 and 2007, but integration process is not only case of accession but also preparation before accession, so the considered period is wider. Table 5 contains division into groups: World (185 countries), whole EU (EU-27), old member states (EU-15), new member states (EU-12), and Non-EU countries (not only form control groups, but in general). Table 6 contains analysis for groups from table 4.

Table 5. Euclidean distances for the EU and Non-EU countries – part 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>World-185</th>
<th>EU-27 vs Non-EU</th>
<th>EU-15 vs Rest</th>
<th>EU-12 vs Rest</th>
<th>EU-15 vs EU-12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>46,0</td>
<td>59,5</td>
<td>70,5</td>
<td>45,3</td>
<td>55,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>47,2</td>
<td>61,6</td>
<td>69,7</td>
<td>48,6</td>
<td>44,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>47,3</td>
<td>62,3</td>
<td>69,0</td>
<td>49,6</td>
<td>36,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>46,4</td>
<td>61,4</td>
<td>64,4</td>
<td>51,9</td>
<td>28,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>44,7</td>
<td>58,9</td>
<td>60,7</td>
<td>50,4</td>
<td>23,3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Own study.

The first column in table 5 shows average distances within the world, which started to decrease around the year 2000. Distance between the EU-27 and Non-EU countries was decreasing till the expansion of the EU (EU-27 includes also new member states, which were not in the EU before 2004). In case of EU-15 distances in comparison to the rest of the world were decreasing throughout the considered period (third column). The distances for EU-12 show an increase in comparison to the rest of the world and a dynamic decrease in comparison to the old EU (last column).

Table 6. Euclidean distances for the EU and Non-EU countries – part 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1 vs Rest</th>
<th>1E vs Rest</th>
<th>1N vs Rest</th>
<th>1E vs 1N</th>
<th>2 vs Rest</th>
<th>2E vs Rest</th>
<th>2N vs Rest</th>
<th>2E vs 2N</th>
<th>1 vs 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>69,2</td>
<td>65,5</td>
<td>73,4</td>
<td>27,5</td>
<td>46,6</td>
<td>47,1</td>
<td>45,3</td>
<td>34,3</td>
<td>59,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>69,3</td>
<td>66,2</td>
<td>70,6</td>
<td>24,1</td>
<td>47,7</td>
<td>48,7</td>
<td>46,1</td>
<td>34,9</td>
<td>56,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>68,8</td>
<td>66,4</td>
<td>66,8</td>
<td>19,6</td>
<td>47,5</td>
<td>48,8</td>
<td>45,7</td>
<td>33,6</td>
<td>48,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>65,5</td>
<td>64,1</td>
<td>60,8</td>
<td>19,9</td>
<td>47,0</td>
<td>50,1</td>
<td>44,3</td>
<td>32,6</td>
<td>42,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>62,3</td>
<td>61,0</td>
<td>56,9</td>
<td>14,4</td>
<td>44,6</td>
<td>47,9</td>
<td>41,5</td>
<td>26,5</td>
<td>35,6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Own study.

Table 6 is more detailed. An increase in case of the distance between groups 1 and 2 and the rest of the world is not significant. The rate of increase was higher in Non-EU groups (1N and 2N) than in
EU groups (1E and 2E), however differences between the EU and Non-EU countries from the first group decreased almost twice, and in the second group – of nearly 10 points. Also distances between first and second group decreased significantly.

Distances shows similarity/dissimilarity between countries, but not a direction of changes. Hence there arise a question are these changes of distances because of lower rate of globalization in more developed countries, higher in less developed countries, or some other constellation of changes? Figures 5-8 show the direction of changes for groups: the new EU countries form first group (1E_12), the old EU countries from first group (1E_15), Non-EU countries form first group (1N), the new EU countries form second group (2E_12), Non-EU countries form second group (2N). Group 2E-15 is not present, because it is only one country (Luxembourg).

**Figure 5. The dynamics of globalization – Total KOF Index**

In case of total value of the KOF Index of Globalization (figure 5) it can be seen that a decrease of distance between EU-15 and EU-12 is mainly because of a dynamic increase of the index in the new member states group. Both groups – 1E_12 and 2E_12 – had highest rate of globalization in the considered period. The Non-EU countries form the first group (1N) since the beginning were highly globalized. The old EU at the beginning was at slightly lower position, but around the 2000 year they achieved the same level, and in 10s. became slightly more globalized. Hence, the decrease in distances that could be seen in the third column of table 6 is a result of a catching up process. Group 1N has been at the similar level since many years, while other countries became more globalized. The situation in the second group is different. Countries from this group were at the same level in 1991. Both groups – 2E-12 and 2N – became more globalized, but in case of the EU countries this process was faster.

