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INTRODUCTION

Aldis Baumanis, Dr.paed.

Editor-in-Chief of the Journal of Turiba University
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Over the last decade, many studies in economics, law and communication have found that the current circumstances in these sciences form the conditions that will determine what comes next. New economic, technological, business or communication patterns are never created from nothing. They are constructed from the previously existing components. The new components in combination with other standards make possible the awareness of and proficiency in XXI century academia and industry trends.

Nowadays, for a university to lead the market and take advantage of its positioning, it has to exploit research results, on both levels – theoretical and empirical. Researchers, academia and entrepreneurs are challenged to take “the best from research”, to be able to see problems and integrate proposals and solutions from multiple perspectives. Research direction planning is also challenging because of the need to understand the right information which, as a matter of fact, comes from many internal and external sources. It is essential to select and use the information that is reliable and valid.

Next, in the research direction planning we must give due consideration to computerization. The increase of computational power since 2000 is measured in terms of magnitude. It continues to explode in terms of hardware, business intelligence and algorithms. Today we can recognize specific tools for modelling businesses, solution methods for investigating finances and optimization of decision making and applications in the public sector and industry. One point must be clear that computerization should close the gap between business entity practice and the frontiers of the best research methods.

Readers of this volume of Acta Prosperitatis can get acquainted with the authors' views regarding the key elements of today's business and social environment, i.e. professional development process of the principals of educational institutions, the key account management in tax administration, difference between multimedia and intermedia, the process of creating customer satisfaction in retail, millennials, propaganda, the price of prosocial behaviour and emotional intelligence in construction industry.

Olga Arhipova and **Irēna Kokina**, two researchers from Daugavpils University, Latvia, analyse the theoretical grounds of professional development opportunities of general education institutions in Latvia and in other countries. Their paper “Variative Module System of Professional Development of Educational Institution Principals” highlights the practical application of a variative module system, VMS, to assess the professional development process of the principals of educational institutions. The authors believe that one of the major factors in the existence of problems is incongruence of the professional system to the existing situation, setting goals to employees by principals and lack of knowledge. Using VMS self-assessment, respondents admit that the most serious problems in management are

caused by the lack of knowledge in law, applied psychology, ICT, foreign languages, strategic management, education management, personnel management, financial management, communication management, management of premises.

Māris Jurušs and **Sabīne Elza Kalderauska** from Riga Technical University, Latvia, in their paper “Possible Implementation of Key Account Management Principles in Tax Administration” set out recommendations for the main common principles of key account management in tax administration. The research carried out by the authors of the paper confirms the assumption that the client relationship management must be adjusted and implemented in the tax administration through key account management. Consequently, the key account management principles should be integrated as the main tool by the State Revenue Service to increase loyalty of taxpayers and promoting paying taxes.

The paper “Intermediality: A Theoretical Discourse and an Interpretative Framework in Performance and Media Studies” by **Laine Kristberga** Turība University, Latvia, provides discourse analysis of the notion of ‘intermediality’ in performance and media studies, as well as its applicability as a creative and analytic approach in the debates on the polarization of the media. The author draws attention to the problematic status of media borders, as well as the challenges of ‘intermediality’ emphasizing the differences between ‘multimedia’ and ‘intermedia’. The major difference between ‘multimedia’ and ‘intermedia’ is that the media in ‘multimedia’ can be regarded by the viewer as separate, while in ‘intermedia’ or in ‘intermedial’ forms a conceptual fusion or hybridization, making it impossible to view only one of its origins.

Iveta Linīna and **Rosita Zvirgzdiņa**, Turība University, Latvia present the paper “Patērētāju apmierinātības veidošanās process mazumtirdzniecībā” (“The Construction of the Process of Customer Satisfaction in Retail”). The authors of the paper stress that the process of customer satisfaction should be based on the principles of integrated marketing, i.e. it should be a long- term relationship process between retailer and customer. Moreover, retailer must clearly recognize and understand every customer demand. The value-added feature of this paper is the definition of the ‘satisfaction’ given by the researchers.

Recruiting, engaging, and retaining millennials has become a critical challenge for organizations. However, little research addresses these issues of talent management in the field of corporate communication and communication management. **Juan Meng**, **Bryan H. Reber** from Department of Advertising & Public Relations, Grady College of Journalism and Mass Communication, University of Georgia, United States, and **Holley Rogers**, from Butin Integrated Communications, United States, in their paper “Managing Millennial Communication Professionals: Connecting Generation Attributes, Leadership Development, and Employee Engagement” drawing on talent management theory, evaluate millennials as a unique and influential group to understand their expectations and opinions for recruitment, engagement, integration and leadership development in communication management. In-depth interviews with 39 millennial professionals working in strategic communication in a variety of organizations (e.g., full-service communication agencies, public corporates and non-profits) reveal several key themes and a broad consensus within this generation. Findings indicate that millennial professionals are a contradictory generation, desiring independence, flexibility, and challenges balanced with clear expectations, regular evaluation, and safety nets in case of failure.

Pier Paolo Pedrini, Scuola Specializzata Superiore Tecnica della Moda, Lugano, Switzerland, and **Jean-Patrick Villeneuve**, Università della Svizzera Italiana, Lugano, Switzerland, in their paper “Fear Propaganda: from the Great War to the Modern Communication” carry out an investigation of the propaganda of fear through the production of the posters that served to motivate and galvanize the people minds during the Great War and World War II. Appealing to fear has its main motivation in causing interlocutors to consider the seriousness of the problem and is effective if, upon reading the message, they follow the instructions given by propagandists. The analysis of the posters of American and British forces identified the different persuasive strategies used. The success of the posters was that of moulding the agenda setting and the opinion of citizens in order to increase the enlistment to defend the identity of the nation. The authors draw parallels with today’s war propaganda, also with the themes that guide consumers in their shopping, and members of the public in their political choices.

Daina Škuškovnika, Turība University, Latvia, in her paper “Prosocialās rīcības cena” (“*The Price of Prosocial Behavior*”) outlines people’s need for safety: they must be sure that when they need help, other people around them won’t be indifferent. It means, each individual also needs to feel ready to help others when necessary. Unfortunately, the results of several scientific studies confirm the urban – overload hypothesis – people living in big cities are constantly subjected to intensified stimulation and they are therefore forced to distance themselves in order to avoid emotional overload. Her study is conducted by analysing Latvian students’ experiences and assessment of possible actions in situations in which people around them need help that require some kind of extra effort, time or use of other resources. The research creates a deeper insight which social and psychological factors influence the individual’s desire to provide assistance to people, as well as the price of prosocial actions in modern society

The aim of the paper “Responsibility and Emotional Intelligence in Construction” by **Ināra Ziemele**, Turība University, Latvia, is to summarize information about responsibility and emotional intelligence in construction industry since the new Construction Law and other Construction Regulations came into force. The author of the paper analyses why it is important to speak about and discuss responsibility and emotional intelligence in construction industry. The comparative analysis, systematic text condensation and theoretical methods of research have been used to investigate, analyse and summarize information of publications and regulatory enactments about responsibility and emotional intelligence in construction. The main conclusion drawn from her research is that taking into account the established organizational culture in construction, the situation around the construction objects would improve if there is an online system, where to register the specific construction works.

On behalf of the editor-in-chief, I would like to express hope that this volume 8 of the Acta Prosperitatis will be received and read by the community of business researchers, managers and educators, as a result enabling better organization and business management decisions. Research articles of this issue are intended to provide not only a useful facts for the other studies, but also the possibility of supplementing readings for advanced courses for undergraduate and graduate students in business, communication and law.

VARIATIVE MODULE SYSTEM OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION PRINCIPALS

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Abstract

Aim. Analysis of the theoretical grounds of the political aspect of educational institution principals' professional development, and proving that the practical application of VMS (variative module system) efficiently facilitates the professional development process of educational institution principals.

Background. The research comprises an interdisciplinary study that provides an analysis of professional development opportunities of general education institution principals both in Latvia and abroad applying the theoretical aspects of management science, education management, education science, psychology, organization psychology, sociology, economics and other science branches and/or subbranches.

Methods. In the research, for the professional development of educational institution principals in Latvia it is important to suggest scientifically grounded conceptions, theories, and new, variative modules of professional development. It is also necessary to suggest new perspectives for educational institution principals in their professional development. Investigation of the professional development of educational institution principals sets as imperative the philosophical approach of constructivism and communicative approach. In the science of education they complement each other and provide the holistic view. Both conceptual approaches make it possible to elaborate a scientific conception that includes several variative modules that secure a multi-dimensional view of the professional development of educational institution principals.

Results. The elaborated content of the variative module system and its sub-modules is oriented at competence improvement in a particular sphere of education. Its aim is providing an opportunity of fostering the professional aptitude of educational institution principals, acquiring new developments in the content and methodology of education, creatively applying them in educational management in line with the aims, learners' needs and interests, management philosophy, and basic principles of leadership.

Conclusions. In the process of research, respondents pointed out a number of problems existing in the professional development of educational institution principals. As one of the major factors in the existence of problems is mentioned incongruence of the professional system to the existing situation and goals set to the system of education. Objective analysis of the existing situation needs both familiarization with the external environment and its impact factors,

their analysis and prognosticating, and locating inner development factors and their analysis. In the process of elaboration of a variative module system of professional development of educational institution principals, information related to education issues was collected, summarized, then analyzed and assessed in the regional, national, and international context.

Keywords: leadership, management, principal, professional development

Introduction

In a rapidly changing environment, principals no longer serve primarily as supervisors. They are being called on to lead in the redesign of their schools and school systems. In an outcome – based and accountability driven era, administrators have to lead their schools in the rethinking of goals, priorities, finances, staffing, curriculum, pedagogies, learning resources, assessment methods, technology, and use of time and space. They have to engage in continuous evaluation and school improvement, create a sense of community, and build morale in a time of transformation.

At present there is an objectively determined process of the formation of a new type of education paradigm that envisages both in content and organization passage from an informational-reproductive model to that of a creative search. Solution of these problems requires operative organization in Latvia of the growth of professional competence of educational institution principals as managers in the sphere of education. For this reason the existing system of qualification upgrading of school principals is being actively reformed all over the world. In the last decade the rapid increase in the educational level and qualification of school principals has reached a global scope. In the framework of many international projects there are studies of the regulations of recruiting, educating, and further training of education leaders in Europe (*Educational leadership development in Finland, the Netherlands and France; Improving School Leadership, Finland 2007; Verbiest 2006, etc.*). External and internal political and socio-economic changes in the 21st century have conditioned a need for further professional training of educational institution principals and their deputies, as well as Education Board leaders and employees. Each country has its own experience and practice in the regulations of recruiting school leaders, including also their special education and professional development provision (e.g. *Anderson, 1991, First-time Principals Programme, etc.*).

In Finland applicants to a position of basic or secondary school principal are required to have pedagogical education, pedagogical work experience matching the specificity of school, and a certificate in education leadership that may be obtained by studying in further education programmes at universities, education centres and institutes, or university study courses no less than 25 ECTS credit points, or good proficiency in education management. Mentoring and further education of school principals are organized (*Educational leadership development in Finland, the Netherlands and France, Improving School Leadership, Finland 2007*). **In the Netherlands** some may obtain qualifications in education management by studying part- time in a two-year master's programme envisaged for both the existing and would- be educational institution principals. **In France** all applicants before starting work must stand a competition and take professional training courses that consist of two parts. **In the UK** since 2004 obtaining qualifications in

education management is compulsory for all educational institution principals (*Education (Head Teacher's Qualifications) (England) 2003*). It is based on the national school principals standard (*A Comparative Study of Educational Leadership Development and Qualifications in the Czech Republic and England; Bush 1998; National College for School Leadership; Teachernet*). In 2001 in the **Czech Republic** there was adopted the National Education Development Programme that determined education of the administrative staff of educational institutions and urged teachers to take an active part in the decision making process, thus securing the efficiency of a fundamental change in school culture (Table 1).

Table 1

Professional education of leaders in Europe

Country	Educational level of school principals	Programmes
Finland	Pedagogical education certificate in education management	Further education programmes offered by education centres and institutions, university study courses no less than 25 ECTS credit points
The Netherlands	Teacher qualification, compulsory further education of school principals	Master's programme
France	Pedagogical worker, professional training courses	Diploma equivalent to a master's degree
UK	Compulsory obtaining of qualification for education institution principals	National school principals standard
Czech Republic	Teacher qualification	<i>Positional educating I, Positional educating II</i>
Latvia	Pedagogical education	Master's programme, higher education institution programme
Belarus	Pedagogical education certificate in education management	Postgraduate academy professional upgrading courses

According to several authors (Šmite, 1998; Celma, 2006; Kukele, 2003), professional competence of a school principal is an integral professional and personality quality characterized by his/her readiness for dealing with management problems of varied complexity level. Management of such a complex dynamic system as school in the period of the contradictory stage of the development of Latvia requires from a principal not only an adequate and quick reacting to all the changes of the external and internal environment, but also predicting the development of these processes. The task of specifying the theoretical and methodological prerequisites of the complex development of functioning and personality of an educational institution leader appears as an escape from aggravating of the existing situation and locating the necessity, content, and conditions of the organization of the process of qualification upgrading of a school principal (Praude & Beļčikovs, 2001).

Efficient solution in Latvia of the tasks of qualification upgrading of educational institution leaders requires from the organizers of the system of education a search for an answer to the question: "What knowledge is considered as up-to-date?" The urgency of this question especially rises in relation to managers in the sphere of education as a special category of learners. Efficiency of the processes of professional upgrading of school principals is greatly determined by their ability to produce the analysis of systemic relations in their action, work with knowledge setting limits and principles of organizing their future action as leaders of developing educational institutions, support of their personal and professional growth as managers in the sphere of education.

1. Theoretical framework

The main function of leadership, according to Schein (Schein, 1985), is shaping and directing the organizational culture. The leader must have an insight into how the culture of the school can possibly hinder the fulfilment of the vision and mission, and which skills are needed to make the desired changes happen. Both leadership and management come together in the job of a principal. Mintzberg (Mintzberg, Henry & Harper, 1973) states that 'formal authority vests the manager with great potential power, but that leadership activity determines how much of it will be realized'.

Principals face the challenging task to look for the balance between management and leadership, both in the organizational processes and in the culture of the school.

In European countries we see that the higher level of professionalism, which is demanded, consists of the following aspects:

- the introduction of the public – state model into school management foresees the involvement of a wide range of 'actors' (parents, public organizations etc.), who are partly involved in the educational management processes;
- the principal will become the decision maker and will receive the authority to make decisions for his particular school;
- Modern schools exist in a market environment, which means that a principal needs to deal consciously with external sources. Marketing, communication and public relations play important roles in this field;
- transition towards a new structure and contents of general secondary education demand new models in scientific and methodological work at school. This deals with pedagogy (the school climate, development of the school vision 'What kind of school do we want to be') and didactics (how can we make the most of the human capacity to learn, how can help to develop the human potential in our school);
- the principals are responsible for the processes in the school, whether it is about school development, the budget, staff issues, cultural activities or the quality of the educational process. Since this is such a major task with such large responsibilities, it is important for the principal not to be solely responsible, but to share responsibility amongst other members of the school management and amongst members of staff.

All the aforementioned aspects clearly show that more attention should be paid to professional development. The principal needs to obtain new insights and modern

knowledge on management, leadership and organizational development. He/she needs to consolidate the existing skills and learn new ones. He/she must be aware of his/her competencies and realize which ones need special attention and further development. Moreover, principals have to find out their personal needs in the field of professional development. The personal needs should be turned to the needs of the school organization. In that way the school, its members and the principal will blossom and flourish (Adey, 2002). Over the years, three different philosophical orientations have guided the education and professional development of school administrators: traditional/scientific management, craft, and reflective inquiry. The traditional model is characteristic of preparation programs at universities. Principals select this model based on their desire to pursue additional coursework in an area of professional interest; to obtain an advanced degree; to renew or upgrade their administrative licensure; or a combination of these objectives. (Daresh, 2002)

The **traditional model** exposes the principal to the research base on management and the behavioral sciences. She or he learns the general principles of administrative behavior and rules that can be followed to ensure organizational effectiveness. The participant is often a passive recipient of knowledge, and the source of professional knowledge is research generated at universities. Learning activities are institutionally defined and generally not tailored to the specific learning needs of principals or reflective of their specific school context.

In the **craft model**, the principal is trained by other experienced professionals. Here, the principal is the recipient of knowledge from seasoned administrators whom she or he shadows in internships and field experiences. The purpose of shadowing is for the principal-observer to see how another principal interacts with school personnel and the public, deals with problems, and responds to crises. The observer learns another way of handling school concerns. In the craft approach, the source of professional knowledge is the practical wisdom of experienced practitioners and the context for learning is a real school setting. (Daresh & Male, 2000)

In the **reflective inquiry approach** to professional development, the principal is encouraged to generate knowledge through a process of systematic inquiry. The focus is to create principals who are able to make informed, reflective and self-critical judgments about their professional practice. Here, principals are active participants in their learning and the source of knowledge is in self-reflection and engagement. The goal is to encourage principals to reflect on their values and beliefs about their roles as school leaders, take risks and explore new skills and concepts, and apply their new knowledge and skills in real school contexts.

Professional development can also be regarded as a systematic and cyclic process. This process has been captured in a model, which can help and support principals in the continuous process of professional development in relation to school development. The cycle is built around the juxtaposition of the actual behavior and the desirable / necessary behavior. The professional profile can help to focus on what the principal needs to develop. Using the cycle shows that professional development is a cyclic movement. (Bassett, 2001)

A principal, who is oriented on results, is sure about his/her own possibilities; that only he/she can solve the existing problems with unknown answers; and that he/she will learn to find answers during work. They are ready to turn for help to competent persons, because they are free of competition fear. Personal behavior and action of such people are well – thought – out. If it is necessary, it will be improved. Increasingly rare – just in case of troubles and failures, circumjacent are blamed. Solutions are searched, in order to use more useful circumjacent's skills and wishes. It purposefully helps to direct the staff, as well as to coordinate with the outside world. As a result, a common language with colleagues is found – and the wished is achieved. Thinking of these principals is in no way trivial – reasonableness and logic are used in the most complicated and tangliest situations. The main thought is to see and use possibilities continuously in order to accomplish the necessary aims.

2. Methodological framework

Efficient leadership is regarded by several authors as a key factor of school improvement. In many parts of the world educational institution principals are granted a high status, they are provided with special training, thus recognizing their significance. (Clift, et al., 1993)

In the last 20 years in some countries the position of educational institution principal shifts from *primus inter pares* (best among teachers) to that of a professional manager. (Aiken, 2002; Zids, 2006)

The major function of leadership, according to Schein (Schein, 1985), is to create and sustain a strong organizational culture. Leaders must realize what may impede the implementation of the vision and mission of a school, as well as understand what skills are necessary for carrying out these changes.

Both leadership and management are combined in the work of an educational institution principal. Mintzberg (Mintzberg, 1988) admits that “formal authority endows a leader with great potential power, while activity of leadership determines to what extent it will be executed”.

Educational institution principals face a challenging task of searching balance between management and leadership both in organizational processes and school culture. (Caune, Dzedons, Pētersons, 2000; Garleja, 2005)

Context and systemic character of learning in the framework of professional development creates and invests many diverse opportunities, so that educational institution principals could learn management. For this purpose, some related spheres must be considered: standards and individual development, mentoring and coaching under an expert's guidance, etc., as well as there is a need for change-oriented policy and practice. Professional development takes place while learning together with other leaders both in the educational institution and outside it. Such common learning is valuable because it unites educational institution leaders from various schools and regions. Hence, it is possible to talk about the enlargement of the system's capacity.

In the present- day context, according to Avery & Gayle (Avery & Gayle, 2004), the character of work undergoes considerable changes in the post-industrial society

and these changes affect the role of a principal. Work in the 21st century is more complex instead of being routine. Solution of educational management problems is greatly affected by system approach ideas that treat actions as a unified system that consists of mutually related elements with constant interaction of internal and external environment factors. (Караң, 1991)

Educational institution principals face a challenging task of searching for balance between management and leadership both in organizational processes and school culture. Educational institution leader is guided by a necessity to acquire management skills and obtain information on modern education management. There must be balance between theoretical knowledge, everyday practice-based skills and professional attitude in the so-called 'competence-based education'.

A school principal will have to take a full range of different roles simultaneously in the future. He/she must be a very erudite person in order to solve various problems that may apply to him/her, pupils, parents or society. If we are speaking about the solution of a conflict situation, the following skills are important: namely, those of a speaker, a diplomat and a psychologist.

A manager needs to have a high intellect and sociability for his/her work, communication culture and an emotional intelligence; skills to solve conflicts, skills to work within groups and within a team, decision making skills to accept or refuse, skills to integrate the experience of others.

A principal, as a team member, is a leader and with his/her personality and skills fascinates colleagues to fulfil common aims. .

A principal, as a person, wants to feel confidence about his/her competences and his/her knowledge. He/she wants to perfect himself/herself constantly, in order to understand his/her personal potential.

For a manager's work such skills are most essential as to direct one's own interests and the interests of others; to concentrate attention on work, on other people; to be objective, to be open to new ideas and actions, to pay attention to observations and evaluation, to feel free from personal problems and keep himself (herself) in a creative work tone. A competent manager needs creative work skills, a consummate creative thinking. Creative manager's personal characteristics are insistence, a dynamic direction, openness to changes, toleration, readiness to take a risk, wide interests, originality, inner activity, emotional intelligence.

There are modern **requirements for a principal** in management theory; they are described as management principles (Figure 1).

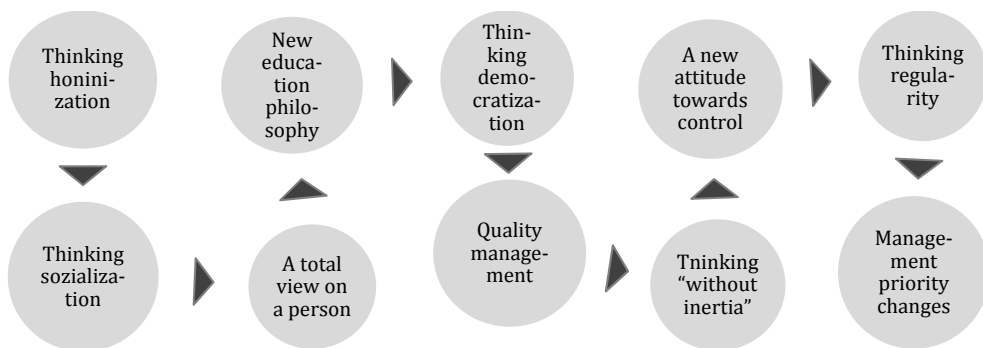


Figure 1. Management principles

3. Organization and study of the professional development process of educational institution principals

Educational institution principals' professional development is not learning in the traditional sense, but a process of knowledge exchange for the improvement of personality and public life when individuals intentionally wish to acquire new knowledge, improve their skills, develop their abilities and acquire the fundamentals of self-assessment.