Similar observations apply in the case of sub-indicators of the KOF Index. The most significant increase took place in Economic Globalization (figure 6) in 2004 for the new EU countries from first group (1E_12). Again, starting point of the new member states and 2N group was similar, but countries that got involved into European integration became more globalized. According to Social Globalization (figure 7) – all countries form the first group had higher score in 1991 in comparison to second group, but the highest rates of indices could be observed in the EU countries, especially EU-12. Higher progress in Political Globalization in the new member states (figure 8) is an obvious
effect, according to the specific of integration, because the EU is an observer, partner or member in many international organisations (e.g. the G8, the G10, the World Trade Organisation and many more), so new member states become involved in this cooperation as a part of integration process.

The aim of the paper is not to judge if globalization is positive or negative phenomenon, but to examine how European integration influence an involvement in the globalization process. According to the analysis of the dynamics and directions of changes, that can be assumed that the European integration process accelerates the globalization.

**Figure 6. The dynamics of globalization – Economic Globalization (KOF-A Index)**

![Figure 6](source)

**Figure 7. The dynamics of globalization – Social Globalization (KOF-B Index)**

![Figure 7](source)
Relationship between globalization and institutional changes

The second part of the research focuses on the relationship between globalization and institutional changes. For the analysis were selected these indicators, where it was expected that the economic, social, and political globalization can be significant, except for those items that demonstrate explicit cointegration (e.g. institutions associated with free trade vs. A-II of the KOF index). Because participation in the international trade and political cooperation requires some public service the analysis included size of the state. Due to the flow of human capital and economic activity also these indices, which relate to the level of regulation of business, credit and labour markets, are present in the research. In theory, political cooperation should result in a stabilization of political situation, but on the other hand it often requires an adaptation of the internal systems, which in turn can cause some destabilization, so it is worth to consider indices connected with political stability.

If globalization brings a penetration of certain attitudes and habits, it is also reasonable to take into account such aspects as respect for the law, the level of corruption, accountability, willingness to upgrade qualifications, attitude to the gender and to the natural environment. Hence, for measuring institutional changes followed indicators were used:

- Political Stability and Absence of Violence (WGI),
- Voice and Accountability (WGI),
- Control of Corruption (WGI),
- Regulations (Business, Credit, Labour) (EFW),
- Size of Government (EFW),
- Legal System & Property Rights (EFW),
- Education Index (HDR),
- Gender Inequality Index (HDR),
- Environmental Performance Index.
Indicators marked with WGI symbol are part of the Worldwide Governance Indicators, marked as EFW – part of Economic Freedom of the World Indices, and as HDR – indicators published in Human Development Reports.

The Worldwide Governance Indicators are published by the World Bank for over 200 countries since 1996. The WGI include six components (Voice and Accountability, Political Stability and Absence of Violence/Terrorism, Government Effectiveness, Regulatory Quality, Rule of Law, and Control of Corruption), which are based on several hundred variables obtained from 31 data sources (nongovernmental organizations, commercial business information providers, and public sector organizations worldwide). Indicators are in the range from -2.5 to 2.5 (Kaufmann, Kraay, Mastruzzi, 2010). For the analysis were chosen three indicators, these not selected were replaced with some other indicators form EFW, that seemed to be more adequate for the subject of the research. The chosen indicators are:

- Voice and Accountability (perceptions of the extent to which a country's citizens are able to participate in selecting their government, freedom of expression, freedom of association, free media);
- Political Stability and Absence of Violence/Terrorism (perceptions of the likelihood that the government will be destabilized or overthrown by unconstitutional or violent means, including politically-motivated violence and terrorism);
- Control of Corruption (perceptions of the extent to which public power is exercised for private gain, including both petty and grand forms of corruption, as well as "capture" of the state by elites and private interests).