Legislative and normative acts provide characteristics of terms "formal education", "informal education", "further education", "professional development", "everyday learning", while their usage in literature is contradictory, and it aggravates the perception and analysis of adult education as a unified process. Professional development is an organized and self-driven process that includes a variety of learning content, forms, and methods as well as needs of school principals as participants of the process of education, therefore it requires support, investigation of management opportunities and their improvement. (Kraštinš, 2000)

Educational institution principals' professional development needs new legislation, adequate financial support, appropriate institutional network, efficient system of management, quality frames and conditions. Education continuity means wholeness of life process and its elements that secures the development of the creative potential and enrichment of the spiritual world of personality.

The study done reveals that the implementation of educational institution principals' professional development requires:

- (vertically and horizontally) coordinated and harmonized process design and execution;
- creation of cooperation networks;
- mutual harmonizing of the educational needs of participants of the process of education and the education offer;
- accessibility of resources.

The study showed that the implementation of the process of educational institution principals' professional development is still fragmented and not properly coordinated. Neither is it clear who is responsible for its organization. In Latvia there is a lack of information on the opportunities of school principals' professional development. Major characteristics of the process of educational institution principals' professional development are the continuity of the process that forms a single whole taking into account the level of professionalism of the educational institution principal in the respective period of time, harmonization of the process elements excluding individual, though seemingly important, number of events, *systemic character*, active involvement of educational institution principals and their wishes for development, changes of the level of professionalism that is manifested in raising professional competence and education quality.

4. Results

Variative module system

For granting a high quality process of educational institution principals' professional development, methodology based on characteristic ideas of adult learning is of great importance. The main factors in this process are right planning, time, and arrangement among the new information acquisition, practice, and assessment of one's development process. No less important is the prerequisite that educational institution principals have to try out learning activities that they will later apply in their work. The best principle of the organization of educational institution principals' professional development is that of modules. Each variative module is a relatively independent part of the professional development process, a specially structured interdisciplinary thematic activity complex that is designed to facilitate respective specialization. It is a constituent part of professional development process with its nucleus, distinct beginning and end, initially formulated aims, tasks, expected outcomes, goal reaching mechanisms and control of achieved outcomes. Each variative module may have several sub-units. Variative modules may be designed and organized so that sub-units and the modules themselves might be combined. As the educational institution principals' professional development is a part of the life-long learning process, modules should be harmonized with other modes of formal and informal education in order to provide wider opportunities and variety for their creation.

Professional competence of educational institution principals is a complex notion with a manifold content. It comprises a dynamic combination of knowledge, skills, attitudes, abilities, values, and personality traits for the implementation of educational institution principals' professional development. Professional competence is to be developed during the whole professional activity as the life-long learning essence. Modern education content sets high demands for the educational institution principals' professionalism. At the same time the educational institution principals' training and professional development need support both at the local and national level because they determine the level of education of the whole society. It is most affected by the attitude of the government and society towards education as a value, towards school and its needs. It is also affected by the

participation of parents and society and co-responsibility for the education of the young generation. The task of education policy makers is to secure the opportunities and support for constant improvement of educational institution principals' professional quality and active participation in it. The goals, content, structure, modes, and methods of educational institution principals' professional development are determined by the education goals of the respective time period and the very process of changes.

The system of variative modules of educational institution principals' professional development may be very manifold both in content and form. First, they may be duties related to changes in education policy, new reforms, new standards, learning approaches and methods, textbooks and materials. For the most part they are informative events. Another significant kind of events is related to solving tasks and problems; it requires serious changes in the professional activity of education institution principals – new knowledge, abilities, skills, understanding, methods.

Variative module system is formed with the aim to create a system of educational institution principals' professional growth that facilitates constant and goal – oriented management competence development throughout all career. The opportunities of educational institution principals are growing in international circulation and include projects, experience exchange, and practice in other countries. Greater attention must be paid to the readiness of educational institution principals to make use of these opportunities and stay equally competent. Besides, these opportunities support the professional development of educational institution principals and the common European education space. The aforementioned affects the educational institution principals' professional development goals, tasks, process duration and organization, methodology, as well as requirements for the executors of educational institution principals' professional development. Variative module system envisages opportunities for educational institution principals to upgrade their proficiency and acquire professional development programmes in accordance with six modules. The system of educational institution principals' professional development is based on their need identification, analysis, investigation and defining priorities at the level of principal, educational institution, local government, and state and considering the competences necessary in leadership and their improvement in the context of life-long learning (Vanags & Vilka, 2005).

The research outcomes are shown in a scheme of a variative module system (Figure 2).

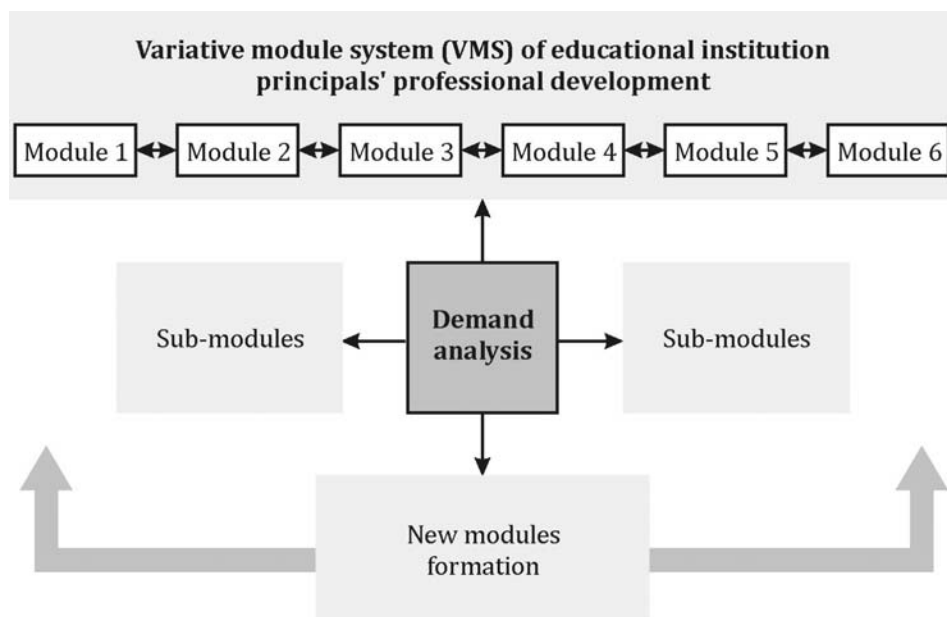


Figure 2. Variative module system

Each module is aimed at facilitating the acquisition of particular competences and/or their improvement. Six modules have sub-modules that specify the content of the respective module. To make easier the understanding of competence content, examples of recommended subjects are provided that are of an *exclusively* recommending character. The content of sub-modules of each module can be combined according to the needs and interests of educational institution principals.

Educational institution principals have an opportunity to choose a module of professional development that best meets their demands. Planning their professional development, educational institution principals first choose a module and then a sub-module or their combination.

The module system of professional development content is designed to offer educational institution principals a high quality and versatile upgrading of their professional competences. The system of content modules creates prerequisites for a balanced coverage of six professional development aspects: personnel management (motivating and managing people and making efficient use of human resources), financial management (managing, planning, and controlling resources and finances), communication management (managing internal and external communication), strategic management (elaboration of school policy, education vision and strategy and their implementation), education management, management of premises.

To clarify how general education day school principals proceed with their professional development, a research was conducted. 240 Latvian educational institution principals participated in a survey (Table 2).

Table 2

Number of respondents in places of survey

Place of survey	Number of respondents	% sub total	Number of education institution principals in places of survey	Participated in survey (%)
Bauska region	12	5.5	30	66.7
Cēsu region	14	7.8	42	66.7
Daugavpils region	15	6.4	27	85.2
Daugavpils	23	6.4	24	95.8
Dobele region	15	5.3	25	76.0
Jēkabpils region	11	7.5	32	84.4
Jelgava	8	2.8	15	66.7
Jelgava region	16	4.4	24	66.7
Kuldīga region	11	5.8	27	77.8
Ogre region	12	3.3	27	44.4
Rēzekne	10	3.9	10	100
Rēzekne region	17	7.5	36	75.0
Rīga	34	14.1	162	31.5
Ziemeļu region	1	0.3	19	5.3
Rīga region	2	0.6	49	4.1
Saldus region	10	5.5	27	74.1
Talsi region	10	5.5	30	66.7
Tukums region	12	5.8	32	65.6
Valmiera region	7	1.9	33	21.2
Total	240	100	993	35.3

Respondents were asked to write where they had upgraded their knowledge in education management in the last 3 years. Summary of the questionnaire data (Figure 3) shows that most of the school principals have upgraded their professional qualification in management by attending courses– **80** (57.1 %), seminars – **65** (45.4 %) and participating in conferences – **60** (28.0 %). **10** respondents indicated studies in master programmes. Other options include experience exchange, participation in projects – 25 respondents, as well as self-education (Figure 3).

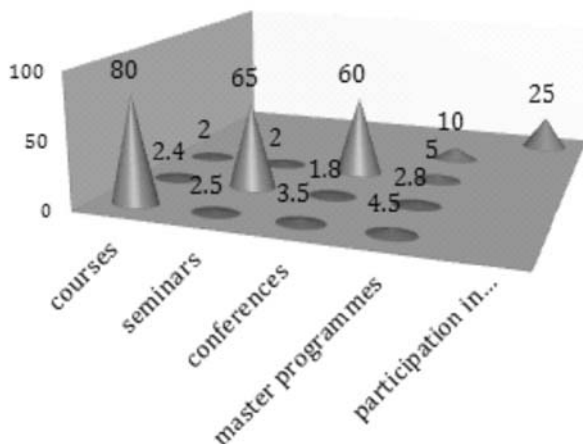


Figure 3. Professional development opportunities in education management

Respondents mentioned as three most significant indicators of school efficiency learners' academic performance, qualification of teachers, and solid school team. An important feature mentioned is also the work quality of school administration, provision of the school with resources, usage of information technologies, learning curricula offered by the school and references of higher education institutions about the school leavers.

It can be concluded that a successful school management is oriented at reaching the major goals of the educational institution. It must react fast to the needs, must be oriented to the results required and this should be achieved under the management of a solid team. Thus, a school principal is not only a "conductor" but s/he also has additional functions and liberty to execute these functions. School principals are expected to improve their erudition and abilities in order to successfully perform their new role. Under the conditions of school management, school principal's action is before everyone's eyes; it is observed by teaching staff, parents, learners, and local community, and the majority of issues must be decided at school. Efficiency of the team management is greatly dependent of the manager's ability to persuade, cooperate, adapt to new situations, creative thinking, acting, providing argumentation for one's opinion, skills of talking and listening. (Knight, 1997)

Participants of the research admit that educational institution principals' professional development starts with investigation of the experience of administration and continues with the growth of the efficiency of the process of education – improved practice.

Respondents (240 Latvian educational institution principals) point out the lack of knowledge in law (190), applied psychology (137), ICT (97), foreign languages (166), strategic management (140), education management (95), personnel management (87), financial management (145), communication management (170), management of premises (68) (Figure 4).

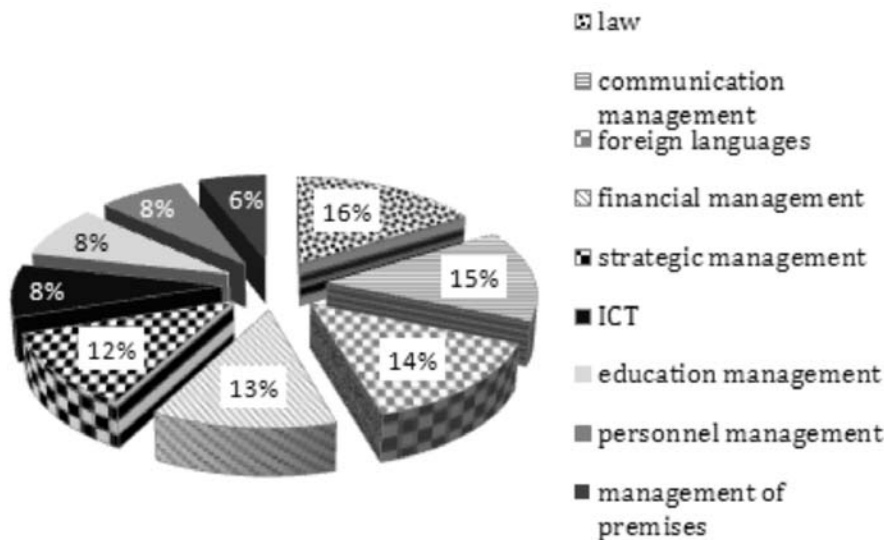


Figure 4. Lack of knowledge in certain spheres

Participants of the research characterised the process of professional development as opportunities of growth, constant development, realization in everyday situations, impact on professional performance. The dominant indicator was realization in everyday situations (220), and many respondents also marked constant development (203). 197 respondents replied that professional development has an impact on their professional performance. The least number of answers (98) were provided concerning the opportunities of growth (Figure 5).

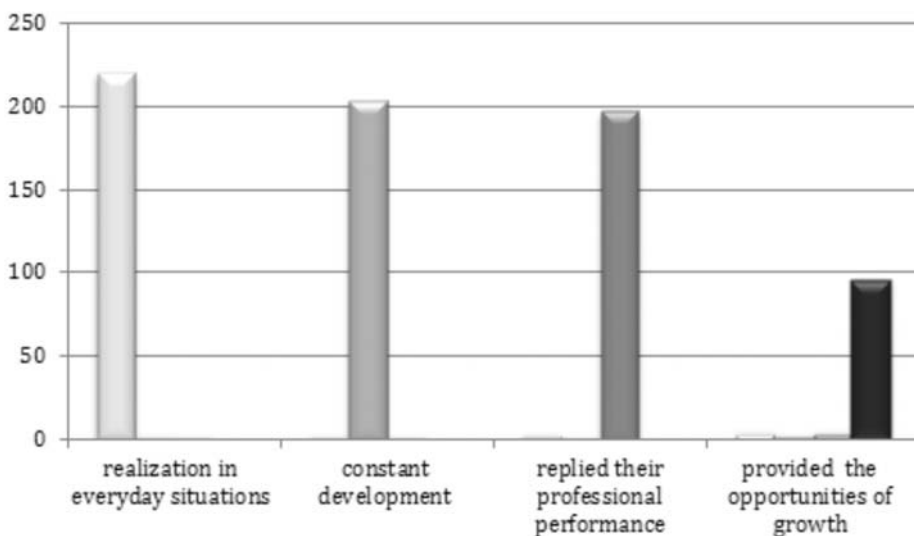


Figure 5. Professional growth opportunities

Participants of the research admit that the variative module system of educational institution principals' professional development matches the needs of the Latvian education system and state, and that all the components of the variative module system of educational institution principals' professional development are balanced. Respondents noted that the acquisition of knowledge envisaged in the variative module system of the professional development is topical for educational institution principals.

In the self-assessment respondents admit that the most serious problems in management were caused by the lack of knowledge in law, applied psychology, ICT, foreign languages, strategic management, education management, personnel management, financial management, communication management, management of premises.

Conclusions

Professional development of educational institution principals is not learning in its traditional understanding, but rather a process of knowledge exchange for the improvement of personality and community life. To secure the accessibility of educational institution principals' professional development, a two-fold approach is to be used: the existing offer must be made more visible, flexible, integrated and efficient, at the same time creating new learning processes and environments. Professional development may be regarded as a systemic and cyclical process. This process can help and provide support to educational institution principals in the constant process of professional development in relation to school development. The cycle is based on juxtaposing the actual conduct and the desired conduct. Professional profile could help to focus attention on aspects that must be developed by educational institution principal. The outcome of the research is a variative module system of educational institution principals' professional development that provides an opportunity for actualization of the existing experience, formation of new systems of reference and constructing of new experience.

The content of the variative module system and its sub-modules is tended at competence improvement in a particular sphere of education. Its aim is providing an opportunity of improving educational institution principals' professional aptitude by acquiring new developments in the content and methods of education for their creative application in the process of education management in line with aims, learners' needs and interests, management philosophy, and basic principles of management.

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POSSIBLE IMPLEMENTATION OF KEY ACCOUNT MANAGEMENT PRINCIPLES IN TAX ADMINISTRATION

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Abstract

Key account management is a major process of driving any business. However, many good principles are ignored in the management of the public sector. The basic aim of this research is to set recommendations for the main common principles of key account management in tax administration. The tasks to achieve the aim are as follows: to study essential findings from researches about client relationship management and, specifically, about key account management; to analyse current segmentation, registration and tax revenues of taxpayers from different groups; and to set basic guidelines for key account management in tax administration. The best practice of the client relationship management in business should be adjusted and implemented in the public sector, also in the tax administration. Several important stages are to be used in the key account management process including planning, actions, survey and analysis. The client survey is one of the most important parts of key account management process. Moreover, the personal performance and development plan should be set for key account manager and each team member as well, as regular evaluation must be made.

Keywords: key account management, tax administration, segmentation of taxpayers

Introduction

According to the strategy of the State Revenue Service (hereinafter – SRS) in Latvia, SRS is a client-oriented public institution and competitive governmental authority in tax and customs administration of the European Union, which promotes fair business and ensures the highest level of security on the external borders of the European Union (State Revenue Service, 2016). So, SRS needs to focus on client-orientation principles which are used in competition or market conditions, namely, the SRS activities must be directed towards the customers. To implement it tax administration needs to use the best practices from client relationship management and promote customer relationship development. One of the questions is whether it is also done in practice, not just in theory, and if customers (taxpayers) can feel it, and what their evaluation is.

Moreover, as it is in businesses, most often there is a special category of ‘important’ clients – key accounts, which usually have a special treatment or key account management. Key account management is the major process of driving any business. However, many good principles are ignored in the management of the public sector. Therefore, the best practice of the client relationship management in business should be adjusted and implemented in the public sector, also in the tax administration.

Tax revenues have significantly increased from 2004 to 2014, as well as the number of registered taxpayers (see Table 1). However, it should be analyzed which taxpayers have made essential contributions to the state budget.

Table 1
Registered taxpayers and total tax revenues in Latvia 2004–2014

Year	Registered taxpayers (legal persons)	SRS administered total tax revenues, mil EUR
2004	129 144	3 003 855,3
2005	130 772	3 780 669,3
2006	141 180	4 889 212,4
2007	145 453	6 540 864,5
2008	151 476	7 312 748,8
2009	155 430	5 600 083,9
2010	161 895	5 183 434,1
2011	177 663	5 777 082,7
2012	191 935	6 474 445,1
2013	205 808	6 828 896,3
2014	216 131	7 084 051,1
2015	212 733	7 468 522,8
2016	221 727	8 014 948,4

Source: State Revenue Service, 2017

In 1995 the SRS created the Large Taxpayers Department, which at the beginning supervised 20 largest taxpayers in Latvia (State Revenue Service, 2016). Later this department took over care about 80–100 large taxpayers. There is limited information about differences in the management of taxpayers by the Large Taxpayers Department and by other departments of the SRS. Essentially, the Large Taxpayers Department provided quite the same services as other departments, for example, informing and consulting taxpayers, collecting charges, examining complaints and submissions etc. The difference was only in the paid tax amount, but not in the attitude to clients. In fact, from 2012, the Large Taxpayers Department was remade into the Large Taxpayers Service Centre, that is still one of the Customer Service Centres. Currently, there are 1248 taxpayers served by the Large Taxpayers Service Centre (State Revenue Service, 2017).

In 2012 according to the Cabinet of Ministers Regulations No 459 of 26 June 2012 “Regulations on the Operation of the In-Depth Cooperation Programme” a special in-depth cooperation programme (hereinafter – ‘white list programme’) was introduced in Latvia. The purpose of this programme is to facilitate a closer and more efficient cooperation between taxpayers and tax administration, reducing the administrative burden. For entering into the programme, a taxpayer shall comply with the following basic criteria: a taxpayer does not have tax debts (more than EUR 150); a taxpayer has not had any complaints (has not been punished); average monthly labor earnings of employees in the first three quarters during the period of the last four quarters before submitting an application exceed 100% of the

average monthly labor earnings of employees in a corresponding economic sector; a taxpayer has introduced the internal system of tax risk management and control. A taxpayer shall also comply with other important criteria: economic activity is being carried out longer than three full reporting years; proportion of liabilities in a balance sheet does not exceed the average indicator in the industry; the total liquidity indicator is at least equal to 1; and indicator of net profit ratio is at least equal to the average indicator in the sector (Cabinet of Ministers, 2012). There is no special Service Centre for taxpayers from the 'white list programme', but they have a special approach and management. There are several criteria according to which taxpayers can apply for the programme. It can be a large taxpayer, as well as any other who meets the criteria. Currently, there are 74 taxpayers included in the 'white list programme' (State Revenue Service, 2017).

In addition, it can be noted that it is positive that the SRS cooperates with non-governmental organizations – economic sector associations, covenanting agreement to assure cooperation. (SRS 2016)

Therefore, as we can see, there has not been used one common principle of key account management in the tax administration in Latvia.

The basic aim of this research is to set recommendations for the main common principles of key account management in the tax administration in Latvia. The tasks are: to study essential findings from researches about client relationship management and, specifically, about key account management; to analyse current segmentation, registration and tax revenues of taxpayers from different groups; to identify focus group or which taxpayers could be treated as key accounts; and to set basic guidelines for key account management in the tax administration in Latvia.

The methodology used included qualitative analysis of scientific researches and regulations, also a review of the literature, namely, the practical calculation and interviews of business representatives and experts, as well as quantitative data analysis about registered taxpayers and tax revenues. Finally the results were checked in practice.

1. Literature Review

Nowadays, the client relationship management (hereinafter – CRM) is the key driver of any business. It has existed for a long time in the free market economics. It was developed in the post-war period and still has an important role to play in a business development. Practically, it has been used in any business activities. (Raab, 2008; Karazijiene & Saboniene, 2013; Berkovi, 2014; Buttle & Maklan, 2015)

At the beginning, businesses had more focus on value and quality of the goods and services, professionalism of employees (salesmen) and other advantages in competition with other companies. Now, companies have realized that most important is the relationship with a client, meaning loyalty, confidence, strong relationships. (Payne & Pennie, 2013)

Development of relationships between service provider and client requires continuous evolution and depends on various trust dimensions. Trust is the basis for long-term relationships that usually is beneficial to all participating parties.