Economic Freedom of the World is a project conducted by Fraser Institute to measure the degree to which the policies and institutions of countries are supportive for economic freedom. Summary index contains five main sub-indicators (Size of Government, Legal Structure and Security of Property Rights, Access to Sound Money, Freedom to Trade Internationally, Regulation of Credit, Labor, and Business) based on forty-two another measures (Gwartney, Hall, Lawson, 2012). Indicators are available for 144 countries, since 1970. The range is from 0 to 10. Because the indicators measure economic freedom, higher score means a lower level of state intervention. For the analysis were chosen:

- Size of Government (government consumption, transfers and subsidies, government enterprises and investment, top marginal income tax rate, top marginal income and payroll tax rate);
- Legal System and Property Rights (judicial independence, impartial courts, protection of property rights, military interference in rule of law and politics, integrity of the legal system, legal enforcement of contracts, regulatory restrictions on the sale of real property, reliability of police, business costs of crime);
- Regulation of Credit, Labor, and Business (ownership of banks, private sector credit, interest rate controls/negative real interest rates, hiring regulations and minimum wage, hiring and firing regulations, centralized collective bargaining, hours regulations, mandated cost of worker dismissal, conscription, administrative requirements for business activity, bureaucracy costs, starting a business, extra payments/bribes/favouritism, licensing restrictions, cost of tax compliance).
The research includes also some social issues, which are reflections of the values present in the society: participation in education, the attitude to gender equality and the protection of natural environment. Following measures were chosen:

- **Education Index**, which is one of main components of Human Development Index constructed under the United Nations Development Programme in 1990. HDI covers nearly 200 countries, and some calculations are available even for 1980; all indices provided in the HDR are in the range 0-1. The Education index is based on expected years of schooling of children (number of years of schooling that a child of school entrance age can expect to receive if prevailing patterns of age-specific enrolment rates persist throughout the child’s life) and mean years of schooling of adults (average number of years of education received by people ages 25 and older, converted from education attainment levels using official durations of each level) (Malik, 2013);

- **Gender Inequality Index**, also published in the Human Development Reports, but not included in main HDI. The index measures reflecting inequality in achievements between women and men in three dimensions: reproductive health (maternal mortality ratio, adolescent fertility rate), empowerment (female and male population with at least secondary education, female and male shares of parliamentary seats), labour market (female and male labour force participation rates) (Malik, 2013);

- **Environmental Performance Index** constructed by a team from Yale Center for Environmental Law (Yale University) and Policy and Center for International Earth Science Information Network (Columbia University). EPI is published for over 200 countries for period since 2000, and contains two main sub-indicators (in the range 0-100): Environmental Health (Air pollution - indoor air pollution, particulate matter; Water – access to drinking water, access to sanitation; Environmental burden of disease – child mortality), and Ecosystem Vitality (Air pollution - sulfur dioxide emissions per capita, sulfur dioxide emissions per GDP; Water change in water quantity; Biodiversity and habitat – biome protection, marine protection, critical habitat protection; Forests – forest loss, forest cover change, growing stock change; Fisheries – coastal shelf fishing pressure, fish stocks overexploited; Agriculture – agricultural subsidies, pesticide regulation; Climate change – CO₂ emissions per capita, CO₂ emissions per GDP, CO₂ emissions per electricity generation, renewable electricity) (Hsu, 2012).

Because indicators are in different range, they were rescaled to the same range (form 0 to 100). Figure 9 shows general view on relationship between KOF Index of Globalization and elements of the WGI and the EFW, and also Education Index, Gender Inequality Index and Environmental Performance Index, for the year 2010. Table 7 contains coefficients of Pearson’s correlation (R) and determination (R²) for components of the KOF Index for the same year.

Only Size of Government and Gender Inequality are correlated negatively, but in case of Size of Government correlation with KOF Index is not statistically important (R = 0.32, R² = 10%). Most correlated with the KOF Index are: Legal System and Property Rights (R = 0.76, R² = 58%), Gender Inequality Index (R = -0.75, R² = 56), Education Index (R = 0.72, R² = 52%). Score R > 0.5 is also present for Control of Corruption (R = 0.66, R² = 44%), Voice and Accountability (R = 0.62, R² = 38%), Environmental Performance Index (R = 0.6, R² = 36%), and Political Stability and Absence of Violence (R = 0.52, R² = 27%). In table 7 scores R > 0.5 are bolded. Such
result can be observed in almost all cases (an exception is Size of Government) for Economic Globalization (A) and Social Globalization (B, especially B-I – Personal Contact). Political Globalization is not correlated significantly with any of chosen indicators. The highest scores are for Legal System and Property Rights vs. B-I (Personal Contact): \( R = 0.78, R^2 = 60\% \), Control of Corruption vs. B-I: \( R = 0.75, R^2 = 56\% \), and Gender Inequality Index vs. B (Social Globalization): \( R = -0.76, R^2 = 57\% \).

**Figure 9. Relationship between the KOF Index of Globalization and elements of institutional environment (2010)**

![Graphs showing relationships between KOF Index of Globalization and elements of institutional environment](image-url)
y = -0.2643x + 80.133
R² = 0.1009

y = 0.3027x + 50.803
R² = 0.227

y = 0.9127x + 9.9419
R² = 0.5157

y = -0.8835x + 92.483
R² = 0.5629

y = 0.3842x + 28.924
R² = 0.3617

Source: Own study.
Table 7. Correlation and determination between components of the KOF Index of Globalization and indicators of institutional environment (2010)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institutions/KOF Index</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>A-I</th>
<th>A-II</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>B-I</th>
<th>B-II</th>
<th>B-III</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Size of Government</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>-0.25</td>
<td>-0.22</td>
<td>-0.32</td>
<td>-0.29</td>
<td>-0.32</td>
<td>-0.26</td>
<td>-0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 141</td>
<td>R²</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regulation</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 141</td>
<td>R²</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal System &amp; Property R.</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 141</td>
<td>R²</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control of Corruption</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 170</td>
<td>R²</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voice &amp; Accountability</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 170</td>
<td>R²</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political Stability</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 170</td>
<td>R²</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Index</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 169</td>
<td>R²</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Inequality Index</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>-0.61</td>
<td>-0.44</td>
<td>-0.61</td>
<td>-0.76</td>
<td>-0.59</td>
<td>-0.67</td>
<td>-0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 169</td>
<td>R²</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>57%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Pref. Index</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 127</td>
<td>R²</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N – number of countries, R – Pearson’s correlation coefficient, R² – coefficient of determination
Source: Own study.

Because correlation coefficients tend to be misleading sometimes, in order to examine the relationship between globalization and elements of institutional environment more precisely the panel analysis was conducted. The analysis combines the cross-sectional and time-series data. The aim of this part is to examine in which cases the KOF Indices explain the variability of characteristics connected with institutional environment, and to examine where the relationship is statistically important.

The analysis was conducted for panel data with usage of linear models of regression:

\[ Y_{it} = \beta X_{it} + \alpha_i + \epsilon_{it}, i = 1, ..., n, \]

where:

- \( Y_{it} \) – explained variables (vector of measures of institutional element for the country \( i \), and \( t \) period),
- \( \beta \) – vector parameter,
- \( X_{it} \) – matrix of explanatory variables (components of the KOF Index),
- \( \alpha_i \) – time-invariant component,
- \( \epsilon_{it} \) – idiosyncratic error,
- \( n \) – number of countries.
Models are with fixed effect on the basis of the Hausman test. Models with fixed effect are used when each entity (country) has its own individual characteristics that may have impact on the predictor variables. Fixed effect removes the effect of assumed time-invariant characteristics from the predictor variables and allows to assess the predictors’ net effect (Cameron, Trivedi, 2010, p. 237-238).