This helps to enhance competitiveness of both professional service provider and client. (Bagdoniene & Jakstaite, 2009)

Service quality is one of the key elements in client management, also in tax administration. For example, the study done showed that tax service quality is an important determinant for the usage of the online tax system that provides relevancy to the tax administration system. (Obid & Sheikh, 2015)

Client management is implemented by producing excellent service quality, providing up-to-date information on services and products, providing competent information, solving conflict situations in a professional way and improving general customer relationship quality between the satisfied and not so satisfied customers. (Eriņa & Lāce, 2011)

With development of the client management, key account principle was introduced in client relationships. 'Key account' means 'a very special, important, significant, strategic etc. client'. There is not a common scope which clients should be included in the list of the key accounts. In practice, each company might have its own treatment of key accounts. It depends on the region, market structure, business type, etc. Thus, in practice, there might be different reasons according to which clients are treated as key accounts. (Sheth & Parvatiyar; 1995, Ojasalo, 2001; Freeman, 2010)

Many studies on taxpayer interaction, from large-scale surveys to field experiments, reveal that people's tax compliance attitudes and behavior change after they discuss tax with other taxpayers. However, very little is known about the content of these communications and the processes by which they produce changes in tax compliance. (Onu & Oats, 2016) Tax administration should be more educated and have guidelines for using different tools in relations with taxpayers. These tools are quite old and need to be revamped. (Freund, 2014)

In-depth relations programme is mutually beneficial for taxpayers and tax authorities. Benefits are related to ease of administration and lower costs both for tax administration (audit) and for taxpayers to fulfil their obligations. (De Simone, Sansing & Seidman, 2013)

In-depth relationship programme reflects a modern tax administration approach for taxpayers and tax intermediaries. Even if this approach is relatively new, it has been successful in several countries; it improves cooperation between tax administrations and taxpayers. This results in better monitoring and a higher level of voluntary tax compliance. (Verbič, Čok & Šinkovec, 2014)

Even more is being discussed nowadays, not so much dealing with in-depth relationships, but with cooperation in fulfilling obligations. It reflects the business experience, emphasizing the importance of transparency and disclosure from both sides in accordance with the principles of cooperation, to more effectively reduce uncertainties. Compliance with the principles of cooperation is primarily aimed at ensuring the correct payment of tax. (OECD, 2013)

An important part of the principle of in-depth relationships is that it is only available to individual taxpayers, that is, those who are assessed for a sufficiently low tax risk. The impact of the in-depth relationships programme is that the tax administration can focus its limited resources on those taxpayers who are not

considered 'low risk' individuals. In this way, the tax administration increases the possibility of detecting non-compliance with the implementation of tax breaches. The result of the successful implementation of the in-depth relationships programme is that there are taxpayers with direct benefits to the in-depth programme and taxpayers without direct benefits of in-depth ratios, which are subject to more stronger checks. This can also be treated as a 'carrot and stick' approach to tax administration. (IFA, 2013)

In-depth relationships, building and maintaining mutual trust, openness and transparency for taxpayers – such a tax administration approach is based on commercial awareness, openness and responsiveness. As far as the benefits are concerned, they include: certainty and clarity in the application of the rules, coordination and harmonization of the service, understanding of the tax administration of the administrative costs of entrepreneurs and the need to focus on reducing these administrative costs, business and corporate visibility in the tax administration, access to decision makers in the tax administration, or other real-time mechanisms for quick problem solving, more customer-oriented, better coordinated activities in tax administrations, tax policy advice. In turn, the tax administration expects from such companies: transparency and openness in companies, compliance with the 'spirit of the law', voluntary disclosure of information, which may lead to significant differences in the views on interpretation, open and transparent dialogue, cooperation in tax risk assessment, assistance in understanding business and developing

commercial awareness, help with understanding of business management and risk management systems, tax information that is discussed at board level and accepted as good practice in corporate governance. (Owens, 2013)

In-depth relationship programmes have greatly improved the relationship between many large corporations and tax administrations and the role of customer relationship management is particularly positive. It is necessary to further develop it to improve resource allocation and reduce commitment and administrative costs. (Freedman, et al., 2010)

How to select key accounts from all taxpayers? One of the approaches in selection of key accounts can be Pareto principle or 20/80 law (Jesse, 2010; Nicolaescu & Tagaduan, 2011). Practically it means, that usually in business about 80 % of incomes are generated mainly by 20 % of clients.

2. Key account management process

The relationship with clients is a very essential aspect in the development of any business, especially regarding the key accounts. Therefore, key account management process should be an integral part in the development of client relationships in tax administration.

The goal of the key account management process is to reach the top level of relationships with the client, by achieving loyalty and confidence of the client and the best possible attitude to the service provider. It can be attained if the key account does not feel himself only as an important client, but truly appreciates your service and relationship with it.

There are several important stages in the key account management process (Figure 1): Planning; Actions; Survey and Analysis.

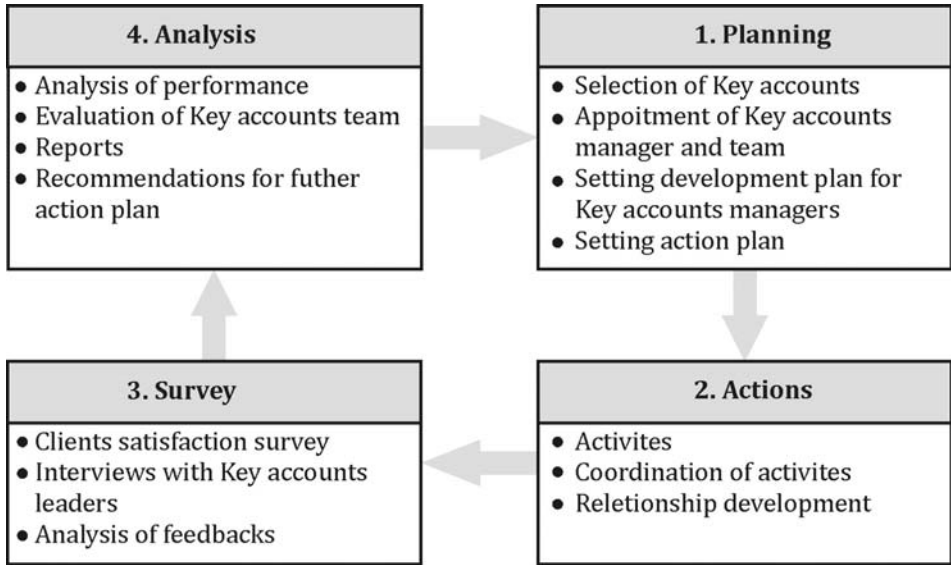


Figure 1. Key account management process

Source: created by the authors

The main parties involved in the key account management are key account manager and key account management team. Key account manager is responsible for developing and managing relationships with specific key account and, particularly, with key persons (CEO, Board members, etc.) of key account. Key account management team cooperates, plans, organizes and provides service to key account, as well as reports about the progress to key account manager. Key account manager and the team are responsible for coordinated business activities, identification of opportunities, drafting proposals, maintaining data bases, analysis and reporting.

The client survey is one of the most important parts of key account management process, because without such an activity it is not possible to objectively evaluate client satisfaction and relationship.

At least, the personal performance and development plan should be set for key account manager and each team member, as well as regular evaluation must be organized (see Figure 1).

3. Key account selection and segmentation

Moreover, tax administration should adopt the principle of key account selection and segmentations. As a main principle, key accounts could be selected from the trusted taxpayers list. However, it should not be limited only to tax payment contributions, but it could be combined from the following three basic performance directions:

- tax compliance (no tax debt, timely declarations, etc.);
- financial performance (positive profit, appropriate level of salaries, no insolvency risk, adequate proportion of liabilities and profitability, etc.);
- administrative performance (economic activity has been carried out for more than three full years, no penalties, good reputation, no criminal offense, etc.).

So, the trust means not only tax payment or high amount of tax payments, but also the general performance of a company. Such an approach also gives an opportunity to decide on the segmentation of key accounts by setting specific criteria for each segment. Thus it would be possible to segment and provide more bonuses for more trusted taxpayers. In other words, if the taxpayer is more reliable, then we could change our attitude to such taxpayers.

For example, there can be four categories of taxpayers, by setting specific performance criteria in each basic direction of taxpayer performance and providing bonuses such as:

- general nominations (general recognition, reward, etc.);
- advanced services (serve first, advice first, etc.);
- individual approach (less requirements, personal manager, customized consultation, etc.);
- key partnership (member of tax council board, etc.)

Therefore, the authors developed a method for segmentation of key accounts in tax administration, as it can be seen in Figure 2.

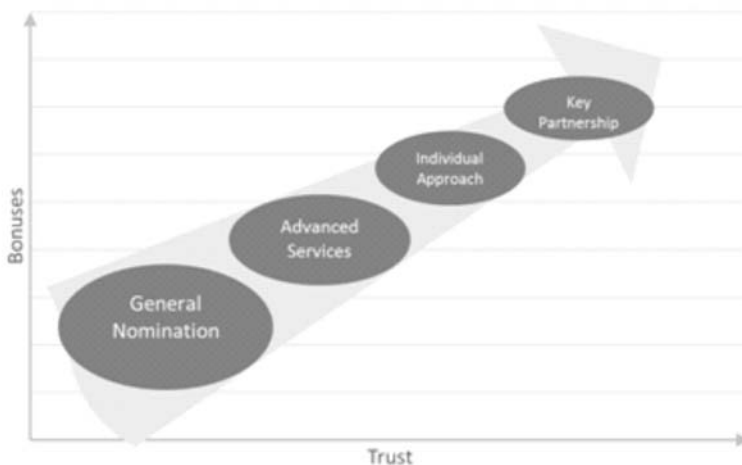


Figure 2. The proposed method for segmentation of key accounts in tax administration

Source: created by the authors

Particularly, it means that management of tax administration can use a combined approach and select key accounts and segment them not only by simple limiting of the specific amount or proportion of tax payers (see Figure 2). However, due to lower taxes, financial and administrative performance and, therefore, lower level of trust, the number of taxpayers in each segment can be limited in practice.

4. Results

By implementing the method of segmentation of key account taxpayers proposed by the authors (Figure 2) it is possible to select and segment specific key accounts in practice. In this respect, the data from the analysis done by SRS in Latvia were used.

Firstly, the right proportion of taxpayers can be identified. Totally it could be about 2500–2700 taxpayers or about 1 per cent of all the taxpayers. However, in practice only part of all taxpayers are economically active and have any business at all. So, it means that key accounts could be more than 1 per cent of economically active taxpayers.

Secondly, an economically active taxpayer can be considered a taxpayer who has carried out economic activity for more than three full years.

Thirdly, a taxpayer can be segmented by setting specific minimum and maximum indicators for each of the basic performance directions.

The data used were provided by SRS in Latvia, and the main of them are as follows: there is no current tax debt more than EUR 150; all declarations have been provided timely; there are no losses; during the last five years, no decision has been taken regarding the suspension or termination of the economic activity of a taxpayer; in the pre-tax year, the average income of the taxpayer in the relevant economic sector (according to the NACE Rev. 2 classification level two-digit level) is not less than 70 per cent of the average wage and salary established by the Central Statistical Bureau; the taxpayer does not have a registered tax risk and the company official has not been deprived of the right to occupy certain positions; the authorities responsible for the taxpayer's reputation do not have any negative information; a taxpayer or member of his board or council has not been found guilty of a criminal offense for fraud, business without registration or without permission (license), tax evasion and making payments equivalent to it, has not committed serious or repeated violations of the customs law, violations of the law; and other criteria, too.

According to such a segmentation, SRS identified four groups of taxpayers. About 2500 taxpayers can be selected for the first group, for the second group – 200, for the third group – 100 and for the last one – just very few (or not anyone yet). Accordingly, adequate bonuses can be provided for each group of key account taxpayers (see Figure 2).

5. Discussions

Much debate has taken place about the changes of attitude – customer service to people- oriented approach in the public sector. Therefore, the guidelines on client service in the public sector are welcome. However, does public sector management realise what a client- oriented approach means, as originally it comes from the private sector? Is it possible to transfer the best principles of the key account management from the private sector to public administration? The answer might not be easy; however, the authors consider that there are similarities in key account management. The final answer depends on the practical implementation.

It should be developed and taken over from business practices of key account management, namely, to build relationships with taxpayers in accordance with generally accepted principles, rather than just following the law. So, one of the solutions could be an individual SRS consultant as a key account manager. Key account seminars could also be held, where the SRS informs on the changes of legislation, as well as discusses it primarily with key accounts to know about the actual problems. An important aspect of such a meeting could also be participation of the general director of the SRS, showing how strategically important key accounts are. In addition, key accounts would be able to discuss topical issues amongst themselves. Accordingly, something like an informal club of key accounts with regular meetings might be formed.

Still there are discussions about the bonuses which can be delivered to key account taxpayers. Currently, taxpayers have the following advantages: refund of value added tax in a short term; individual consultant of the SRS; once-a-month sending of information about non-compliance of data indicated in tax or informative declarations with the information at the disposal of the SRS; answering applications (except for references) in a short term. They also have the advantages in relation to the requirements of other regulatory enactments, namely: preferential access to transit procedure; relief from the submission of security for value added tax and excise tax debt under duty suspensions procedures and others. (Cabinet of Ministers, 2012)

However, interviews with taxpayers show that most of them do not use advantages set by regulations. Some taxpayers state that the most important benefit is reputation rather than special management from tax authorities. So, currently the 'white list programme' includes companies, which, in fact, have a good reputation and have no significant violations. The criterion is not the amount of the paid taxes and in this way, any taxable person can qualify for inclusion in this list if it complies with the aforementioned principles.

Development of key account management principles is still necessary, and the role of public authorities is important in promoting business for companies from the 'white list programme'. For example, the public authorities can support them with popularizing these companies, namely, to introduce something like as campaign 'Fair euro introducer' (Ministry of Finance, 2014), indicating that the company is a fair taxpayer, thus inviting more people to choose these companies to purchase products or services from.

Conclusion

Key account management process should be an integral part of the development of client relationships in tax administration. Key account management is a major process of leading any business. However, many good principles are ignored in the management of the public sector. Therefore, the best practice of the client relationships management in business should be adjusted and implemented in the public sector, also in the tax administration.

To facilitate loyalty of taxpayers and promote paying taxes, it is necessary to continue considering the advantages for key account taxpayers, for example,

reducing the bureaucracy of public procurement, granting the state guarantees, providing an easier access to the European Union funds or other potential state aid.

Development of relationships with key account taxpayers depends on the quality of performance of all the key account team. Therefore it is crucially important to set the development plan and provide regular evaluation of personal performance of each team member.

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INTERMEDIALITY: A THEORETICAL DISCOURSE AND AN INTERPRETATIVE FRAMEWORK IN PERFORMANCE AND MEDIA STUDIES

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Abstract

This article provides analysis of the notion of intermediality in performance and media studies, as well as its applicability as a creative and analytic approach in the debates on the polarization of the mediated and the live based on the perspective that the boundaries between media, genres and disciplines are fluid. The author draws attention to the problematic status of media borders, as well as the challenges of intermediality emphasizing the differences between multimedia and intermedia. Since intermediality is an inherent and integral part of performance art, the author is especially interested in the manifestations of intermediality in it. Therefore the article traces the notion of intermediality in the writings of the Fluxus artist Dick Higgins, who coined the term in 1966, and Hans Breder, a German émigré artist, who launched the Intermedia Programme in the School of Art and History of Iowa in 1968. Not only the notion of intermediality is examined in the West, the article also sheds light on the trajectories of performance art in Latvia in the late Socialist period comparing the intermediality in the performance art of Andris Grinbergs in the 1970s, as well as the artist collective NSRD and artist Miervaldis Polis in the 1980s.

Keywords: intermedia, intermediality, media, performance art, hybridity, synthesis

1. Intermediality: terms and definitions

The Oxford Dictionary explains the noun “intermediate” as a chemical compound formed by one reaction and then taking part in another, *especially during synthesis* (Stevenson 2010, 913; my emphasis). Intermediate as an adjective refers to a position between two points, persons, or things; the term is also related to an intermediary, who acts between two people (Stevenson, 2010, 913). As a term in comparative literature, the term consisting of both “intermediate” and “medium” was constructed and applied by Samuel Coleridge in an 1812 essay *Lecture III: On Spenser*, where he compared the 16th century author Edmund Spenser’s traditional use of medieval category with the 17th century writer William Shakespeare’s superior sense of timelessness in his work (Rayson, 1936, 33).

If interrelations of various arts have been examined extensively, intermediality has become a popular concept only recently. A shift in academic research has occurred as a result of the emergence of electronic and digital media. As noted by scholars from various academic disciplines, “in the past two decades, ‘intermediality’ has proved to be one of the most productive terms in the field of humanities

generating an impressive number of publications and theoretical debates” (Pethő, 2011, 19). Applying the concept of intermediality as a research axis, it is possible to study intermedial relationship in theories of literature, art history, music, communication and cultural studies, philosophy, theatre and film studies, etc. Scholars are increasingly interested in the intermedial relations between various arts and media. The examples of intermedial phenomena include, but are not limited to, filmic writing, musicalization of literature, film adaptations of literary works, novelizations, visual poetry, illuminated manuscripts, Sound Art, opera, comics, multimedia shows, multimedial computer installations, etc.

One of the best examples to characterize intermediality is cinema, since it has such a complex mediality (moving images, language, sound, etc.), which is aimed at the illusion of reality and immersive viewing. Indeed, cinema has often been termed as the ideal *Gesamtkuntswerk* (the synthesis of arts). Hungarian professor Ágnes Pethő writes:

“Cinematic experience itself can be defined by the tensions of being in a state of “in-between:” in between reality and fantasy, in between empirical experience and conscious reflection, in between words and images, in between the different art forms and in between media. The mediality of cinema can always be perceived as intermediality, as its meanings are always generated by the media relations that weave its fabric of significations”. (Pethő, 2011, 293–294)

If a medium is a channel for the mediation of information and entertainment, what is intermediality? According to Swedish professor Lars Elleström, “intermediality is a result of constructed media borders being trespassed” (Elleström, 2010, 27). We must take into account that “there are no media borders given by nature, but we need borders to talk about intermediality” (Elleström, 2010, 27). Consequently, we construct hypothetical and relative media borders and “it is only due to our constructing borders in the first place that we are able to become aware of ways of transcending or subverting those very boundaries or of ways of highlighting their presence, of probing them, or even of dissolving them entirely” (Rajewsky, 2010, 64). The borders between media thus become the zones of experimentation where “we can test and experiment with a plethora of different strategies” (Rajewsky, 2010, 65). To be brief, at all times when the properties of all respective media intersect, the in-between state or intermediality occurs and intermedial phenomena emerge. However, “the supposedly crossed borders must be described before one can proceed to the ‘inter’ of intermediality” (Elleström, 2010, 4).

2. The problematic status of media borders

German professor Irina O. Rajewsky proposes that it is possible to analyse the intermedial phenomena by distinguishing intermediality in the broad sense and in the narrow sense. In the broad sense, such phenomena as film adaptations of literary works, opera, multimedia shows and Sound Art manifest some kind of crossing of borders between media. Whereas in the narrow sense, it is possible to group the intermedial practices in three categories:

- 1) medial transposition;
- 2) media combination;
- 3) intermedial references. (Rajewsky, 2010, 55)

An example of *medial transposition* is, for instance, film adaptations of literary texts. Here medial border crossing or intermediality emerges because the given medial configuration (a text and a film) undergoes a process of transformation, where the original text is the source of the newly formed medial configuration (Rajewsky, 2010, 56). An example of *media combination* is opera, film, theatre, Sound Art installations, etc. Rajewsky states that, from a historical point of view, these media combinations have frequently resulted in the development of new forms with a plurimedial structure. For example, “dance theatre is defined by a plurimedial structure which manifests itself, not least, in the combination of theatrical and dance elements and structures” (Rajewsky, 2010, 56). Moreover, recent productions “increasingly tend to involve digital and other technical media” (Rajewsky, 2010, 56). Finally, an example of *intermedial references* includes references in a literary text to a specific film, film genre or, likewise, references in a film to painting, or in a painting to photography.

For the purpose of this article and the case study of local examples, it is especially crucial to look at the third category – the intermedial references. Rajewsky provides an example of photorealistic painting to illustrate the basic mechanisms of intermedial references. A photorealistic painting is “a kind of painting which inevitably evokes in the viewer the impression of a photographic quality” (Rajewsky, 2010, 58), yet the “painting itself can never become genuinely photographic, even though this is suggested at times by photorealistic painting” (Rajewsky, 2010, 62). It is an illusion, which Rajewski defines as “the so-called ‘as if’ character” (Rajewsky, 2010, 58) – it is as if we see a photograph instead of a painting.

The history of art also provides evidences of intermedial references between painting and photography the other way round. For example, pictorialists in the late 19th century and early 20th century tried to establish their photographs as art by mimicking and imitating the look and subject of painting (Bull, 2010, 123). Despite photography’s “mechanically produced origins, potential for mass reproduction, links with commerce, and apparent lack of the need for ‘artistic’ skill” (Bright, 2005, 8), for pictorialists it was crucial to prove that photography also counts as art, which can be equally exhibited in museums and galleries. To do so, they used a variety of strategies starting from the manner of exhibition and ending with the same subject matter as in the genres of traditional Academy painting of the time. For example, tableaux (images depicting elaborate and dramatically staged narratives) were a common theme of Pictorialist photography, each one meticulously constructed, with models’ positions held as if they were posing for a painter (Henry, 2006, 133–138). Another strategy was the use of techniques such as gum-bichromate, which allowed manipulating the image with the brush while wet, thus creating the impression that the image was painted on a canvas. This technique helped the pictorialists to deny the mechanical nature, lack of ‘artistic’ skill and repetitive mass reproducibility of photography. According to Abigail Solomon-Godeau, in this way the pictorialists offered the possibility for each print to be unique and show evidence of skilful alteration, potentially providing the photograph with what Benjamin referred to as the ‘aura’ of an original work of art (Solomon-Godeau, 1991, 106–108). As a result, it was as if the spectators looked at a painting instead of a photograph.

In the case of intermedial references, it must be noted that an absolute and overall implementation of the other medial system is impossible – “what can be achieved by intermedial references is an [...] approximation to the medium referred to” (Rajewsky, 2010, 62). Yet, it is this oscillating ‘in-between-ness’, something actually situated between two or more medial forms that reveals both the constructed media border and a space for experimentation. Therefore, the notion of media borders and their constructedness actually play a crucial and extremely productive role in the context of intermedial practices. (Rajewsky, 2010, 63)

3. The concept of intermediality as an interpretative framework in performance studies

In the discourses of performance and theatre studies, the mediated and the live have been considered fundamentally opposed. Just as notions of authenticity and representation or the original and the copy have a history of cultural polarisation, the live and the mediated too have been positioned by certain kinds of performance theory as discrete opposites (Klich, Scheer, 2011, 86). The polarisation of live theatre and mediatised performance is epitomised in the debate initiated by the differing perspectives of Peggy Phelan (1993) and Phillip Auslander (1999).

In *Unmarked: The Politics of Performance*, Phelan explores the characteristics of ‘performance’ as a species of contemporary art, and posits the view that the ontology of performance derives from the fact that it is incapable of being reproduced. Performance from this perspective is definitively ‘live’ and cannot be re-experienced in its exact form and context. Indeed, Phelan asserts that the being of performance, its essential form, is dependent on its ‘disappearance’; “it becomes itself through disappearance” (Phelan, 1993, 146). Performance in this theorisation of it is a celebration of that which is non-reproducible; its power and value lie in that which is transient, intuitive, experiential. Phelan makes her case in language which continues to resonate throughout the discipline of performance studies: “Without a copy, live performance plunges into visibility – in a maniacally charged present – and disappears into memory, into the realm of invisibility and the unconscious where it eludes regulation and control” (Phelan, 1993, 148).

On the contrary, Auslander undermines this perspective, arguing that liveness exists only as a result of mediatisation. In his book *Liveness: Performance in a Mediatised Culture* (1999), he questions the status of live performance in a culture dominated by mass media, and explores different instances of live performance such as theatre, rock music, sport, and courtroom testimony. He argues that media technology has affected these live events to the extent that they can no longer be viewed as purely and simply “live” and that therefore the entities “live” and “mediatized” are not essentially different. (Auslander, 1999, 32)

The concept of intermediality becomes a useful interpretative framework to avoid such a polarization, since it moves away from the theoretical polarisation of the live versus the mediated and provides a lens through which to explore the patterns manifesting across media within the theatrical frame. The ‘inter’ of intermediality implies a between space, and the intermedial exists between previously assumed ideas of medium specificity. It therefore extends the historical dynamic of hybridisation and cross-disciplinary fertilization (Klich, Scheer, 2011, 70–71).

Intermediality can be both a creative and an analytic approach based on the perception that media boundaries are fluid and recognising the potential for interaction and exchange between the live and the mediated, without presupposing the authenticity or authority of either mode. (Klich & Scheer, 2011, 71)

An apt metaphor of intermediality was drawn by American multi-media artist and professor Robert Paredes (1948–2005). In his essay *How About the Platypus?* (2004) Paredes contemplates the story of the platypus, which having been discovered, “was taken from Australia to England for the amusement and amazement of the scientific community” (Paredes, 2007, 138) as an animal “fitting to no known category” (Paredes, 2007, 138). Moreover, for this animal to be acknowledged “real”, the community of scientists had to come forth with a new category. Paredes draws a comparison between the platypus and the genre of “intermedia”. He suggests that in the same way that the discovery of the platypus demanded the new category “monotreme”, the existence of artwork resistant to classification has called forth the genre and meta-genre of “intermedia”. (Paredes 2007, 138)

4. Early steps towards the integration of art forms and intermediality

According to theoreticians Rosemary Klich and Edward Scheer, the objective of reaching a synthesis of art forms within theatre practice has an ongoing history. These early visions by practitioners such as Richard Wagner, Adolphe Appia, and Filippo Tommaso Marinetti focused on the collaboration of artistic disciplines and established a precedent for the synthesis of artistic disciplines within the theatrical frame. (Klich & Scheer, 2011, 71) In the context and history of performance art, the *untitled event* (1952) organised by John Cage at the Black Mountain College is considered to be the first of the hybrid events that later became known as happenings.

The first significant expression of integration in theatre was the Wagnerian idea of the *Gesamtkunstwerk*, or Total Artwork, in which Richard Wagner prophetically envisioned the integration of traditional disciplines into a unified work with the aim of intensifying the audience’s experiences of art. (Klich & Scheer, 2011, 20) In 1849 Wagner produced the landmark essay, *The Artwork of the Future* (*Das Kunstwerk der Zukunft*), in which he declared: “Artistic Man can only fully content himself by uniting every branch of Art into the common Artwork” (Millington 2001, 4). In this essay Wagner asked for a fusion or “totalising” of all arts and as such can arguably be considered the first systematic effort in modern art towards such comprehensive integration. (Packer & Jordan, 2001, 4)

Adolphe Appia, in his turn, is regarded as the founder of contemporary notions of scenography. (Palmer, 2015, 31) In the early 20th century he revolutionised scenography and believed that modern experience could not be adequately expressed within the rigidity of traditional disciplinary boundaries. (Klich & Scheer, 2011, 21) For example, Appia recognized the power and potential of light as both a unifying and expressive force that could be modulated like music. In establishing the fundamental principles of stage lighting, Appia drew attention to the materiality of light, its effect upon stage space and the actor’s body within it. He

evolved a new dramaturgy with light at its centre. Through light, Appia liberated the stage space and offered a plethora of new creative possibilities. (Palmer, 2015, 32) In his creative work, Appia demanded total artistic control of a director who was both visionary designer and practical stage-director. He, too, envisioned a total 'organic' artwork and for a synthesis of the arts in theatre and rejected the limitations of naturalism and the drama. (Klich & Scheer, 2011, 21) Moreover, in Appia's later writing, as he developed his notion of 'living art', he identified the need for the breakdown of the audience-spectator separation and the creation of a new 'spirit of community' (Brandt, 1998, 145). This aspect was also one of the cornerstones for performance art practitioners in the 1960s and 1970s, especially in Allan Kaprow, Dick Higgins and Hans Breder's intermedial artwork.

Another prominent example of fusion of arts, is Italian poet Filippo Tommaso Marinetti, who in collaboration with Emilio Settimelli and Bruno Corra wrote the essay *The Futurist Synthetic Theatre* (1915). Their essay articulated a theatre, which would reflect the rapid technological advances of the age and directly oppose the historical "passeist" theatre. In the age of the automobile and the aeroplane they insisted that a new type of art practice was needed to reflect the changes that the industrial revolution had initiated: a new aesthetic for a new mechanised social and industrial infrastructure (Klich & Scheer, 2012, 25-26). The Futurist Theatre was to be "synthetic", "atechnical", "dynamic", "simultaneous", "autonomous", "alogical", and "unreal" (Marinetti, 1998, 177-80). A significant aspect of their approach was that they argued that the theatre should meet the challenges of the new art form of cinema with its "polyexpressiveness towards which all the most modern artistic researches are moving" (Marinetti, 2001, 12). They declared that Futurist cinema "will be painting, architecture, sculpture, words-in-freedom, music of colours, lines, and forms, a jumble of objects and reality thrown together at random" (Marinetti, 2001, 13).

And the last example, which is especially crucial in the context of performance art, is the *untitled event* (1952) at the Black Mountain College organised by John Cage. This event not only evidenced the hybridisation of artistic disciplines but also epitomised the shift in emphasis from product to process and from dramatic theatre to performance. (Klich, Scheer 2012, 28) In her article *Performance Art and Ritual: Bodies in Performance*, Erika Fischer-Lichte explains that the event challenged the borders between the arts, as it "dissolved the artefact into performance. Texts were recited, music was played, paintings were "painted over" – the artefacts became the actions. [...] Poetry, music and the fine arts ceased to function merely as poetry, music, or fine arts – they were simultaneously realised as performance art" (Fischer-Lichte, 1997, 25).

These examples illustrate the migration, hybridisation and synthesis of art forms, genres and disciplines and can be regarded as early steps towards the notion of intermediality.

5. Theoretization of intermediality in performance art studies

The concept of intermediality was introduced in performance studies by Fluxus artist Dick Higgins (Richard Carter Higgins, 1938–1998), who in his treatise *Intermedia* (1966) used it to describe art that falls “between media” (Higgins, 2003, 38). He proposed that the separation of artistic media into rigid categories is “absolutely irrelevant” (Higgins, 2003, 38). For Higgins the happening was the ultimate ‘intermedium’, “an uncharted land that lies between collage, music and the theater” (Higgins, 2003, 42). Higgins suggested that the use of intermedia was more or less universal throughout the fine arts:

“There are parallels to the happening in music, for example, in the work of such composers as Philip Corner and John Cage, who explore the intermedia between music and philosophy, or Joe Jones, whose self-playing musical instruments fall into the intermedium between music and sculpture. The constructed poems of Emmett Williams and Robert Filliou certainly constitute an intermedium between poetry and sculpture. Is it possible to speak of the use of intermedia as a huge and inclusive movement of which Dada, Futurism and Surrealism are early phases [of what] is taking place now?” (Higgins, 2003, 42)

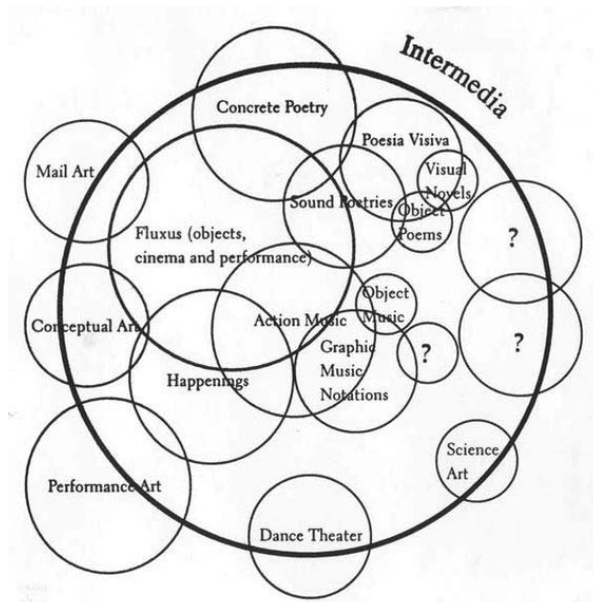


Figure 1. *Intermedia* chart. Dick Higgins. Molvena, Italy, 1995
(Higgins, 2012, 72)

Higgins's diagram shows the interaction of Sound Poetries, which emphasize the sound component of language and poetic association, and Concrete Poetry, which is based on a homology of visual form and verbal content such that poetry is structured visually in a coming together of the communicative motive of graphic design and verbal content. According to Higgins, the diagram is a visualization of the fluidity inherent to the intermedia arts. Question marks demonstrate that other intermedia are still emerging. (Higgins, 2012, 72)

In his treatise, Higgins referred to Allan Kaprow – the pioneer of happenings in the USA – and his artistic practice as an example of intermedial art. Higgins especially emphasized Kaprow's 'evolution' from a painter into an artist, who made his works as collages "in the sense of making work by adding or removing, replacing and substituting or altering components of a visual work" (Higgins, 2003, 40). Higgins also noted that this migration from one artistic discipline to another is what eventually led Kaprow to happenings:

"Kaprow [...] meditated on the relationship of the spectator and the work. He put mirrors into his things so the spectator could feel included in them. That wasn't physical enough, so he made enveloping collages, which surrounded the spectator. These he called "environments." Finally [...] he began to include live people as part of the collage, and this he called a "happening"."
(Higgins, 2003, 40)

Of course, the fact that Higgins came from the Fluxus circles, cannot be underestimated, since Fluxus was "an art that totally disregarded the distinctions between artistic disciplines" (Frank, 2005, 29). Many of the artists active in intermedia art forms in the 1960s took part in Fluxus, including Nam June Paik, Wolf Vostell and Joseph Beuys, Takehisa Kosugi and Shigeo Kubota, George Maciunas and Jonas Mekas, etc. (Friedman, 2005, 51). As proposed by theoreticians Rosemary Klich and Edward Scheer, in Higgins' vision "intermediality exists as the indefinite and ambiguous space between traditionally recognized artistic media" (Klich & Scheer, 2011, 72), and as such this space allowed for fusion of the boundaries of art with media that had not previously been considered art forms.

Thus, intermedia could also exist between art and non-art:

"It is sometimes difficult to imagine an intermedia form before it is created, but you can think of many in theory. Imagine an intermedia form combining aspects of typesetting, cooking, pyrotechnics and farming – or an intermedia form that embraces baking, sculpture, sewing, and perfumery (Friedman, 2005, 52) [...] Imagine an intermedia form comprised of 10 % music, 25 % architecture, 12 % drawing, 18 % shoemaking, 30 % painting and 5 % smell. What would it be like? How would it work? How would specific works appear? How would they function? How would the elements interact?"
(Friedman, 2005, 61)

This eclectic experimentation was also part of the Intermedia Programme in the School of Art and History of Iowa, the USA, which was launched in 1968 by German émigré artist Hans Breder. Being trained as a painter, exhibited as a sculptor and hired to teach drawing at the University of Iowa, Breder has always been a conceptual artist working in multiple modes of representation. For over three decades Breder and his students explored "liminal spaces – the boundaries between artistic and scholarly practices, between theoretical paradigms, between

media, between genres, between social and political universes, between viewer and artist" (Busse, 2005, 12).

The notion of liminality was appropriated from the anthropologist Victor Turner. The Latin word "limen" means threshold, whereas liminality refers to the physiological, psychological and spiritual experience of threshold states, of in-between spaces, the pure consciousness of being neither here nor there. As theorized by Turner in his 1964 essay *Betwixt and Between: The Liminal Period in "Rites de Passage"*, liminal states are "interstructural". He demonstrates that during cultural rites of passage those undergoing the rituals are transitional figures that temporarily exist outside of the culturally defined rules and behaviours (Turner, 1967, 93). Liminality was also the central theme and the unifying aspect for Breder both in his work as an artist and as a Programme Director. In his article *Intermedia: Enacting the Liminal* (1995), Breder writes:

"Intermedia engages the spectator as participant. It is collaborative, conceptually grounded, performative, ritualistic, site-specific. It exists in liminal space where the interplay of two or more media propagate new ideas, new forms, new ways of seeking and being." (Breder, 1995, 114)

He also expresses regret that too little from the experimental practices in the 1960s was documented: "I recall astonishing performances from the early days. Few of them were documented. We were entirely absorbed in the moment, in the work, in the experience" (Breder, 1995, 118). However, a useful pedagogical strategy was to invite visiting artists. Unlike more traditional art disciplines, the "new forms of body-based and installation art dictated that the artist must be present, whether to install, perform, or contribute to the discourse around his or her work through a public presentation" (Santone, 2014, 68). For example, among the visiting artists was Allan Kaprow, who contributed to the Intermedia programme in 1969. (Kaprow, 1964, 37)

6. The challenges of intermediality and the difference between intermedia and multimedia

Mass media, multimedia, cross media, intermedia, new media, digital media – the plethora of these mutually related terms can seem very confusing when thinking about the boundaries between various media. Where do the trajectories of one media start and the other end? As indicated Rajewsky in her essay *Intermediality, Intertextuality, and Remediation: A Literary Perspective on Intermediality* (2005), there is not one unifying theory of intermediality or one intermedial perspective as such – from its beginnings, 'intermediality' has served as an umbrella-term. Intermedial research can be conducted not only in performance and theatre discourse, but also in many other disciplines, for example, media studies, literary studies, sociology, film studies, art history, etc. (Rajewsky, 2005, 44). Besides, related terms have surfaced in the discourse about intermediality, which are themselves defined and used in a variety of ways, for example, multimediality, plurimediality, crossmediality, infra-mediality, media-convergence, media-integration, media-fusion, hybridization, and so forth. Moreover, there have been attempts to specify the notion of intermediality analysing intermediality through

such epithets as transformational, discursive, synthetic, formal, transmedial, ontological, or genealogical intermediality, primary and secondary intermediality, or so-called intermedial figuration (Rajewsky, 2005, 44), and German professor Jens Schröter's example provided below illustrates it.

According to German professor Bernd Herzogenrath, the field of intermediality is ever-expanding and heterogeneous and has grown to be one of the most vital developments within the humanities today:

“Contesting [...] the conventional and disciplinary boundaries between different arts and forms, intermediality seems to propose as its object of inquiry the entire culture of the media (literature, paintings, film, music, digital art, photography, installations, comic books, and more). Intermediality thus comprises both the links (and cross-breeds) between various art forms, and the various disciplines with which we talk about these media.” (Herzogenrath, 2012, 2)

Ultimately, it can be questioned whether the term ‘intermediality’ is not too slippery, the research field – too vast, and the various critical approaches – too disorientating. However, Rajewsky states that heterogeneous field of intermediality is not a potential shortcoming of any individual approach to intermediality. Quite the contrary, it is of utmost importance to specify each particular understanding of intermediality in a narrower sense and to clarify to which objects and objectives such research gains value. (Rajewsky, 2005, 64)

In this particular article, the notion of intermediality is discussed as part of the performance and theatre discourse relying on the definitions provided by the performance art practitioners and theoreticians, mostly Higgins and Breder. Furthermore, it is applied as an interpretative framework to avoid the polarization of the mediated and the live, when discussing performance art and its documentation in other disciplines, for example, photography.

Nevertheless, even in this context it seems to be productive to clarify the difference between ‘intermedia’ and the more commonly known term ‘multimedia’. Both terms seem to have appeared in circulation around one and the same time – 1966. If ‘multimedia’ has been described as the defining medium of the twenty first century (Packer & Jordan, 2001, xiii) and is “largely associated with digital systems organized around online environments, virtual reality systems and computer games” (Klich & Scheer, 2011, 8), “intermedia” is deployed to signal the crossing, mixing, or overlapping of media.

For example, Stephen Foster and Estera Milman, define intermedia as “most ‘inter’ when the medium, whatever happens to be, serves as a vehicle through which a variety of ‘generic intentions’ can be processed, either consecutively, serially, or simultaneously. This is what makes a work ‘intermedia’ rather than ‘multimedia’... At its best, [intermedia] is more a question of finding a means of motorizing ideas and expectations. If the Duchamp’s ‘Fountain’ is intermedia, it is not intermedia because it occupies a place between art and plumbing, but because it catalyzed a variety of artistic and social mechanisms” (Foster & Milman, 1984, 17).

Other theoreticians, too, claim that while intermedia is often confused with multimedia, it should not be. Pursuant to Ken Friedman, “the important distinction between intermedia and multimedia is the melding of aspects of different media

into one form. When different forms merge, we see an intermedia form” (Friedman, 2005, 53). Furthermore, Jack Ox defines intermedia as a “combinatory structure of syntactical elements that come from more than one medium but are combined into one and are thereby transformed into a new entity. [...] Intermedia is the product of interactions between independent systems in time and space” (Ox, 2011, 47). Therefore, it can be suggested that the case of intermedia appears “when several individual media hybridize and grow into forms that become effective and convincing media in their own right” (Friedman, 2005, 61), whereas multimedia do not necessarily hybridize.

Jens Schröter further defines the difference between intermedia and multimedia (he refers to it as ‘mixed media’). Schröter, quoting Higgins, states that in mixed media the mediated forms meeting there can at any time be regarded by the viewer as separate, while in intermedia or in intermedial forms a conceptual fusion occurs, making it impossible to view only one of its origins. Rather, it forces the viewer into perceiving them as simultaneous and inseparable. (Schröter, 2012, 19) This dialectical view of intermediality can be interpreted in the following way – the mixed media are only a collection of different media in one place or within one frame, but intermedia are syntheses within which the forms entering are assimilated. (Schröter, 2012, 19)

7. The typology of intermediality

As it can be concluded from above, the field and discourse of intermediality is very diverse and the definitions and interpretations depend on each particular understanding of intermediality in a narrower sense. In his article *Four Models of Intermediality*, Schröter offers a typology of intermediality and attempts to provide the features of four models of intermediality:

- 1) synthetic intermediality;
- 2) formal and trans-medial intermediality;
- 3) transformational intermediality;
- 4) ontological intermediality.

According to Schröter, *synthetic intermediality refers to the combining of two or more art forms or media into a new art form or medium* (Schröter, 2012, 16). In this model, intermediality is a process of a fusion of several media into a new medium – the intermedium. Schröter notes that the theoreticians writing on this type of intermediality, such as Higgins and Frank, associate this process both with some of the artistic movements of the sixties – notably Happening and Fluxus – and with the frequently formulated utopian idea that the gap between art and life could be closed by way of these new, synesthetic forms. These movements reside in the tradition of Wagner and his Zurich writings; that is, in the genealogical tradition of the artistic synthesis of a *Gesamtkunstwerk* (Schröter, 2012, 16).

The second, formal and trans-medial intermediality, assumes that aesthetic conventions manifest themselves in several media. Schröter quotes French academic and film theoretician Jacques Aumont, who writes that:

“The analysis of the relationship between film and painting teaches us among other things specifically that painting is not incorporated in film as a

composite form of art but that it was divided into its constituents and that film is not a synthesis of anything whatsoever at all." (Aumont, 1992, 88)

In Schröter's opinion, Aumont seems to argue that the intermedial connection between painting and cinema lies in comparable, transmedial structures or forms that are indebted to their common participation in a historically given "order of the visible", a "scopic regime". These formal levels are separated from the material basis of the media; thus, they can be seen relatively autonomous regarding it – in this sense they are transmedial. (Schröter, 2012, 21) Furthermore, according to Schröter, fictionality, rhythmicity, compositional strategies (of pictures, for example) could also be regarded as possible cases of such transmedial structures. Even though these terms clearly do not range on the same level, they nevertheless share a common ground in that they have already all been used in order to compare artifacts made from different media on a more abstract level. (Schröter, 2012, 22)

The third model of intermediality is *transformational intermediality*, "which refers to the representation of one medium within another medium" (Schröter, 2012, 26). Pursuant to Schröter, it is questionable whether we can talk of intermediality since the artifact of a certain medium (a film) does not contain another medium (a painting) as another but instead represents it. A painting in a film or building in a photograph are no longer paintings or buildings, but integral parts of the medium representing them – they are simply being represented. As such, for example, a photograph of a written text would not contain any intermedial relationship; it is simply a photograph that is pointing referentially to a text. In this perspective, film would not be a combined *Gesamtkunstwerk* consisting of different media (or arts), since everything appearing in film has to have gone through the cinematic dispositive, thereby becoming an integral part of one and the same cinematic picture. (Schröter, 2012, 26)

And, finally, the fourth model is *ontological intermediality*, "where a medium defines its own ontology through relating itself to another medium, and raises the issue that it is not possible to define the specificity of a medium in isolation except through comparison with another medium" (Schröter, 2012, 29). Whatever seems to be specific in a given medium depends 'what others are not', that is, it depends on the (implicit) definitions of other media that have to be used as contrasts. New media do not replace old ones, but rather attribute different positions in the system to them. This again means that the definition of the specific character of a medium requires the differential demarcation from other media. This ontological intermediality then would not be one that follows the specifics of given, already defined media; it rather precedes them, since the terms for the description of a new medium can only be borrowed from the already existing language or be composed from existing terms into neologisms. Thus, the recourse to metaphors referring to other media, such as 'visual rhythm', 'writing of light' cannot be avoided. (Schröter, 2012, 29)

In the conclusion of his article, Schröter echoes the ideas of other theoreticians, stating that an integral idea of intermediality can never be maintained, since the term is as varied as are the discourses in which it is being produced; thus, the list is open. (Schröter, 2012, 29) However, Klich and Scheer argue that the first two models outlined by Schröter operate at the level of 'collaborative' or 'intertextual'

integration, and although 'synthetic intermediality' may achieve media integration, neither of these forms necessitates genuine complex intermixing of media. However, transformational and ontological intermediality offer more complex forms of media integration in which the nature of mediality is perceived as dynamic. (Klich & Scheer, 2011, 73)

8. The notion of intermediality in the context of performance art in Latvia

When we think of the main features of performance art such as the body of the artist as the material, form and content, blurriness of boundaries between art and life, experiential immediacy and the dematerialization of artwork, the prevalence of process and human subject over product, as well as the presentational modes of action in real time over representational, commodified objects, it can be stated that this kind of process-based art in Latvia emerged only in the late 1960s and early 1970s.