Table 8. Results of panel analysis for the KOF Index of Globalization and elements of institutional environment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Voice and Accountability</th>
<th>Control of Corruption</th>
<th>Political Stability &amp; Absence of Violence</th>
<th>Regulation</th>
<th>Size of Gov.</th>
<th>Legal System &amp; Property Rights</th>
<th>Education Index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A-I (Actual Flows)</td>
<td>0.049451 (0.02135) **</td>
<td>0.022685 (0.01818)</td>
<td>-0.017814 (0.02679)</td>
<td>0.137741 (0.02404) ***</td>
<td>0.204396 (0.03358) ***</td>
<td>-0.018565 (0.02781) ***</td>
<td>0.099152 (0.01398) ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-II (Restrictions)</td>
<td>0.165881 (0.02398) ***</td>
<td>0.043694 (0.01764) **</td>
<td>0.044575 (0.02599) *</td>
<td>0.133029 (0.02195) ***</td>
<td>0.101509 (0.03069) ***</td>
<td>0.136549 (0.02556) ***</td>
<td>0.030071 (0.01368) ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B-I (Personal contact)</td>
<td>0.245488 (0.02472) ***</td>
<td>-0.055661 (0.03791)</td>
<td>-0.184738 (0.05586) ***</td>
<td>0.017714 (0.05202)</td>
<td>0.130608 (0.07355) ***</td>
<td>0.166326 (0.06117) **</td>
<td>0.191123 (0.02836) ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B-II (Information Flows)</td>
<td>0.186904 (0.02864) ***</td>
<td>-0.036530 (0.02191) *</td>
<td>-0.058483 (0.03227) *</td>
<td>0.311877 (0.02981) ***</td>
<td>0.142398 (0.04201) ***</td>
<td>-0.099747 (0.03487) **</td>
<td>0.245037 (0.01646) ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B-III (Cultural Proximity)</td>
<td>0.010726 (0.01716) *</td>
<td>0.024226 (0.01528)</td>
<td>0.011638 (0.02252)</td>
<td>0.027382 (0.01837)</td>
<td>0.021211 (0.02571)</td>
<td>0.015561 (0.02122)</td>
<td>0.018691 (0.01044) *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C (Political Global)</td>
<td>0.207223 (0.02122) ***</td>
<td>0.015544 (0.01854)</td>
<td>0.096267 (0.02732) ***</td>
<td>0.16023 (0.02489) ***</td>
<td>0.003468 (0.03542)</td>
<td>-0.019112 (0.02928)</td>
<td>0.101618 (0.01443) ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Const.</td>
<td>0.356743 (1.87468) ***</td>
<td>50.4032 (1.97548) ***</td>
<td>52.66598 (2.91058) ***</td>
<td>16.93318 (2.61062) ***</td>
<td>27.5836 (3.72766) ***</td>
<td>48.4322 (3.09816) ***</td>
<td>22.9133 (1.42551) ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observ.</td>
<td>1572</td>
<td>1572</td>
<td>1572</td>
<td>1509</td>
<td>1474</td>
<td>1469</td>
<td>1023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Countries</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²: within</td>
<td>0.5746</td>
<td>0.0100</td>
<td>0.0172</td>
<td>0.3474</td>
<td>0.1110</td>
<td>0.0273</td>
<td>0.6273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>overall</td>
<td>0.0011</td>
<td>0.0007</td>
<td>0.3772</td>
<td>0.2726</td>
<td>0.1210</td>
<td>0.6449</td>
<td>0.7136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test-F</td>
<td>349.90</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>121.82</td>
<td>27.86</td>
<td>6.24</td>
<td>248.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effect</td>
<td>Fixed</td>
<td>Fixed</td>
<td>Fixed</td>
<td>Fixed</td>
<td>Fixed</td>
<td>Fixed</td>
<td>Fixed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** p < 0.001; ** p < 0.05; * p < 0.1
Source: Own study.
Table 8 shows the results of the analysis. The cells of the table contain coefficient value, standard error (in brackets), and probability values for t-test of the hypothesis that each coefficient is different from 0 (p < 0.05 means rejection of the hypothesis, hence the considered variable has a significant meaning for a dependent variable). The table also contains the number of the countries and observations, coefficients of determination ($R^2$) and results for F-test. Panels were strongly balanced. The periods of the analysis were:

- for the EWF components: 1995, 2000, 2001-2010,

The periods were determined by availability of data. Gender Inequality Index and Environmental Performance Index are not included because of lack of sufficient observation.

According to $R^2$ there can be observed that globalization explains the variability of elements of institutional environment in 70.71% for Education Index, 58.5% in case of Legal System and Property Rights, and 55.44% for Political Stability and Absence of Violence. In other cases models are less suited, so there have to be some other factors that are more meaningful for variability of those indicators of institutional environment.

Restrictions (A-II) and Information Flows (B-II) have the highest statistical importance. There is no situation where the relationship would be statistically unimportant for this two indicators (all p at least below 0.1, usually p < 0.001). In case of the relationship between Information Flows and Legal system and Property Rights, Control of Corruption, and Political Stability and Absence of Violence coefficients are negative (higher Information Flows is accompanied by lower institutional scores). For the rest of the institutional indicators coefficients are positive. For Personal Contact (B-I) the most statistically meaningful (p < 0.001) is relationship with Voice and Accountability, Political Stability and Absence of Violence (this one is negative), Education Index, at the second place (p < 0.05) with Legal System and Property Rights, and at the third (p < 0.1) with Size of Government. Actual Flows (A-I) has most important relationship with Regulation, Size of Government and Education Index (p < 0.001), at the second place with Voice and Accountability. Political Globalization (C) has a high statistical importance (p < 0.001) in case of Voice and Accountability, Political Stability and Absence of Violence, Regulation, and Education Index. In other cases Political Globalization is statistically unimportant (p > 0.1). The weakest scores are for Cultural Proximity (B-III) – there are only two relationships with some statistical importance (0.05 < p < 0.1).