If we look at the genealogy of performance art in Latvia, in the late 1960s and 1970s it could not exist in Latvia legitimately due to ideological strictures and historically established hierarchy of arts; therefore, it can be suggested that it adopted the features of intermediality and appeared in photography, silk-screens, painting and film. This versatility allows examining performance art through the medium specificity and especially the (re)mediation of performance by technology (photography, printing) or brushstroke (painting), thus emphasizing the 'now' and not so much the 'here' aspect. By looking at performance art through the framework of intermediality, it is possible to suggest that performance art in Latvia in the late Soviet period existed as a hybrid "in-between space" with fluid media boundaries.

One such example is the artwork created by the pioneer of performance art in Latvia Andris Grinbergs (b. 1946). As opposed to the Western Europe and the USA, performance art in Latvia did not stem from painting, so there is not an ontological relationship between these two disciplines. However, a crucial factor for Grinbergs was the counterculture in Riga. Especially the hippie movement as an alternative lifestyle with a great dose of creativity manifested through fashion, as well as with its ideas based on sexual liberation and the threat of annihilation due to the atomic bomb made him turn to the body-based and anthropocentric art, which eventually became an instrument to explore his own identity. Grinbergs can be credited with nearly 20 performances organised in the 1970s – most of them carried out in his apartment and documented in photography. Although his performances could not be considered radical in terms of dealing with politically sensitive issues, the "fusion of the irrational collective actions, naked and semi-naked bodies, Biblical references, and romantics of retro and Western subcultures in the 1970s happenings threatened to breach both ethical norms and the articles of law" (Traumane 2010, 34).

Consequently, all throughout the 1970s performance art in Latvia remained the 'unnoticed art' or the 'other' art that was produced on the outskirts of the official doctrine. As a form of *art brut*, it was often predestined to exist only within close

circles of the artists, their family and friends, thus establishing some form of microenvironment or the second public sphere (*die zweite Öffentlichkeit*)¹ – paradoxical parallel culture, where the totalitarian body of *Homo Sovieticus* could be subjected to various poetic transformations: it could be painted, dressed and undressed and, consequently, turned into a body free of ideological messages. Grinbergs's performances were mostly photographed by Jānis Kreicbergs, who was a well-known fashion photographer in the first public sphere. When off-duty, Kreicbergs often joined Grinbergs and together they created a hybrid work of art, which transformed from a process-based, one-time action into a fine art object becoming easily transportable and adaptable. Kreicbergs appropriated the plots, characters and aesthetics from Grinbergs's happenings and presented the resulting images as a new and original work of art. He did so, because he never considered himself only a photographer invited to document the process-based events under a strict guidance of an authoritarian director. Instead, Kreicbergs saw performances as a collaborative project with an element of spontaneity and improvisation providing him with an opportunity to produce free creative expression:

“My revolutionist spirit was manifested by implementing [artistic] agency and showing originality in my creative work. [...] During the day we worked and were busy, but [...] we felt great enthusiasm to participate in prohibited things. It was fanaticism for the sake of art. We believed that what we did would be useful for the future society. We believed that the system would collapse once, but not so soon. We thought that it would be around the year 2000. The oppression was so heavy, the [Soviet] Union so mighty, the ideology so powerful that only a few brave ones could stand against it.” (Kreicbergs, 2009, unpaginated)

Similar acts of borrowing or appropriation occurred in the case of photographer Atis Ieviņš, who experimented with merging painting and photography. This way he produced several silkscreen² prints by appropriating Grinbergs's performances – the outcome was presented as serigraphy. The migration of performance art, which essentially is a body-based and live art, to the medium of photography and silk-screen, thus is an example of intermediality, where we can see the medial transposition, since performance art is transformed and transposed to other media, as well as media combination and intermedial references, namely, all three forms of intermediality proposed by Rajewsky. Pursuant to Schröter, these are examples of synthetic intermediality, but we can also see the features of formal and transmedial intermediality, transformational intermediality and ontological intermediality. Thus, it can be concluded that performance art by definition is an intermedial form of art, especially, if it is paired with another medium and undergoes a process of hybridization. Intermediality, thus, is an inherent and integral part of performance art.

Another example to be discussed in terms of intermediality is the artists' collective *The Workshop of Restoration of Unfelt Feelings* (NSRD), who actively pursued

¹ Here I am referring to the concept coined by Jürgen Habermas.

² Silk-screening is a printing technique that allows printing images repeatedly on a single canvas. The machine-like look and the lack of artist's touch was especially appealing to Andy Warhol, who produced most of his iconic works in this technique.

performance art in the 1980s, albeit from a different perspective. As opposed to Grinbergs, performances of the NSRD were intentionally intermedial, the key participants Hardijs Lediņš and Juris Boiko describing it also as “a kind of lifestyle somewhere between Zen Buddhism and California high-tech philosophy, avant-garde in terms of interests and postmodernist in terms of stylistics” (Astahovska & Žeikare, 2016, 11). The NSRD organised discos, lectures, actions, video performances, exhibitions and concerts, expanding “the boundaries of understanding what art is [and creating] a new kind of art – uncertain, ambiguous, unconventional, ironic and paradoxical, and with blurry boundaries in time and space” (Astahovska & Žeikare, 2016, 11). Among the most important projects one can mention *Walks to Bolderāja* (1980–1987), *Dr Eneser's Binocular Dance Lessons* (1987) and *Approximate Art* (1987). Similarly to Grinbergs' performances, *Walks to Bolderāja* were documented in photography, therefore it is another instance of intermediality.

Moreover, the NSRD also contributed to intermediality not only practically, but also theoretically. In this context, the concept of Approximate Art, which was coined in 1987 and aimed at blurring “boundaries between music, video, performance, text, different genres and the desire to create new forms of artistic expression” (Astahovska & Žeikare, 2016, 211), must be mentioned as the first theoretical basis, which addresses the question of intermediality in Latvian art discourse. Besides, Approximate Art supports the idea that the boundaries of art can be fused with media that had not previously been considered art forms. Thus, Approximate Art, similarly to intermedia, can also exist in a quite Postmodern and eclectic “in-between” state oscillating between art and non-art. Hardijs Lediņš writes:

“The boundaries between different art genres are very blurred, they cannot be defined, just like the boundaries between different cultures. The question often arises – is it art or is it already not art? This indicates the presence of approximation in art processes.” (Lediņš, 1988, 71–73)

And the final example, which is interesting for the discussion of intermediality, is the artist Miervaldis Polis, who in the 1980s was active both as a painter and as a performance artist. Polis is an especially interesting case study for the purposes of this article, since as a painter he was interested in creating illusion and enthusiastically engaged himself in painting in photorealistic and *trompe l'oeil* manner. He also wrote a manifesto on Photorealism (or Hyperrealism, as it was termed in Latvia) reflecting on the artistic methods applied by Leonardo da Vinci and Johannes Vermeer (Polis, 1983, 6–9). Polis declaration “I am painting a photograph” (Traumane, 2000, 130) manifests his interest in the synthesis of a photographic image and the principles of painting. Moreover, his painting *Self-Portrait in Bronze* (1988), which is a painting painted in the snapshot aesthetics from a photograph, in fact, is also a documentation of Polis's performance *The Bronze Man* (1987), where he had covered his face, hands, hairs and suit in bronze paint and strolled around Old Riga finally putting himself on an empty pedestal and becoming a live, breathing sculpture. At the time, when a monument of Lenin was placed in every town of Latvia, this performance by eyewitnesses was interpreted as mimetic representation of Lenin, which Polis terms as “narrow understanding of art in the Soviet times” (Brizgela, 2015, 151). However, the photorealistic painting made after the photograph from this performance, represents intermediality in various forms. First, there is media combination –

painting, photography and performance, and, second, there is a case of intermedial references, since the photorealistic painting looks 'as if' a photograph, yet, it is not.

All these examples illustrate the junctures between performance art and other media/arts. It is evident that such a relationship may occur on a one-on-one basis, in which a media form or a media product is transposed to another media form or product undergoing the process of transformation, as, for example, the photographs of of Andris Grinbergs' performances that were used as a "raw material" to create silk-screens on canvas. Or, intermediality can occur in a more multimedial basis, in which a complex transposition involving several media takes place at once. The result is something, which is different from the original and yet has not lost some of the original properties as a result of media intersection and hybridization.

Conclusions

The notion of intermediality can serve both as a theoretical discourse and an interpretative framework. Especially in performance studies, it is a useful analytic approach, since it allows avoiding the theoretical polarisation of the live versus the mediated and provides a lens through which to explore the patterns manifesting across media. Since there is a plethora of intermedial perspectives, it is of utmost importance to specify each particular understanding of intermediality in a narrower sense and to clarify to which objects and objectives such research gains value, when using intermediality as a critical and analytic approach. The major difference between 'multimedia' and 'intermedia' is that the media in multimedia can be regarded by the viewer as separate, while in intermedia or in intermedial forms a conceptual fusion or hybridization occurs, making it impossible to view only one of its origins. Performance art by definition is an intermedial form of art, especially, if it is paired with another medium and undergoes a process of hybridization. Intermediality, thus, is an inherent and integral part of performance art. Moreover, the in-between zones of media prove to be productive spaces open for experimentation and creativity.

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PATĒRĒTĀJU APMIERINĀTĪBAS VEIDOŠANĀS PROCESS MAZUMTIRDZNICĪBĀ

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Abstract

Retail has always had an important role in the national economy of Latvia. The foundation of a successful retail business is to satisfy customer needs and also to build a long-term relationship with the customer. The process of attracting new customers is always bound with a bigger expenditure of money, time and energy. For a business to keep the existing customers and to gain more and more of them, one of the main tasks is to know their wishes and needs and to satisfy those. In these processes retail businesses can be helped by understanding customer satisfaction and, further, relationship building and management.

Atslēgas vārdi: pircēju apmierinātība, pircēja vajadzības, mazumtirdzniecība

Ievads

Uzņēmējdarbības pamatā ir patērētāju vajadzību apmierināšana, kas nodrošina uzņēmuma mērķu sasniegšanu. Šajā procesā starp uzņēmumu un patērētāju veidojas dažādas attiecības, bet abām pusēm ir konkrēts mērķis, ko no tām iegūt. Uzņēmumam, pirmkārt, tas ir – piesaistīt un noturēt patērētājus, palielināt apgrozījumu un tirgus daļu, gūt peļņu, bet patērētājam – iegūt nepieciešamo preci/pakalpojumu vajadzīgajā vietā, laikā un daudzumā, saņemt nepieciešamo informāciju un apkalpošanas kvalitāti. Šo attiecību pamatā ir savstarpējs ieguvums. Pamatojoties uz veiktajiem pētījumiem, piesaistīt jaunu patērētāju uzņēmumam izmaksā 5–10 reizes dārgāk, nekā pārdot preces jau esošajam patērētājiem, savukārt esošais patērētājs iztērē par 67 % vairāk naudas nekā jaunie patērētāji. (Anderson, et al., 2007) Līdz ar to patērētāju vajadzību apmierināšana ir primārais arī mazumtirdzniecības uzdevums. Mūsdienu piesātinātā ar produktiem tirgus apstākļos uzņēmumiem galvenais ir konkurētspējas nodrošināšana. Orientācija uz patērētājiem un to prasību izpratne ir kļuvusi par neatņemamu biznesa sastāvdaļu. Patērētāju apmierinātības noteikšanai ir dažādi vērtēšanas kritēriji un principi, taču tiem ir vienots mērķis – būt par pamatu konkurētspējīgai un ilgtspējīgai mazumtirdzniecības uzņēmuma attīstībai. Zinātniskajā literatūrā, izanalizējot publikācijas šajā jomā (Fornell, 1992, 6–21; Fischbein, 1967, 389–400; Vavra, 1997, 384–385, 34–43; Gummesson & Kingman-Brundage, 1992, 101–114; Bitner, 1993, 358–370), ir atrodami vairāki patērētāju apmierinātības novērtēšanas un mērīšanas avoti, modeļi un metodes. Pētījumā tiek apskatīti pircēju apmierinātības faktori un process mazumtirdzniecībā. Tas ir svarīgi, jo patērētāju apmierinātības vērtēšana un mērīšana pilda šādas cieši saistītas funkcijas:

- informācijas iegūšana par patērētāju apmierinātības un uzņēmuma piedāvājuma kvalitātes līmeni;
- neapmierinātības gadījumu noteikšana, lai varētu tos novērst (piemēram, produktu apmaiņa, zaudējumu atlīdzināšana patērētājam, kompensācija, atvainošanās u.c.);
- neapmierinātības iemeslu noteikšana, lai turpmāk tos spētu novērst jau iepriekš – pirmspirkuma stadijā;
- apmierinātības pozitīvu un negatīvu rezultātu noteikšana, lai varētu izstrādāt rādītājus uzņēmuma personāla stimulēšanai un sodīšanai.

Iegūstot izpratni par patērētāju apmierinātības principiem un prasmīgi tos izmantojot, uzņēmums iegūst lielāku patērētāju uzticību un būtiski paaugstina savu konkurētspēju. Pareizi izpētīti un izprasti patērētāju apmierinātības veidošanās faktori ir būtiska uzņēmuma konkurētspējas priekšrocība. Šī darba mērķis ir noskaidrot galvenos patērētāju apmierinātības faktoros mazumtirdzniecībā un definēt šī procesa īpatnības, kas reālajā situācijā ļaus mazumtirgotājiem pilnveidot savu darbību un nodrošināt konkurētspēju.

Lai sasniegtu mērķi, tika izvirzīti šādi uzdevumi:

- raksturot mazumtirdzniecības sfēru;
- analizēt patērētāju apmierinātības veidošanās teorētiskos faktoros;
- papildināt esošo teoriju ar jaunu pieeju patērētāju apmierinātības novērtēšanai.

Lai noteiktu patērētāju apmierinātības teorijas attīstības tendences mazumtirdzniecībā, ir izmantotas sekojošas pētījuma metodes: loģiski–konstruktīvā metode – teorētiskā materiāla salīdzināšanai ar empīriskajiem rezultātiem; grafiskā – vizuāli apkopojamās informācijas attēlošanai un analīzei un patērētāju aptauja. Patērētāju metodoloģiskais pamats ir ārvalstu autoru (*R. Oliver, R. Westbrook, I. Howard* u.c.) darbi un publikācijas, kas sniedz ieskatu jaunākajā informācijā par pircēju attiecību veidošanas faktoriem un procesu.

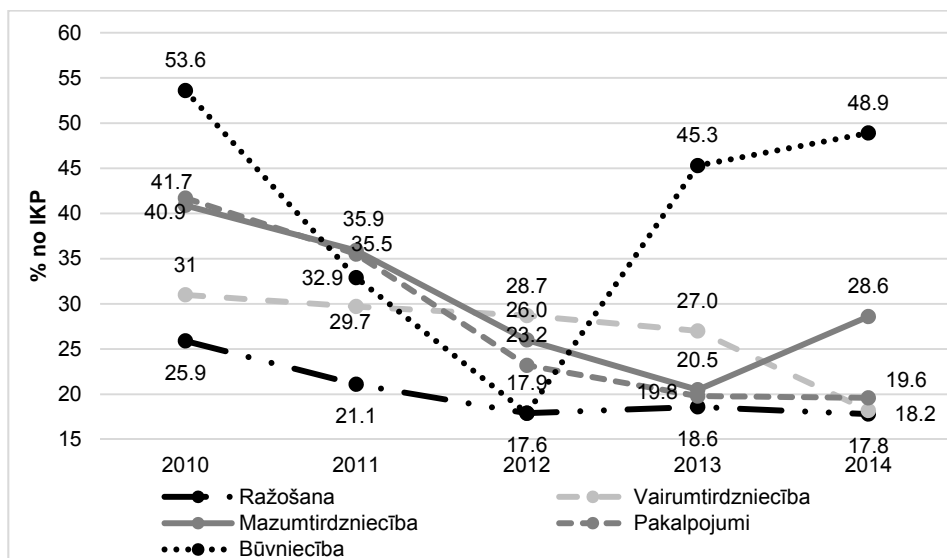
1. Mazumtirdzniecības attīstības īpatnības

Privātais patēriņš ir viens no ekonomiskās izaugsmes stūrakmeņiem, un tāpēc mazumtirdzniecību var uzskatīt par valsts ekonomiskās izaugsmes indikatoru. Pēc neatkarības atjaunošanas mazumtirdzniecība Latvijā un visā Baltijā ir attīstījusies ar mainīgām sekām. Tā vairākus gadus bija viens no lielākajiem iekšzemes kopprodukta veidotājiem. Daudzējādā ziņā tas bija saistīts ar to, ka no valsts puses iezīmējās tendence sakārtot šo nozari. Mazumtirdzniecība no tirgus laukumiem, sporta zālēm un nojumēm pārgāja uz veikaliem un lielveikaliem. Baltijas valstīs izveidojās tirgotāju asociācijas un apvienības, kā arī tika pieņemti nozari regulējošie normatīvie akti. Bet vispasaules ekonomiskās krīzes laikā (no 2008. gada līdz 2009. gadam) mazumtirdzniecība piedzīvoja vienu no vislielākajiem kritumiem. Stabilizējoties ekonomiskajai situācijai Baltijas valstīs, arī mazumtirdzniecības nozare sāka atgūties un, sākot jau ar 2011. gadu, ir attīstījusies līdzīgi ekonomikai kopumā. Mazumtirdzniecības apgrozījums laika posmā no 2010. līdz 2015. gadam Latvijā pieaug par 25 %, Lietuvā par 33 %, bet Igaunijā par 35 % (www.csb.gov.lv, www.osp.stst.gov.lt, www.stat.ee).

Jauno tehnoloģiju laikmetā arī mazumtirdzniecībā var novērot jaunas attīstības tendences:

- uzņēmumu skaita pieaugums;
- lielo mazumtirgotāju ekspansija;
- jaunu mazumtirdzniecības veidu (t.sk. interneta tirdzniecības) straujš pieaugums;
- moderno tehnoloģiju pielietojums mazumtirdzniecībā;
- nozares iekšējās konkurences pieaugums.

Līdz ar to ļoti svarīgi atrast iespējas, kā šādos konkurences apstākļos veiksmīgi attīstīties. Diemžēl daudzi uzņēmumi, lai sasniegtu savus uzņēmējdarbības mērķus, konkurētspējas nodrošināšanai izvēlas negodīgus un/vai nelikumīgus paņēmienus. Par to liecina ēnu ekonomikas indeksa (EEI), kas tiek aprēķināts procentos no IKP, pētījumi.

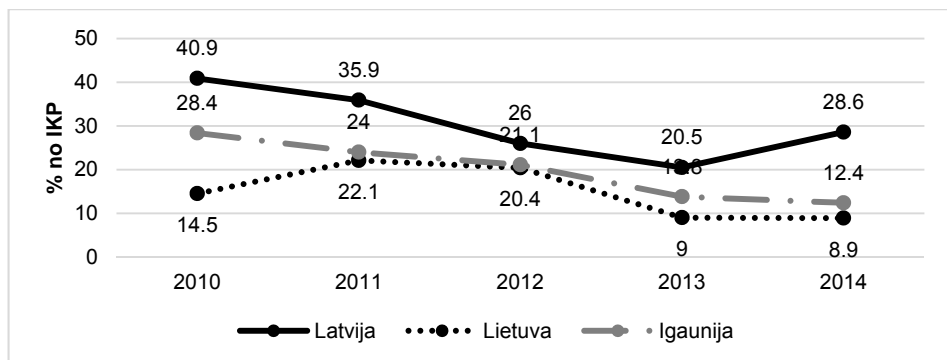


1. attēls. Ēnu ekonomikas indekss nozaru dalījumā Latvijā no 2010. līdz 2014. gadam (% no IKP)

(Autoru veidots attēls pēc Putniņš, Sauka, 2015, 23–24, datiem)

Laika periodā no 2010. līdz 2014. gadam mazumtirdzniecība vienmēr bija starp līderēm šajā neapskaužamajā reitingā (2010. gadā – 2. vieta, 2011. gadā – 1. vieta, 2012. un 2013. gadā – 3. vieta, 2014. gadā – 2. vieta pēc būvniecības). Tas nozīmē, ka mazumtirdzniecības uzņēmumi Latvijā nespēj saredzēt citas attīstības iespējas, kā izmantot neatļautus un negodīgus paņēmienus konkurētspējas nodrošināšanai.

Izanalējot minēto pētnieku datus par ēnu ekonomiku mazumtirdzniecības nozarē Baltijas valstīs (skat. 2. attēlu), redzams, starp Baltijas valstīm ēnu ekonomikas jomā mazumtirdzniecības nozarē līderis ir Latvija.



2. attēls. Ēnu ekonomika mazumtirdzniecībā Baltijas valstīs
no 2010. līdz 2014. gadam (% no IKP)
(Putniņš un Sauka, 2015, 23–24)

Ja no 2010. gada līdz 2013. gadam novērojama pozitīva tendence – EEI samazināšanos par 20,4 procentu punktiem, tad 2014. gadā šis rādītājs palielinājās par 8,1 procentu punktiem. Jāatzīmē, ka Igaunijas mazumtirdzniecībā tas 2014. gadā ir tikai 12,4 %. Pie tam Igaunijai un Lietuvai nepārtraukti notiek EEI indeksa samazināšanās. Tas nozīmē, ka uzņēmumi var sasniegt savus mērķus, balstoties uz likumīgām un caurspīdīgām uzņēmējdarbības metodēm, t.sk. attiecību ar patērētājiem vadības jomā.

No vienas puses, jāpiekrīt A. Saukam (Sauka, 2015), ka EEI var samazināt ar nodokļu sistēmas sakārtošanu un valsts atbalstu godīgiem uzņēmējiem, bet, no otras puses, uzskata, ka ar tādām metodēm nepietiks. Kamēr paši uzņēmēji nepārlicināsies, ka palielināt tirgus daļu, apgrozījumu, ienākumus, peļņu un rezultātā – darba algu, sociālos pabalstus u.c. var, galvenokārt pateicoties efektīvai attiecību ar patērētājiem vadībai, tie turpinās izmantot neatbilstošas godīgai uzņēmējdarbībai metodes. Tādējādi ēnu ekonomikas likvidācija (vai vismaz samazināšana līdz Igaunijas un Lietuvas līmenim) mazumtirdzniecībā vispirms ir atkarīga no iekšējiem uzņēmuma faktoriem, proti, no īpašnieku, vadītāju, speciālistu u.c. darbinieku darbības un sociālas atbildības.

2. Patērētāju apmierinātības teorētiskie aspekti

Patērētāju izvēles pamatā ir prece (sortiments un kvalitāte), cena, vieta, apkalpošana atbilstoši cerētajam un nepieciešamā informācija. Pašreizējā tirgus situācijā patērētājam iegūt informāciju par labāko piedāvājumu tirgū ir samērā viegli, tāpēc mazumtirdzniecības uzņēmumiem jāatrod jauni risinājumi, lai piesaistītu un noturētu patērētāju un veidotu ar viņu ilgtermiņa attiecības. Mazumtirgotājiem ir nepieciešams mehānisms, kas nodrošinātu konkurētspēju un radītu patērētājiem vēlmi kļūt lojāliem, t.i., veikt atkārtotus pirkumus un nepārtraukt attiecības ar uzņēmumu, tā produktiem un zīmoliem. Neskatoties uz attiecību ar patērētājiem vadību (šeit un turpmāk darbā tiks lietots termins “patērētājs”³, jo mazumtirdzniecības

³ Patērētājs – persona, kas lieto, patērē nopirktās preces un nepārdod tās tālāk vai izmanto kādus pakalpojumus (*Ekonomikas skaidrojošā vārdnīca*, 2000)

sfēru ietekmējošajos faktoros apskata ne tikai pirkšanas, bet arī patērēšanas faktora ietekmi), popularitāti un efektīvu izmantošanu ārzemēs, Baltijas valstīs mazumtirdzniecības uzņēmumi šajā jomā joprojām atpaliek no pasaules tendencēm. Tas atstāj negatīvu ietekmi gan uz uzņēmuma darbības rezultātiem, gan uz patērētāju apmierinātību ar piedāvātajiem produktiem un apkalpošanas kvalitāti. Līdz ar to pētījumi šajā jomā ir ļoti aktuāli. Nepieciešams noskaidrot CRM un ECR būtību un integrāciju, iemeslus to nelietošanai Baltijas valstu mazumtirdzniecības uzņēmumos, salīdzināt šo valstu pieredzi un izstrādāt piemērotu vietējiem apstākļiem attiecību ar patērētājiem vadības sistēmas modeli.

Jau XX gadsimta vidū parādījās pētījumi par patērētāju apmierinātību, sasaistot to ar uzņēmuma mārketinga darbību (*Engel, et al., 1968; Howard & Sheth, 1969 u.c.*). Patērētāju apmierinātība/neapmierinātība kā svarīgs uzņēmuma darbības un t.sk. mārketinga rezultāts tika atzīts nedaudz vēlāk – pagājušā gadsimta 70. gados (*Hunt, 1977; La Tour & Peat, 1979, 431–437 u.c.*). Parādījās patērētāju apmierinātības teorijas, kas balstītas uz nopietnām teorētiskām koncepcijām un empīriskiem pētījumiem. Taču, neskatoties uz samērā lielo pētījumu skaitu, līdz šim brīdim pētnieki nav nonākuši pie vienotas patērētāju apmierinātības definīcijas un patērētāju apmierinātības veidošanās procesa modeļa.

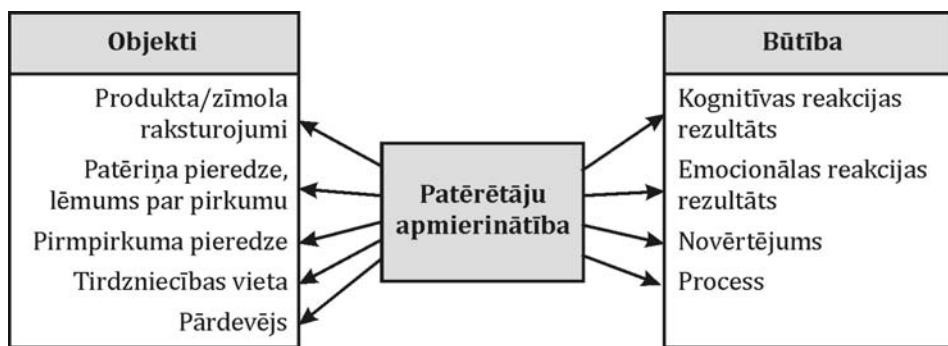
Viena no svarīgākajām patērētāju apmierinātības izpausmēm ir patērētāju lojalitāte. Agrīnā pētīšanas stadijā dominēja patērētāju lojalitātes viendimensijas pieeja. Pēc būtības tas nozīmē patērētāju lojalitātes, kā jēdziena, saistību tikai ar atkārtotiem pirkumiem (*Bass, 1974, 1–20*). Lojalitātes būtības pētniecības attīstības procesā tika konstatētas nepilnības arī divu dimensiju pieejā (*Jones & Taylor, 2007, 36–51*). Tika konstatēts, ka šādi pētījumi ir dārgi un nesniedz reālus rezultātus no uzņēmuma viedokļa.

XX gadsimta beigās un XXI gadsimtā patērētāju lojalitātes būtības pētījumus un to praktisko pielietojumu ietekmēja pētnieka R. Olivera publikācijas šajā jomā (*Oliver, 1997, 152–155*). Pētnieks uzskata, ka patērētāju lojalitāte balstās uz četrām dimensijām – izzināšanas, emocionālo, uzticības un rīcības lojalitāti. Tomēr pētnieki nav nonākuši pie vienotas patērētāju lojalitātes definīcijas un patērētāju lojalitātes veidošanās modeļa.

Jāatzīmē, ka praktiski nav būtisku pētījumu par patērētāju apmierinātības un lojalitātes procesu veidošanas īpatnībām mazumtirdzniecībā saistībā ar patērētāju rīcības tirgū posmiem.

Līdz šim Latvijā ir salīdzinoši maz pētījumu par patērētāju apmierinātību un to vadību. Nozīmīgākos pētījumus veikuši Latvijas Universitātes zinātnieki V. Praude, L. Stabulniece, A. Batraga un A. Krūmiņa. Turpretim ASV, Kanādā un dažās Eiropas valstīs patērētāju attiecību vadības problēmas izpētei ir pievērsta lielāka pētnieku uzmanība. Šajā jomā jāatzīmē E. Andersona, R. Besta, S. Butčheras, P. DePelsmakera, M. Evansa, Dž. Gibasa, M. Harkersa, L. Harveja, K. Kellera, P. Kotlera, M. Krausa, G. McKorkela, D. O'Reilija, F. Reiheda, A. Stefansa, M. Toedtsa un citu autoru pētījumi.

Iepazīstoties ar pētnieku publikācijām, tiek secināts, ka ir sastopamas daudzas konceptuāli atšķirīgas un dažādiem mārketinga mērķiem piemērotas definīcijas. Pētnieku viedokļi apkopotā veidā ir parādīti 3. attēlā.



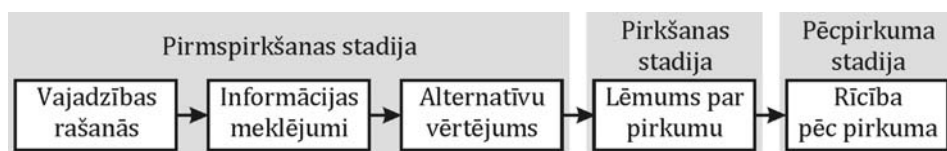
3. attēls. Sastopamās patērētāju apmierinātības būtības definīcijas un objekti (Autoru veidots)

Piemēram, I. Hovards un I. Šets uzskata, ka patērētāja apmierinātība ir patērētāja kognitīvais stāvoklis, kurš veidojas adekvāta vai neadekvāta apbalvojuma rezultātā par nesto upuri (*Howard & Sheth, 1969*). A. Vestbruks un M. Reilijs apgalvo, ka apmierinātība ir emocionāla reakcija uz pieredzi, kas gūta vai tiek asociēta ar konkrēta produkta pirkumu un iepirkšanos veikalā, vai rīcību tirgū (*Westbrook & Reily, 1983, 256–261*). Emocionālu reakciju kā faktoru arī uzsver R. Olivers, kas uzskata, ka apmierinātība ir patērētāja komplekss psiholoģiskais stāvoklis, kas rodas, savienojoties gaidu emocijām un sajūtām pēc patēriņa pieredzes (*Oliver, 1981, 27*). Savukārt I. Giss un I. Kote par apmierinātības pamatkomponentu uzskata kompleksu emocionālu reakciju, kuras intensitāte var būt atšķirīga (*Giese & Cote, 2000, 15*). Vairāki citi autori patērētāju apmierinātību definē kā novērtējumu. Piemēram, H. Hants izsakās, ka patērētāja apmierinātība ir patērētāja izteikts novērtējums, t.i., ka patēriņa pieredze bija vismaz tik laba, cik tika gaidīts, I. Endžels un R. Blekvels, ka izvēlēta alternatīva atbilst iepriekšējiem priekšstatiem par šo alternatīvu (*Engel & Blackwell, 1982, 501*), bet D. Tse un P. Viltons, ka patērētāja apmierinātības reakcija uz atšķirīgu novērtējumu starp gaidām un faktisko produkta uztveri pēc tā patērēšanas (*Tse & Wilton, 1988, 204*). Pēc būtības tā ir uz procesu orientēta pieeja, kas apvieno visu patērētāja patēriņa pieredzes un situācijas uztveres posmus secīgā novērtēšanas procesā, kurš noved pie apmierinātības/neapmierinātības veidošanās.

Zinātniskajā literatūrā patērētāju apmierinātības definīcijas atšķiras arī atkarībā no pētījuma objekta. G. Čērčils, C. Surprenats, R. Olivers, G. Linda, I. Švāns un T. Travicks apmierinātību saista ar produktu vai pakalpojumu (*Churchill & Suprenant, 1982; Oliver & Linda, 1981, 88–93; Swan & Trawick, 1981, 49–67*), bet W. Berdens, I. Tīls, R. Fisks, C. Jangs, S. La Tors un N. Pīts tieši patēriņa pieredzi akcentē kā apmierinātības objektu (*Bearden & Teel, 1983, 21–28; Fisk & Young, 1985; La Tour & Peat, 1979, 431–437*). Apmierinātību ar pirkšanas lēmuma pieņemšanu ir pētījuši M. Korilskijs, T. Murrejs, R. Vestbruks un I. Ņūmens (*Kourilsky & Murray, 1981, 181–188*). Uz apmierinātību ar tirdzniecības vietu, tai skaitā servisu, apkalpojošo personālu u.c. koncentrējās I. Švāns un R. Olivers (*Swan & Oliver, 1985*), bet uz pakalpojuma raksturojumiem – I. Bettmens un Tresholds (*Bettman & Threshold, 1974, 30–35*), savukārt apmierinātību ar pirmpirkuma pieredzi uzsvēra R. Vestbruks (*Westbrook, 1977, 85–90*).

Apkopojot informāciju par apmierinātības būtību un objektiem, var secināt:

- apmierinātība ir patērētāja gan kognitīvās, gan emocionālās reakcijas rezultāts (reakciju secība un nozīmīgums ir atkarīgi no indivīda psiholoģijas, uztveres u.c. faktoriem). Līdz ar to nav loģiski saistīt apmierinātību tikai ar kognitīvu vai emocionālu aspektu;
- apmierinātība ir kādas patērētāja rīcības rezultāts. Tajā pašā laikā apmierinātību var pētīt kā procesu, kura gala rezultātu ietekmē noteikti faktori, alternatīvu salīdzinājums utt. Ja apmierinātību kā rezultātu var definēt, balstoties uz jēdziena evolūcijas analīzi un loģiskiem secinājumiem, tad apmierinātības kā procesa pētījums prasa attiecīga modeļa izstrādi un tā testēšanu. Ar procesu ir saistīta arī apmierinātības vērtēšana;
- apmierinātības objekts ir patērētāja rīcība tirgū, tās noteikti posmi. Klasiskais patērētāju rīcības process ir parādīts 4. attēlā.



4. attēls. Patērētāja rīcības tirgū procesa posmi
(attēls veidots pēc R. Elliota, L. Persija un V. Praudes publikācijām
(Elliot & Percy, 2007, 6; Praude, 2011, 219–233))

Protams, katrs atsevišķs patērētājs konkrētā situācijā neuztver visus minētos, bet tikai dažus apmierinātības objektus atkarībā no viņa vajadzībām, mērķiem, psiholoģiskiem u.c. faktoriem, tāpat kā jebkurš objekts var kļūt par izvēles pētījuma priekšmetu. Taču pēc būtības patērētāja apmierinātības objekts ir rīcības tirgū process kopumā, ieskaitot visus tā posmus (skat. 5. attēlu). Turpmāk, lai neatkārtotu visus iespējamus apmierinātības objektus (skat. 5. attēlu), tiks izmantots termins “piedāvājums”.

Atbilstoši patērētāja rīcības tirgū posmiem veidojas viņa apmierinātības objekti:



5. attēls. Patērētāja apmierinātības galvenie objekti atbilstoši rīcības tirgū posmiem

Balstoties uz izdarītajiem secinājumiem, tiek piedāvāta šāda apmierinātības definīcija: **Apmierinātība/neapmierinātība ir patērētāja kompleksa – kognitīva, emocionāla un pēc intensitātes atšķirīga reakcija, kas veidojas attiecībā pret pirkuma, pirkuma un pēcpirkuma rīcības tirgū stadijām.** Šī definīcija atspoguļo apmierinātības jēdzienu kā rezultātu.

Lai dziļāk izprastu patērētāju apmierinātības procesu, tika aplūkotas apmierinātības procesa pamatteorijas, kas balstītas uz nopietnām teorētiskām koncepcijām un empīriskiem pētījumiem.

- ❖ **Asimilācijas jeb kognitīvās disonanses** (*Assimilation or cognitive dissonance*) teorijas pamatā ir pieņēmums, ka jebkura persona tiecas uz kognitīvo līdzsvaru (*Festinger, 1957*). Šis līdzsvars veidojas, ja faktiskais piedāvājums atbilst patērētāja sagaidāmajam. Ja starp faktisko un sagaidāmo piedāvājumu veidojas neatbilstība jeb kognitīvā disonanse, pēc teorijas autora domām patērētājam aktivizējas tā dēvētais “konsonanses atjaunošanas mehānisms”, kurš rada papildu pielāgošanos sagaidāmajam un/vai faktiskajam piedāvājumam, lai mazinātu neatbilstību.
- ❖ **Kontrastu** (*Contrast*) teorijas pamatā ir pieņēmums, ka neatbilstības gadījumā starp faktisko un sagaidāmo piedāvājumu patērētājs veic papildu korekciju abos līmeņos, bet šī korekcija ir pilnīgi pretēja asimilācijas teorijā aplūkotajam asimilācijas efektam. Proti, pēc kontrastu teorijas patērētājs tiecas palielināt atšķirības starp faktisko un sagaidāmo piedāvājuma rezultātu. (*Helson, 1964*)
- ❖ **Asimilācijas-kontrastu** (*Assimilation-contrast*) teorija apvieno abas minētās teorijas (*Hovland, et al., 1957, 217*). Pēc šīs teorijas faktiskā un sagaidāmā piedāvājuma neatbilstības pakāpe ir iedalāma trīs zonās: akceptēšanas zona, vienaldzības zona un nolieguma zona.
- ❖ **Gaidu neatbilstības** (*Expectancy disconfirmation*) teorija (*Zeithalm, et al., 1991, 11–25*) balstās uz pieņēmumu, ka patērētāja gaidu nostāja no piedāvājuma viedokļa veidojas trīs faktoru ietekmē:
 - piedāvājums (produkts, zīmols, cena u.c.);
 - patērētājs (vajadzība, pieredze u.c.);
 - trešā puse (mediji, pētījumi u.c.).
- ❖ **Nosacījumu** (*Attribution*) teorijas autori uzskata, ka patērētāja gaidu piepildījums automātiski nenoved pie noteikta apmierinātības līmeņa. Viņi apgalvo, ka, neskatoties uz vienādu gaidu piepildījumu, apmierinātība var sasniegt dažādus līmeņus, pateicoties noteiktiem nosacījumiem. Citiem vārdiem sakot, šie nosacījumi var paaugstināt vai pazemināt patērētāja apmierinātības līmeni.
- ❖ **Salīdzinājuma līmeņu** (*Comparison level*) teorijas autori (*Hermann & Johnson, 1999, 579–598*) uzskata, ka piedāvājuma savdabīgs standarts visbiežāk izpaužas trīs veidos:
 - gaidāmais standarts balstās uz iepriekšējo pieņēmumu un vērtējumu par piedāvājuma līmeni;
 - pieredzes standarts balstās uz patērētāja iepriekšējo patēriņa pieredzi, kas radusies, patērējot/lietojot tādus pašus vai līdzīgus produktus/zīmolus par noteiktām cenām;
 - ideāls standarts veidojas pēc konkrēta patērētāja izvēles vērtējuma. Pie tam, lai veiktu apmierinātības novērtējumu, patērētājs var izmantot uzreiz vai

atsevišķi gan gaidāmo, gan pieredzes standartu. Pēc būtības notiek iedomāta piedāvājuma standarta un faktiskā piedāvājuma standarta salīdzināšana un līdz ar to atšķirības starp "jābūt" un "ir" fiksēšana, un apmierinātības novērtēšana.

- ❖ **Vērtības uztveres** (*Value percept*) teorijas autori (*Oh & Parks, 1997, 36–64*) uzskata, ka patērētāja apmierinātības izveidošanā liela nozīme ir piedāvājuma uztverei un to ietekmējošiem faktoriem. Tiek izceltas trīs faktoru grupas:
 - piedāvājuma ietekmes faktori;
 - patērētāja ietekmes faktori;
 - situatīvie faktori.
 Tātad, patērētāja uztvere ietekmē apmierinātību/neapmierinātību ar piedāvājumu.
- ❖ **Situatīvie faktori**, kuri veido jebkura uzņēmuma darbības vidi un nav ietekmējami no tā puses, var tikt tikai zināmā mērā mazināti vai kompensēti. Rezultātā faktiskais uzņēmuma piedāvājums ir jāaplūko no divām pusēm: kā objektīvs, kas visiem patērētājiem ir vienāds, un kā subjektīvs, kuru var uztvert atšķirīgi atkarībā no dažādiem minētajiem uztveres faktoriem. Attiecīgi atšķiras arī patērētāja apmierinātības/neapmierinātības līmenis.
- ❖ **Lietderības-labuma** (*Purpose-Benefit*) teorija pamatojas uz lēmumu pieņemšanas teoriju. Atbilstoši šai teorijai labums tiek izteikts ar pozitīvu vai negatīvu novirzi no kāda atskaites punkta (piemēram, peļņa vai zaudējumi) (*Tversky & Kahneman, 1981, 358–453*). Attiecīgi notiek lietderīga lēmuma pieņemšana. Pēc dažu pētnieku (*Herman, et al., 1998*) viedokļa lietderības – labuma teoriju var piemērot arī patērētāja apmierinātības/neapmierinātības pētījumā, jo labums ir apmierinātība, bet lietderība – patērētāja rīcība tirgū.
- ❖ **Daudzfaktoru teorijas** pamatā ir F. Hercberga darbinieku motivācijas un apmierinātības teorija (*Herzberg, 1966, 71*). Pētnieks izdalīja divus faktorus: higiēnas un motivatorus. Higiēnas faktori nosaka minimālās prasības, kuru izpildi pieprasa uzņēmuma darbinieki. To izpilde vēl neizraisa neapmierinātību, bet novērš neapmierinātības rašanos. Savukārt motivatoru neizpilde neizraisa neapmierinātību, bet tiem ir būtiska ietekme apmierinātības veidošanā.

Pārnesot F. Hercberga teorijas pamatnostādnes uz patērētāju apmierinātības pētījumu, R. L. Olivers, japāņu pētnieks N. Kano u.c. izceļ trīs veidu faktorus (*Oliver, 1997, 152–155*):

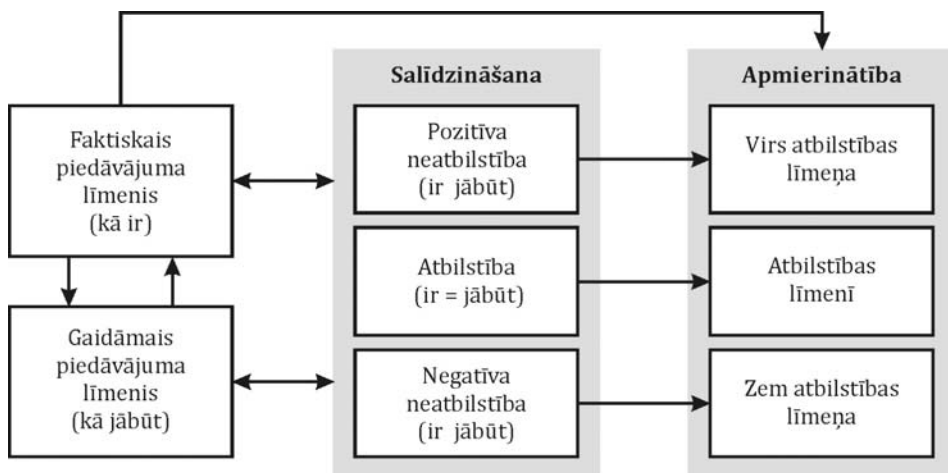
- bāzes faktori (*Expected Attributes*);
- valdzinājuma faktori (*Exciting/Suprising Attributes*);
- vēlamā piedāvājuma faktori (*Desired Attributes*).

Pēc desmit patērētāju apmierinātības teoriju apskates un analīzes var izdarīt šādus secinājumus:

- notiek teorijas evolūcija, t.i., katra papildina iepriekš izstrādāto ar jauniem elementiem patērētāja apmierinātības procesā;
- bieži vien katra jauna teorija balstās uz kādu pamatteoriju un tiek piemērota patērētāju apmierinātības pētījumam;
- lielākoties katra jauna teorija apvieno kādas iepriekš izstrādātas teorijas.

Līdz ar to ir loģiska pētnieku ceļāšanās pēc universālas patērētāju apmierinātības teorijas veidošanas, kuru dēvē par C/D paradigmu (*Confirmation/Disconfirmation Paradigm*) jeb piedāvājuma atbilstības/neatbilstības modeli.

C/D modeļa būtību laika periodā no 1980. līdz 2000. gadam ir skaidrojuši un attīstījuši pazīstami šī pētniecības virziena pētnieki (*Thibaut & Kelley, 1959; Oliver, 1980, 460–469; Churchill & Suprenant, 1982, 491–504; Andersen, & Sullivan, 1993, 127* u.c.). Ar nelielām atšķirībām viņi piedāvāja tradicionālu C/D modeli, kuru var izmantot arī praktiskā darbā, vērtējot patērētāja apmierinātību ar uzņēmuma piedāvājumu (skat. 6. attēlu).