The highest importance of the relationship is between the globalization and:

- Voice and Accountability, especially (p < 0.001) Restrictions (A-II), Personal Contact (B-I), Information Flows (B-II), and Political Globalization (C), at the second place (p < 0.05) Actual Flows (A-I);
- Regulation, especially (p < 0.001) Actual Flows (A-I), Restrictions (A-II), Information Flows (B-II), and Political Globalization (C);
- Education Index, especially (p < 0.001) Actual Flows (A-I), Personal Contact (B-I), Information Flows (B-II), and Political Globalization (C), at second place (p < 0.05) Restrictions (A-II).
Slightly lower statistical importance (but still significant) can be noticed in the case of:

- Size of Government: the highest importance of the relationship (p < 0.001) with Actual Flows (A-I), Restrictions (A-II), and Information Flows (B-II), the analysis does not confirm that globalization is accompanied by larger government (coefficients are positive);

- Political Stability and Absence of Violence: the highest importance of relationship (p < 0.001) with Personal Contact (B-I) and Political Globalization (C); elements of Social Globalization (B-I and B-II) has negative values of coefficients.

For Legal System and Property Rights most significant is relationship (p < 0.001) with Restrictions (A-II), at the second place (p < 0.05) with Personal Contact (B-I) and Information Flows (B-II). For Control of Corruption only two relationships have some statistical importance (not that high as in previous cases) – Restrictions (A-II, p < 0.05) and Information Flows (B-II, p < 0.1). But in case of this indicator F-test and R\(^2\) gives very poor results, so it is not justified to treat this results as convincing.

4 Conclusions

Globalization, European integration, and institutional changes are wide and multifaceted issues. The research was focused on two aspects: examination of the impact of the European integration on acceleration of involvement in the globalization process and the relationship between globalization and institutional changes. The main conclusions form the analysis are:

- European integration accelerates globalization process: the EU countries have globalized faster in comparison to the Non-EU countries from the control groups. It is visible in the all areas of globalization.

- In static analysis the KOF Index of Globalization is most correlated with Legal System & Property Rights (+), Education Index (+) and Gender Inequality Index (-); at the second place with Voice and Accountability (+) and Control of Corruption (+).

According to the panel analysis:

- Models are most suited (explain the variability of characteristics at the level of the coefficients of determination above 50%) in case of Legal System and Property Rights, Voice and Accountability, and Education Index; the poorest results are for Size of Government and Control of Corruption.

- The most statistically important are relationships between institutions and: Economic Globalization – Restrictions, Social Globalization - Information Flows; then Social Globalization - Personal Contact, Political Globalization, and Economic Globalization – Actual Flows; the least statistically important is relationship with Social Globalization – Cultural Proximity.

- Globalization seems to be accompanied (positive and statistically important relationship) mainly by changes in Education Index, Voice and Accountability, and Regulation (where higher score in Regulation means higher level of freedom in this sphere). Changes in Legal System and Property Rights accompany the globalization process (the relationship is statistically important and model is relatively highly suited), but the relationship is not unidirectional (positive in case of Restrictions and Personal Contact, negative for Information Flows). Also Political Stability and Absence of Violence does not have clear
relationship: while with Political Globalization has positive relation, for Personal Contact and Information Flows coefficients are negative. Panel analysis does not confirm that globalization is accompanied by larger government.

The purpose of the analysis was to give an overall view on the subject. Because indicators are highly aggregated, it is worth to conduct a deeper analysis for more decomposed data – this is one of the directions of the future research. Neither correlations, nor models of regression does not answer the question about a causality (is it globalization that cause these institutional changes or the institutional changes result in openness to globalization) – this is the second directions of future analysis. The third one is to examine the impact of the institutional changes that occur in globalization process on socio-economic development.

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