6. attēls. Patērētāja apmierinātības atbilstības/neatbilstības (C/D) tradicionālais modelis

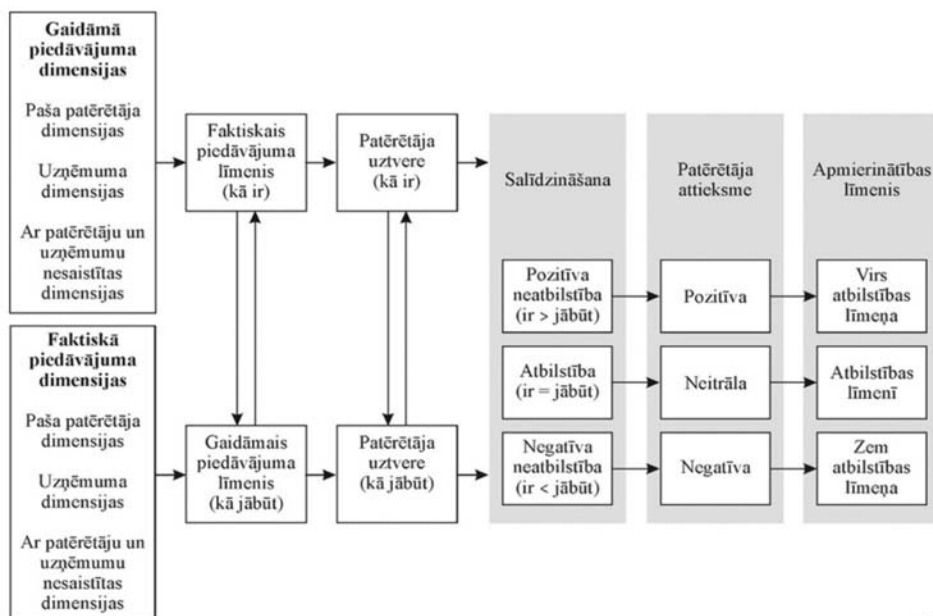
(attēls veidots pēc publikācijām: *Oliver, 1980, 460–469; Churchill & Suprenant, 1982, 491–504; Andersen & Sullivan, 1993, 127*)

No 6. attēla izriet, ka patērētāja apmierinātība veidojas, salīdzinot noteikta piedāvājuma reālo patēriņa (lietošanas) pieredzi (kā ir) ar patērētāja gaidāmo piedāvājumu, ieskaitot visus prasītos raksturojumus (kā jābūt). Jāatzīmē, ka faktiskais un gaidāmais piedāvājuma līmenis nav pilnīgi neatkarīgi viens no otra. Šo abu līmeņu neatbilstības gadījumā praktiski ir jāņem vērā faktiskā un/vai sagaidāmā līmeņa korekcijas. Šīs korekcijas noved vai nu pie atbilstības samazināšanas vai pie tās palielināšanas.

3. Risinājums

No mazumtirdzniecības īpatnībām izriet, ka patērētāju jāapmierina gan ar materializētiem (preces), gan ar nematerializētiem (pakalpojumi) produktiem. Tas ietekmē praktiski visus apmierinātības veidošanas procesa veidošanas posmus (skat. 7. attēlu). Šīs ietekmes pakāpe un intensitāte ir atkarīga no apkalpošanas līmeņa (lielveikals vai ekskluzīvu preču veikals utt.), tirdzniecības veida (tradicionālais veikals, tirdzniecība ārpus veikala) u.c. faktoriem.

Balstoties uz literatūras analīzi, tika izceltas un piedāvātas katra apmierinātības veidošanas posma (skat. 7. attēlu) īpatnības tirdzniecībā.



7. attēls. Patērētāja apmierinātības atbilstības/neatbilstības (C/D) modelis

Faktiskā piedāvājuma līmeņa un gaidāmā piedāvājuma līmeņa patērētāja uztveres un salīdzināšanas īpatnības mazumtirdzniecībā ir šādas:

- secinājums par materializēto preci un nematerializēto produktu (apkalpošana) atbilstību/neatbilstību veidojas kompleksi neatkarīgi no tā, ka materializētā produkta atbilstība/neatbilstība ir samērā maz atkarīga no tirdzniecības uzņēmuma;
- secinājums par materializēta produkta atbilstību/neatbilstību veidojas pēc pirkuma patēriņa procesā, bet par nematerializēto produktu (apkalpošana) – pirkšanas procesā.

Pozitīva/neitrāla/negatīva patērētāja attieksme vienmēr veidojas pēc faktiskā un gaidāmā piedāvājuma līmeņa salīdzināšanas, bet mazumtirdzniecībā tas notiek sarežģītāk – pēc materializēta (prece) vai nematerializēta (apkalpošana) produkta vērtējuma. Pie tam abu šo produktu tipu ietekmes uz attieksmi proporcija ir ļoti individuāla.

Vairāki zinātnieki (*Jayanty & Jackson, 1991, 603; Fisk, 1981, 19 u.c.*) uzskata, ka tradicionālajam C/D modelim trūkst dinamiskuma, jo tas pēc būtības atspoguļo tikai patērētāju rīcības tirgū pēcpirkuma stadiju. Darba autores uzskata, ka modeli nepieciešams atspoguļot visas trīs stadijas: pirmspirkuma apmierinātību (*Shopping Satisfaction*), pirkšanas apmierinātību (*Buying Satisfaction*) un pēcpirkuma apmierinātību (*Conserming Satisfation*). Atbilstoši sociālpsiholoģijā pazīstamajai epizodiskās informācijas apstrādes koncepcijai indivīda kopējā apmierinātība veidojas nevis no laikā statistiski neatkarīgiem apmierinātības novērtējuma objektiem, bet no atsevišķām epizodēm, atbilstoši patērētāja rīcībai tirgū.

Īpaši C/D modeļa dinamiskums ir svarīgs pakalpojumu sfērā, jo, piemēram, patērētāja apmierinātība ar veikala pakalpojumu var tikt noteikta ne tikai pēc produkta

pirkšanas beigām, bet arī jebkurā citā šīs tirdzniecības vietas apmeklējuma laikā kā apmierinātības līmenis konkrētai epizodei (piemēram, produkta meklējums) vai konkrētam kontaktam (piemēram, ar pārdevēju).

Secinājumi un priekšlikumi

1. Diemžēl daudzi uzņēmumi efektivitātes paaugstināšanas vietā izvēlas negodīgus un/vai nelikumīgus paņēmienus, lai sasniegtu savus uzņēmējdarbības mērķus. Par to liecina pētījumi par tā dēvēto ēnu ekonomikas indeksu (EEI), kas tiek aprēķināts procentos no IKP. Starp Baltijas valstīm ēnu ekonomikas mazumtirdzniecības jomā līderis ir Latvija. Ja no 2010. gada līdz 2013. gadam novērojām pozitīvu tendenci – EEI samazināšanos par 20,4 %, tad 2014. gadā šis rādītājs palielinājās par 8,1 %. Jāatzīmē, ka Igaunijas mazumtirdzniecībā, kas rāda visaugstāko efektivitāti, šis indekss 2014. gadā ir tikai 12,4 %. Pie tam kaimiņiem nepārtraukti notiek EEI indeksa samazināšanās. Tas nozīmē, ka uzņēmumi var sasniegt savus mērķus, balstoties uz likumīgām un caurspīdīgām uzņēmējdarbības metodēm, t.sk. attiecību ar patērētājiem vadības jomā. Ēnu ekonomikas mazināšanai ir jāizmanto patērētāju attiecību vadība.
2. Jānošķir patērētāju apmierinātības rezultāts un apmierinātības veidošanas process. Rezultāts apmierinātība/neapmierinātība ir patērētāja kompleksa – kognitīva, emocionāla un pēc intensitātes atšķirīga reakcija, kas veidojas attiecībā pret pirkuma, pirkuma un pēcpirkuma rīcības tirgū stadijām.
3. Balstoties uz izdarītajiem secinājumiem, tiek piedāvāta šāda apmierinātības definīcija: **Apmierinātība/neapmierinātība ir patērētāja kompleksa – kognitīva, emocionāla un pēc intensitātes atšķirīga reakcija, kas veidojas attiecībā pret pirkuma, pirkuma un pēcpirkuma rīcības tirgū stadijām.** Šī definīcija atspoguļo apmierinātības jēdzienu kā rezultātu.
4. Tradicionālajam apmierinātības/neapmierinātības modelim trūkst dinamikas, papildinot to ar dinamikas faktoriem un ņemot vērā tā lietošanas īpatnības mazumtirdzniecībā, tam jābūt attiecību ar patērētājiem vadības procesa pamatā.
5. Par tradicionālo apmierinātības veidošanas procesa modeli ir jāievēro kritiskas piezīmes, kuras ņemot vērā, tiek piedāvāta šī modeļa jauna redakcija (skat. 7. attēlu), kas varētu būt par pamatu turpmākajam pētījumam. Piedāvātais modelis ir universāls, bet tam varbūt lietošanas īpatnības atkarībā no pētījuma objekta – mazumtirdzniecības.

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MANAGING MILLENNIAL COMMUNICATION PROFESSIONALS: CONNECTING GENERATION ATTRIBUTES, LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT, AND EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

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Abstract

Recruiting, engaging, and retaining millennials has become a critical challenge for organizations; however, little research addresses these issues of talent management in the field of corporate communication and communication management. Drawing on talent management theory, the current study evaluates millennials as a unique and influential group to understand their expectations and opinions for recruitment, engagement, integration and leadership development in communication management. In-depth interviews with 39 millennial professionals working in strategic communication in a variety of organizations (e.g., full-service communication agencies, public corporates and non-profits) reveal several key themes and a broad consensus within this generation. Findings indicate that millennial professionals are a contradictory generation, desiring independence, flexibility, and challenges balanced with clear expectations, regular evaluation, and safety nets in case of failure. If leveraged appropriately, the field of strategic communication has many of the structures and attributes to attract and engage millennial employees.

Keywords: talent management, millennials, strategic communication, communication management, engagement

Introduction

The millennial generation, defined as those born between 1982 and 2004, consists of nearly 90 million individuals (Clemons, 2012). Approximately 1 million millennials enter the workforce each year and, by 2020, they will form almost 40 percent of employed Americans, according to U.S. Census data (Lykins & Pace, 2013). As this generation matures to adulthood and enters the workforce, understanding millennials and their expectations is strategically important for the future success of organizations and the public relations field.

Recruiting, engaging, and retaining millennials has become a critical challenge for organizations and an ongoing conversation in the business press (e.g. Dill, 2014; Downing, 2006; Ferri-Reed, 2012). Though the millennial generation and its

unique attributes are discussed in the mainstream business press, little research addresses issues of talent management (e.g. recruitment, retention, engagement, or leadership development) in the public relations field. Recent research has evaluated particular generational attributes, preferences, or beliefs including their ideas of diversity in the workplace, satisfaction with public relations firm relationships or responses to ethical dilemmas (Curtin, Gallicano, & Matthews, 2011; Gallicano, 2013; Gallicano, Curtin, & Matthews, 2012). However, to attract and satisfy top talents in communication management, and the future leaders of the field, organizations must also understand their expectations and preferences for recruitment, leadership development, and engagement.

Drawing on the talent management theory, the current study evaluates millennials as a unique and increasingly influential group in the field of communication management, seeking to understand their expectations and opinions for recruitment, engagement, and integration into the talent management process. The main objectives of this study are to explore strategies for organizations to (1) effectively recruit millennials (2) actively engage millennials with their current positions and organizations, (3) create desirable leadership development programs, and (4) understand millennial expectations for work-life balance. In-depth interviews with 39 millennial professionals working on strategic communication in full-service communication agencies, public corporations, and non-profit organizations reveal several major trends and a consensus around workplace expectations within this generation of communicators. Millennials are an enigmatic generation that desires flexibility and independence but guidance and clear goals; this combination requires adaptations to previous talent management strategies.

This research fills a gap in talent management literature by focusing on the field of communication management and addresses a topic that is timely and relevant to many employers as they incorporate this distinctive generation into their strategic communication team of the organizations. Our conclusions support previous studies in talent management literature, expand the talent management literature on millennials specifically working in the field of strategic communication, produce practical implications for the industry, and provide the foundation for future research on the topic. The following literature review sets forth the research on millennials' attributes, their positions in the general workforce, and their influence in the public relations field. After describing the sample and interview methodology, we discuss the major themes that emerged from conversations with millennial professionals working in the field of strategic communication. We conclude our study with managerial implications for organizations.

1. Literature Review

Background: Millennials in the Workforce

Research on the millennial employees indicates that this generation is significantly different from previous generations, particularly in higher levels of self-esteem, assertiveness, and narcissism than previous generations at the same age (Deal, Altman & Rogelberg, 2010). Millennials have been described as the "look at me"

generation: self-centered, unmotivated, disrespectful, self-confident, and disloyal. However, millennials are also more accepting of diversity, team-oriented, capable with advanced technology, and adept multi-taskers (Farrell & Hurt, 2014; Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010).

Millennials are confident, driven, and high-achieving individuals. These rising professionals place significant value on flexibility, creativity, a higher purpose in their work, and co-workers “who make work fun,” (Cafasso, 2007, quoting *New York Times* “Life’s Work” column, p. 40). Millennials want to immediately contribute to an organization and are not attracted to traditional, hierarchical organizations (Downing, 2006). These characteristics and desires affect how millennials view the world, their expectations for employers, and the ways they want to be incorporated into the business community.

Millennials communicate in “fundamentally different ways” from recruiters and require a new set of tactics from those used to hire Generation X (Cafasso, 2007, 40). They must be convinced that the organization can provide challenging assignments, employs other millennial colleagues, offers regular positive feedback, and gives flexibility to spend time with family and friends outside of work (Behrens, 2009). It is crucial for organizations to recognize these drivers of millennial engagement and retention.

Because of the difficult job market, many recent graduates have spent their early adulthood pursuing advanced degrees, traveling, volunteering or interning (Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010). They enter the workforce with “different, often broader, perspectives about the world marketplace, supervisor-subordinate relationships, cultural diversity, performance of tasks, and ways that communication and information technologies can be used to enhance organizational performance and maximize productivity” (Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010, 235). These unique attributes can be viewed as opportunities by organizations seeking to foster and develop millennial leaders. (Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010)

Millennials seek learning experiences in the workplace (Lykins & Pace, 2013). As a part of the learning process, millennials prefer to be regularly evaluated and advance quickly in their careers (Dill, 2014). “Credible professionals who can share experiences and offer suggestions,” provide the most effective mentoring and coaching method for these young professionals (Cafasso, 2007, p. 40). However, many millennials neglect the organizational hierarchy and speak to senior managers as if they were their peers (Ferri-Reed, 2012). To avoid these mistakes, organizational supervisors should incorporate appropriate professional practices, career-building skills, and expectations into mentorships. (Ferri-Reed, 2012)

This generation of new employees is defined and influenced by their acute relationships with technology. Often referred to as “digital natives,” they easily integrate technology into their daily lives and use it to solve problems, interact with others, and interpret the world (Agozzino, 2012; Downing, 2006; Hershatter & Epstein, 2010). Millennials offer their employers unique skills and affinities in communication and information technologies. These technologies offer a leadership role for millennials as their adoption of the computer-mediated communication may encourage older generations to do the same. (Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010)

Though data suggests that most millennials stay in jobs for only 18 months, top talent will stay in the same position long-term if the work is interesting and varied. Like most other professionals, top millennial employees are attracted by compensation; however, to younger millennials, flexibility is nearly as important salary. The flexibility and work-life balance provided by virtual organizations and telework are attractive to millennials, but the structures also lack the supportive supervision and structure that many crave (Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010). While understanding the importance of deadlines and client needs, these young professionals want to choose where and when to work (Dill, 2014).

These differences and generational shifts will likely significantly change the workforce as millennials reach their 30s, 40s, and 50s, and accept leadership roles within their organizations. (Deal, Altman & Rogelberg, 2010). The oldest of this generation is at the age to become middle management professionals and many bring strong ideas and opinions to reshape the workplace. Recruiting, retaining and developing these managers is vital to the success of organizations.

Millennials Professionals in Strategic Communication

These significant generational differences challenge the incorporation of millennials into the workforce and the field of strategic communication in general. Recent studies have begun to evaluate millennial perceptions of diversity, actions in ethical dilemmas, and levels of satisfaction in the field. However, little research addresses how these generational attributes affect how millennials want to be integrated into strategic communication.

Expanding on millennials' acceptance and promotion of diversity in society at large, a recent study of millennial communication professionals evaluated their expectations and ideas of a diverse and desirable workplace. Millennials' perceptions of diversity are multifaceted, including hiring many qualified and racially or ethnically diverse employees, creating a mentorship program to advance diverse practitioners, creating a multicultural group to promote diversity, or inspiring a culture that promotes subtle acknowledgements of diverse individual's work and value (Gallicano, 2013). However, millennials also illustrated the continuation of disparities in the field, particularly gender inequalities and the "male leader prototype" (Gallicano, 2013, p. 58).

In a study of millennial employees working in full-service communication firms, millennials enjoyed positive relationships with their agencies and most are satisfied with the amount of control mutuality they experience. Nearly three-quarters of respondents indicated firm efforts to develop a relationship with their generation, and 82% said that firms attempted to maintain these relationships; however, only about half expressed long-term relationships with their firm employers (Gallicano, Curtin & Matthews, 2012). Most participants also offered high scores for trust and commitment. This satisfaction is challenged by a lack of empowerment, significant hierarchy and distance from managers, and concerns regarding ethics and unfulfilled promises.

When confronted with ethical dilemmas, the majority of millennials prefer to avoid an issue, gather extensive information, and follow organizational rules, rather than

take a controversial stand (Curtin, Gallicano, & Matthews, 2011). This need for context and information underscores their desire to understand how their work contributes to organizational goals and missions. However, because they view information gathering as positive and highly value transparency, millennials may need restrictions on what organizational information should and should not be shared.

Research revealed seven categories of stressors in millennial professionals in communication, indicating areas of importance in millennial employment satisfaction: inadequate compensation, limited work-life balance, poor communication, low empowerment, high competition and tension, unethical practices, and hierarchical structure (Gallicano, Curtin & Matthews, 2012). These stressors present challenges to managers and senior executives in the organizations to identify effective approaches to improve the job satisfaction among millennial professionals, as well as to offer sustainable career-planning efforts to millennial professionals.

Talent Management

Millennial employees are incorporated into the talent management processes of organizations from the initial recruitment phase through engagement and leadership development. This theoretical perspective underpins the research.

Talent is the “the collective knowledge, skills, abilities, experiences, values, habits and behaviors of all labor that is brought to bear on the organization’s mission,” (Schiemann, 2014, 282). All talent progresses through a particular talent lifecycle of recruitment, training, performance, development, and retention.

The concept of talent management reflects a shift away from traditional approaches that focused on organizational elites and strategic human resources management, toward a perspective that emphasizes talent particularly suited for today’s dynamic and competitive business environment. Strategic talent management can be conceptualized as a three-step process: (1) the identification of key strategic positions within the organization that definitively and significantly contribute to the organization’s competitive advantage, (2) development of a pool of qualified candidates, and (3) a “differentiated human resource architecture” to simplify the process of filling key positions (Collings & Mellahi, 2009, 306). This process is mediated by work motivation and organizational commitment, and is further complicated by generational attributes and expectations (Collings & Mellahi, 2009, 310–311).

Millennial managers likely require different talent management and leadership development systems than previous generations. Research suggests that though social capital and networks facilitate promotion to middle management, no effect was indicated for senior-management (Claussen, Grohsjean, Luger & Probst, 2014). New millennial talent may benefit from mentorship and networking programs initially, but will ultimately require human capital and skill development to become senior management leaders.

Talent management practices may be used to engage, retain, and develop millennial employees, and increase loyalty and satisfaction within the organization. The organization reaps a significant competitive advantage and various functional benefits when talent management processes are balanced and successful, including higher

employee productivity, increased customer retention, retention of desired employees, reduced risk, and stronger operational and financial performance. (Schiemann, 2014)

Drawing on the talent management process, this study contributes to research on communication management by focusing on the millennial generation of communication professionals and is practically applicable for communication firms and organizations seeking to incorporate the expertise of millennial professionals in strategic communication practice. As such, this study extends previous research on millennials by creating a unique focus, often discussed but not widely researched, on the millennial communication professionals and their potential impact on recruitment, retention, engagement and sustainable leadership development in the field. We examine particularly the interplay between the unique generational attributes of the millennials and their performance at workplace (e.g., recruitment, retention, engagement, development, and work-life balance) by conducting in-depth interviews with a select group of millennial professionals who are currently working in the field of strategic communication, either in full-service communication firms or in organizations (both corporates and non-profits). The meta-goal of this research is to explore how generational attributes affect millennial practitioners' behavior and how organizations can fully understand this unique but influential group's behavior in a way that can maximize their potential at workplace. Specifically, four research questions are addressed in this paper:

- **RQ1:** How can organizations effectively recruit and retain millennial professionals who are specialized in strategic communication?
- **RQ2:** How can organizations effectively increase millennial communication professionals' engagement in the workplace?
- **RQ3:** What kinds of leadership development programs would fit the expectations of this unique group?
- **RQ4:** How important is work-life balance to this unique group? And how can organizations support such expectations?

2. Methodology

In order to obtain an in-depth understanding of the expectations and behavior of the millennials working in the public relations and communication management field, a qualitative research method, in-depth interview, was used in this study. Although we are fully aware of the limited generalizability of results based on qualitative research, we would argue that it is important and necessary for us to approach this understudied subject with a qualitative perspective at the exploratory stage. The in-depth results and discussion presented in this study is a crucial contribution and advancement of our limited knowledge and perceptions on millennial public relations practitioners at workplace.

Sample criteria and recruitment

To be consistent with previous research on the millennial generation, in this study, we define millennial communication professionals as those who were born between 1982 and 2004 and who are currently working in the field of communication management. To try to obtain a reasonably diffuse sample in light of cost constraints

and the difficulty of random sampling in the field of public relations across the country, a snowball sampling procedure was employed to reach out to potential millennial communication professionals in the field. An invitation to participate in the study was sent out to potential millennial communication professionals on behalf of the research team. Once the potential participants indicated their willingness to participate, a follow-up email was sent to confirm an interview schedule and mode.

The major requirement for the convenience sample was that subjects selected and recruited for in-depth interviews must be the millennial generation and are currently working in the communication industry. The requirement was successfully achieved by screening potential participants' basic qualifications (e.g., current job responsibilities and years working in the communication profession).

Interview process and protocol

Overall, one-on-one, separate, tape-recorded interviews were conducted with each millennial communication professional by using their preferred mode (e.g., face-to-face, phone, or video-based technology) at prescheduled times. All interviews were recorded and transcribed for analysis.

The interview protocol was a self-developed open-ended 20-item question set. The content and structure of the interview protocol is derived from previous research and trade publications on the millennial generation, the unique generational attributes, and psychographic profile of the millennials. There are four major sections in the protocol. Question 1 asks about the years of experience working in the public relations profession and major job responsibilities. This question is used to establish the qualification and relevance of the interviewee to this study. Section 1 of the protocol focuses on exploring effective recruitment and retention strategies as perceived by the millennial practitioners. Section 2 explores the perceived engagement at current workplace, as well as effective engagement approaches as preferred by the millennial professionals. Section 3 furthers the discussion on self-development via leadership training and talent management programs offered at the workplace. Lastly, section 4 explores millennial professionals' expectations on maintaining balanced work and life. The detailed interview protocol can be provided upon request.

In total, 39 interviews were completed. The majority of the interviews were conducted via the phone ($n = 27$; 69.2 %), followed by video-based technology such as Skype, FaceTime, Google Talk and others ($n = 9$; 23.1 %). There were only three face-to-face interviews (7.7 %). Interviews lasted between 20 to 90 minutes, with an average of 36.87 minutes. As explained before, all interviews were fully transcribed by the same group of trained senior PR students who conducted the interviews. The length of transcribing time ranges from 60 minutes to 300 minutes, with an average of 167.24 minutes. The transcripts resulted in over 100 single-spaced pages of text. Qualitative analytic techniques – template analysis and thematic interpretation – were used later to analyze the transcripts. (Crabtree & Miller, 1992; King, 1998)

Sample profile

As described before, the final sample retained for data analysis incorporates 39 millennial communication professionals across the United States. In terms of gender distribution, the final sample consisted of 38 females and only one male. Although female participants dominated in this study, it is a reflection of the gender gap, especially at the entry-level jobs in the public relations profession. Participants were asked to self-identify the types of organizations in which they are currently holding the entry-level public relations or communication position. The results indicate that 17 participants (43.6 %) were working in corporate communications with nine in large corporations (23.1 %), 6 in midsized ones (15.4 %), and 2 in small corporations (5.1 %). We had 19 participants indicating they were working in full-service communication agencies (48.7 %) with 4 in large agencies (10.3 %), 8 in midsized ones (20.5 %), and 7 in small agencies (17.9 %). Only three (7.7 %) indicated they are working in governmental and nonprofit organizations.

In order to get a relatively representative sample nationwide, we also asked participants to self-identify their geographic locations. The results showed that we had participants working in Atlanta, Augusta (GA), Austin (TX), Charlotte (NC), Chicago, Colorado Springs (CO), Greenville (SC), Houston, Nashville (TN), New York, Richmond (VA), and Washington D.C. Although it is not an inclusive list of all the major urban areas across the country, we still believe it provides a suitable context for investigating the similarities that millennial practitioners share in their workplace.

3. Results

Preliminary discussions with millennial communication professionals confirmed that they are a unique and influential group quickly changing the nature of communications as consumers and communicators. There is a true agreement among participants in this study that it is hard to find a simple way to define and describe the sophisticated nature of the millennial generation. However, based on the conversations, participants did specify a list of unique communication styles, recruitment strategies and engagement approaches that can generate lots of implications for improving the leader-follower relationship between millennial practitioners and their senior executives and supervisors. In addition, participants indicated a strong desire for self-improvement, leadership development, and the flexibility in balancing work and life. Such perceptions and expectations can help organizations and senior executives design and provide tremendous development opportunities to increase the effectiveness of talent management. The following sections outline the detailed reports toward each research question.

How can organizations effectively recruit and retain millennial professionals who are specialized in strategic communication?

In response to this question, participants addressed a series of specific generational attributes that might help organizations understand certain ways millennial communication professionals would prefer to be recruited and retained. Such

specific generational attributes include their ability of navigating through the Internet to locate target information, their fast-learning ability in handling a large volume of information flow, their desire to be recognized at the workplace, and their nature of independence in creating and developing new ideas and programs. In order to recruit talented millennial professionals, organizations should research this generation and know more about their general expectations as they look for jobs. Knowing what millennials want and how to communicate with them will help organizations' recruitment and retention efforts be more focused and efficient.

Without exception, these millennial communication professionals viewed themselves as future leaders early in their professional career. As a social generation, they tend to have multiple things on their to-do list and struggle with boredom. Their restlessness drives their need to be on-the-go and search for what's next. Millennials don't look for just a paycheck and job security. They want a job that fits into the broader picture and ideal of their career. They look for opportunities for growth and a lifestyle outside the office. Illustrations of millennial communication professionals' expectations in recruitment and retention are:

"Millennials want to grow quickly and rapidly within a company. Promotion promises retention. They have high expectations in the workplace and want recognition, praise and congratulations for their hard work. Millennials are more interested in companies who are involved in meaningful work—one who has social responsibility contributing to a greater good." (Female participant, working in full-service communication agency)

"The best way for a company to recruit talented PR professionals is to optimize its online presence. Organizations should take advantage of online platforms such email, social media and LinkedIn in order to grab the attention of millennials." (Female participant, working in full-service communication agency)

"Millennials are looking for a company that offers perks, not necessarily 'the company with the reputation for bringing in X amount of dollars each month.'" (Female participant, working in corporation)

Attracting millennials doesn't mean completely changing an organization's culture, mission or dynamic, but rather, seeing if the organization can attract this generation to itself by increasing the online presence of the organizations and highlighting and sustainably growing opportunities the organization can offer. Participants suggested that organizations should consider adding a personalized component to every project to increase the level of perceived personal relevance. In order to retain millennials, employers need to offer plenty of clearly defined opportunities for growth and advancement within the company.

Overall, the discussion over the first section of the interview protocol reveals several factors that have been perceived as important in recruitment and retention from the perspective of millennial public relations practitioners:

- Provide upward mobility within the organization itself to encourage retention;
- Emphasize more on the good nature, the purpose and the influence of the organization on local communities;
- Build up a supportive and open communication (e.g., face-to-face) environment within the organization;

- Embrace millennial practitioners' fast-learning ability by valuing technology and creativity;
- Increase the online presence of the organizations and organizational leaders.

How can organizations effectively increase millennial communication professionals' engagement in the workplace?

The impact of engagement on organizational and individual performance cannot be ignored. As another central research question in this study, we want to look at how millennial communication professionals want to be engaged and what any organization can do to improve employee engagement and performance. A major result that emerged from participants' discussion confirms that if organizations want to retain millennials, they have to keep them engaged. Engagement is particularly crucial in the communications industry. Participants agreed that in public relations there is no other option than being engaged, both for themselves as the practitioners working on multiple projects at the same time and for themselves as the employees of the organization. As a generation who tend to have a clear goal of achievement and involvement, millennial PR practitioners want to be fully engaged in any defined situation by knowing what is expected and how to achieve it. If they are not fully engaged, they will not be able to do their jobs to the fullest.

Participants also mentioned that millennial practitioners are eager for growth and crave feedback regarding individual performance. They also like to receive recognition or reward acknowledging the importance of the work they have done. Acknowledging achievement can often be overlooked but it is one basic rule of leadership in an organization to keep millennials engaged. Millennials will thrive under management that establishes an open flow of communication and provides the praise or constructive criticism that they seek. The following quote serves to illustrate these points:

"It can be something as simple as a response to say 'Thank you, you did a great job.' It makes you work so much harder. Not that you have to be validated on a daily basis, but it is important to congratulate." (Female participant, working in corporation)

Likewise, millennials also need to understand when they make mistakes. They should have regular performance reviews to understand what they do well and what they need to work on. They need guidance as they enter the workforce and begin making decisions on their own.

"If there's something that I mess up on or did wrong on, I want to know exactly what it is and then talk it over with my manager in the future: What are some steps I can take to handle the situation differently or prevent it from happening again?" (Female participant, working in full-service communication agency)

Along with being recognized, millennials must feel challenged by their job. They must be given tasks and projects to work on. Millennials crave quick growth in their careers. To keep them engaged, they must be doing something that is difficult. Otherwise, they risk boredom and moving on to another job. As put by one of the respondents:

“Having a fun work environment is also important when trying to keep millennials engaged. They are a generation that loves to have fun and be engaged in an interesting and a unique way and... the best thing that companies can do is to be out of the box in that sense.” (Female participant, working in full-service communication agency).

To keep up with millennial practitioners’ fast-pace and fast-learning pattern, organizations must have up-to-date technology. Millennials expect a certain level of technology to be available to them at work. They complain about the slow paced nature of the outdated technology within an organization because it is not conducive to their skills and lifestyle. Outdated technology hinders millennials from being efficient at multi-tasking. As put by one of the respondents:

“Companies must also use technology, especially social and digital media, to keep millennials engaged. Social media is a top tool that recruiters should use to both reach out to and retain employees. In order to keep millennials engaged, a company should research other companies with a high millennial retention rate, talk to college students about what they want out of a job, and use technology and social media to stay connected.” (Female participant, working in corporation)

In general, participants have mentioned several approaches organizations can use to keep millennial PR practitioners engaged:

- Offer a diversified work environment;
- Offer professional development opportunities;
- Pay employees competitively;
- Give recognition and positive reinforcement;
- Engage in two-way communication;
- Offer mentorship programs and check up on progress;
- Express flexibility;
- Stay current with technology.

What kinds of leadership development programs would fit the expectations of this unique group?

The dynamic relationship between millennial practitioners and the senior leaders is rapidly evolving as millennials have their expectations on effective leadership and their desire to lead in certain situations. As mentioned by some of our participants, many millennial professionals have experienced a few different types of leadership styles from previous internships and positions before starting at their current position. Such experience further defines a millennial’s confidence in his/her leader’s actions, ideas, integrity and ability. Millennial professionals prefer the leadership style where their boss will give them honest feedback because they know their boss cares and wants them to succeed. It is important for the boss to see their potential and because of their high achieving goals push them to do better. Millennials appreciate challenges as they create areas for improvement. Another key leadership quality mentioned by our participants is not micromanaging. Overall, millennial professionals do not like being micromanaged. They prefer when their boss gives them freedom and flexibility to get their tasks and work done more efficiently. As put by one respondent:

“Taking on leadership roles within their industry is the best way for young professionals to feel successful; however, it is up to the organizations to provide a space that fosters these types of leadership behaviors for millennials. Some ways organizations can help millennials grow into successful leaders is by offering leadership development programs where they can learn how to think and act like a leader within the public relations industry.” (Female participant, working in corporation)

In the discussion, participants feel that more and more millennials are eager to seek for or take over leadership roles in their organizations solely because of their work ethic and their innovative ways of thinking. They tend to take a very proactive way to be the leader in certain projects because millennial professionals “often seek more responsibilities from management and should be willing to work in a variety of environments in order to gain experience and knowledge for their future careers,” as suggested by a female practitioner working in an agency.

Another important leadership style that is appreciated by millennial practitioners is about offering safe opportunities to lead and allowing them to explore new interests. Millennial practitioners want to be trusted and given opportunities to test their creativity. Therefore, allowing for creative freedom is important in creating a culture for supportive leadership. Giving employees the ability to work how they work best or explore new ways of completing a task is beneficial for both the employee and organization. Giving millennials the opportunity to develop skills in multiple areas of expertise adds variation to their job and contributes to overall growth in numerous skill sets. As noted by a female participant working in a corporation:

“Millennials should take advantage of any leadership roles and not be afraid to jump in. It is crucial to know what is expected of them and to always aim to succeed in those expectations. It is never too early to become a leader.”

Developing mentorship and leadership development programs is essential for large corporations. If small and mid-size firms want to remain competitive in recruitment and retention, they should also consider bringing similar programs to their employees. It is vital that the supervisors of millennials be efficient, proactive leaders. Millennials expect their leaders to mentor and develop them, not just delegate tasks. As stated by one of the respondents:

“Offering leadership development programs is very important to young professionals because not only does it aid them in their current position, it also gives them skills that will carry them through their professional careers.” (Female participant, working in agency)

How important is work-life balance to this unique group? And how can organizations support such expectations?

Based on the interviews, participants expressed that the flexibility between work and life is crucial but keeping a balanced work-life is very challenging for young professionals. As part of the generational attributes, millennials believe deeply in having their own social life. However, the nature of the communication profession makes such generational expectations hard to achieve. Participants expressed that

they all struggled in finding the balance. But, based on their limited experiences, the majority of them suggested a high level of job satisfaction will increase the possibility to feel work-life balance. They indicated that there are certain ways to make millennials feel satisfied in their jobs:

- Offer mentorships with experienced employees;
- Provide collaborative and cross-functional work;
- Make schedules flexible;
- Offer different and exciting tasks;
- Trust employees to work away from the office;
- Teach and inspire them daily.

Participants in this study expressed similar concerns during the interviews:

“Some of the best ways to achieve this state where one can maintain both a healthy work and personal life is to learn the moments when something can wait and what can’t. Prioritizing is essential for millennials to learn and practice in this industry.” (Female participant, working in agency)

“In addition to allowing employees to enjoy their social lives outside of the office, a work-life balance also includes a workplace culture that is friendly, supportive and enjoyable. It is important that companies offer plenty of social opportunities inside the office, giving employees from different departments and seniority levels the chance to get to know one another, become friends and eventually learn from one another. A fun office culture, when cultivated properly, is always going to be a more creative, diverse and productive work culture.” (Female participant, working in corporation)

The support from the organization and its senior leaders in the organization was also addressed in the conversation. Organizations should become more open and willing to accept new working styles as millennial practitioners are a major part of the workforce in public relations. Understanding millennials’ expectation on flexibility helps not only foster effective leadership style but also makes work-life balance a more attainable goal for young professionals. For example, one participant commented:

“Millennials are attracted to workplaces that allow them the chance to set their own hours or work from home. In order to remain as competitive as possible, companies should begin placing more value on the quality of work, not the quantity of an employee’s hours punched in on a time clock.” (Female participant, working in corporation)

4. Discussion

This research provides some perspective on a subject that is top of mind for many employers – What does it take to engage and retain millennial employees? This project was foundational and represents a first phase in what we hope will be an extended look into this issue. As an initial foray into the examination of millennials in the public relations workplace this research provides insights for both scholarship and practice.

Our findings reinforce previous research, but also offer some insights that might be profession specific. Millennials are somewhat enigmatic when it comes to their predispositions and expectations. This generation is noted for its high self-esteem

(Deal et al., 2010), but our respondents reinforced others' findings (e.g., Farrell & Hunt, 2014) when saying they expect abundant recognition, praise and congratulations in the workplace.

Millennial workers are achievement focused and eager to contribute to the organization and thereby advance (Farrell & Hunt, 2014; Downing, 2006). The PR millennials in this study affirmed this, saying they viewed themselves as future leaders and were restless if not challenged.

Some characteristics that may be particularly relevant in the public relations work environment are millennials' technology expertise, their achievement focus, and their team orientation. While millennials report the need to be engaged, the respondents in this study suggested that communication is a ready fix for this issue. Strategic communication is, by its nature, engaging and energizing.

Furthermore, strategic communication provides a ready antidote to the need for balance in the workplace. Beyond the reality of billable hours and ROI, communication professionals may view themselves as do-gooders. This makes corporate social responsibility programs or pro bono work for nonprofits, especially important.

Strategic communication offers an uncommon opportunity to engage millennials when it comes to technology. Social media are a part of every strategic communication campaign toolbox now. So the expertise that communication professionals engage for their organizations or clients needs to be leveraged to recruit and retain millennials. Millennials expect social media to be part of the organizational communication mix. Including social media in the mix will address another issue of importance to millennials – breaking down hierarchies. Social media put everyone in the organization on equal communication footing. Used correctly, it can temper an organization's hierarchy.

Strategic communication, especially on the full-service communication agency front, can offer another plus for millennials. Rapid promotion is not uncommon for quality work. With millennials' desire to contribute immediately and be leaders-in-waiting, the existing advancement structure of public relations can be used to an advantage.

In summary, the findings of this study bode well for strategic communication as a satisfying millennial workplace. There are traditions and structures in place, whether the workplace is an agency, a corporation or a nonprofit. Social media, flattened hierarchies, emphasis on communication, opportunity for high-level contributions, and an energizing, engaging work environment are all characteristics of the public relations workplace. So, the tools exist. Managers of millennials communication professionals simply need to leverage them.

5. Limitations and Conclusion

As with any research, there are limitations to this project. First, because of its qualitative design, it is not broadly generalizable. The study does shine light on the issues at hand and, because the findings reinforce existing literature, it suggests broad trends. Second, the sampling method was purposeful. That can be construed as a limitation or a strength. The limitation is that the sample ended up being

essentially female. The strength is that the sample was representative of a variety of practice areas in public relations and was geographically diverse.

In conclusion, this study provides specific insights and tips – set off as bullet points in the findings section – for managers of millennial communication professionals. It provides a foundation for theory development in the field of talent management, as well in the field of strategic communication. Future research should include a survey to produce generalizable data. Now that we have an understanding of the expectations of millennial employees, it would be useful to interview managers of millennials working in strategic communication.

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FEAR PROPAGANDA: FROM THE GREAT WAR TO THE MODERN COMMUNICATION

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Abstract

During the Great War (and WW II) the propaganda of fear was an emotional stratagem that was exploited to convince people to defend the ideals of the war. This stratagem was obvious in the production of the posters that served to motivate and galvanize the people. The analysis of the posters of American and British forces identified the different persuasive strategies used.

The success of the posters was that of moulding the agenda setting and the opinion of citizens in order to increase the enlistment to defend the identity of the nation. The enemy violates the human rights; he is a threat for the public order, the security, the welfare and for the values of the nation: to combat him is a new crusade. Appealing to fear has its main motivation in causing interlocutors to consider the seriousness of the problem and is effective if, upon reading the message, they follow the instructions given by propagandists.

Our premise is that we can draw parallels with today's war propaganda, also with the themes that guide consumers in their shopping; and members of the public in their political choices confirm the validity of the principles developed in promoting the Great War.

Keywords: propaganda, persuasion, manipulation

Introduction

In *Falsehood in Wartime* (1928) Lord Ponsonby denounced the manipulative role played by the media during the Great War. He listed and discussed the stratagems used by Allied Forces to create and sustain the war effort. The most important stratagems for our purpose said that:

- we do not want war;
- the only one responsible is the enemy;
- the enemy is a monster;
- we are fighting for a noble cause;
- the enemy commits atrocities, ours are involuntary errors;
- the enemy employs illegal weapons;
- our cause is sacred in character.

In fact, president Wilson justified armed intervention as the defence of American values (democracy, liberty, justice and family)⁴, emphasizing the fact that only the enemy is responsible. For this reason the war was only a preventive measure (points 1 and 2 on Lord Ponsonby's list). His words were a confirmation of the strategy of attributing the origin of the terror to the adversary. According to Zizek (2009, 121) using it mirrors the behaviour which consists in adapting the position that "the responsibility is not mine, it is not really me who is doing this, I am only an instrument of the sum of Historical Necessity".

This strategy was abused by commanders of the Nazi SS, who (Ivi, 122), assured the heroic conduct by which: "Someone has to do the dirty work, we might as well do it ourselves".

This strategy was the persuasive tactic chosen by the government in order to have the support for their decisions. It consisted in spreading insecurity through the diffusion of messages which they guided in two complementary directions: the condemnation of the threats and crimes committed by the enemy (Ponsonby, Nr 5) and its consequent demonization (Ponsonby, Nr 3). The idea of the existence of danger had formed the paradigm of dread which facilitated acceptance on the part of its public of messages containing indications of how to confront the threat.

Denouncing a problem and suggesting the solution to liberate the listener from the task of finding one and guiding him along desired channels is a manipulative strategy (Chomsky, 1988).

This stratagem is present in the writings and discourse of politicians and religious leaders from the first centuries a.d. until nowadays.

Particularly, Goebbels and Hitler regarded the Program of Information of the American Government during the Great War as a model from which they took the cue for building their own information industry.

They exploited this expedience to build a solid German identity⁵: representing a worrisome Jewish and communist threat, and emphasizing a common Aryan heritage, they justified the cruelties to be perpetrated against the enemy. In 1932 Hitler incited his followers with words meant to alarm them with the same strategy:

There is confusion in the street. The Universities are full of rebellious students in revolt. The communists are trying to destroy the country. Russia is threatening us with its power and the republic is in danger. Yes, in danger from within and from without. We need law and order! Without these a country cannot survive. (Pratkanis and Aronson, 1992, 177)

Methods of research

We exemplify the results of our qualitative research (Pedrini, 2017) by presenting the persuasive principles (Cialdini, 2006 and 2016; Kahneman, 2012) which have emerged from the examination of more than 2,500 posters of the American and British propaganda, with a few examples from other countries.

⁴ According to Cialdini (2006) this belongs to the principle of scarcity

⁵ Cialdini (2016) considers identity as a strong persuasive means

The material we have collected has been subdivided and discussed on the basis of the various techniques and distinctive themes of persuasion, of the theory of decision-making and of social psychology.

1. Denouncing the crimes of the enemy

The anti-German sentiments of the American public were above all consolidated by the *Bryce Report*, the British report on the atrocities committed by German troops during the invasion of Belgium that was based upon testimony given by Belgian and French refugees in Great Britain.

What was acclaimed as the “propaganda of atrocity” concentrated on the most violent deeds perpetrated against civilians and prisoners of war, exaggerating numerous barbarous acts and thus providing justification for the conflict in the name of liberty of peoples and vengeance: the use of illegal weapons (Ponsonby, Nr 6), the destruction of villages and cultural patrimony as well as pillage, rape and torture of the inhabitants. (Ponsonby, Nr 5)

Years later, the report was criticized for its superficial treatment of sources, casting doubt upon the truth of what had been related.

The *Bryce Report*, together with the fear that everything which had been constructed over the years was in vain and the anxiety that what had been gained could crumble under the bombs, were seen as a convincing provocation to persuade the public to enlist. (Welch, 2013)

Civilization vs immorality and illegality

Combatting became a mission of civilization (Ponsonby, Nr 4).

Recalling the Belgian tragedy was chosen as a central theme for this strategy which was used to illustrate the threat justifying armed intervention.

The Remember Belgium poster designed by H. Jenkinson showed a woman and her two children lost in the open countryside, leaving behind them a village in flames. The stance of the soldier in the foreground was firm and reassuring, his gaze watchful and serious, making sure the way was safe.

He was therefore the just and honest combatant with noble intentions and his actions were described as humanitarian, safeguarding the rights of the most vulnerable and defenceless: women and children. (Albrinck, 2009)

The Americans used the weapon of fear in many posters to emphasize the difference between their civil way of fighting and the barbarous deeds of the enemy and to motivate everyone to join their mission of civilization and the diffusion of democracy. (Ponsonby, Nr 4)

The Californian artist H. P. Raleigh provided us with various significant examples of this strategy. In one of these an allied soldier was pictured firmly opposing the brutal rage of the enemy, saving a young woman with a child in her lap. This was only one of the many good deeds done by the American soldiers, who were always represented as rescuers. (Ponsonby, Nr 4)

“Halt the Hun!” was the order stressing the civility of his action, while the German was portrayed as a savage creature, one popularly associated with the barbaric invasions, with destruction and the figure of Attila. The English coined the term Germ-Huns (Fussell, 2000) to finally resolve the doubt as to whether the enemy belonged to the civilized part of the human race.

The propagandists made the most of this vein with persistence, creating messages to discredit the antagonists in order to increase hate towards them and to then justify every action undertaken for their destruction.

Incidentally, we should mention that Hitler, too, was convinced that his action against “the abuses and vile practices that the Jews committed every day” against the German public was a “duty of civilization” to conserve “Aryan man” (Hitler, 2000, 158).

Precisely this is still taking place when the army of a nation with a lifestyle comparable to ours decides to fight against one with different conceptions of civility and justice: for example, the wars in Korea (1950), Vietnam (1965), Kuwait and Iraq (1991), Libya and Syria, etc.

We could recall that in 2003 Prime Minister T. Blair succeeded in manufacturing an accusation against S. Hussein, which accused him of being in possession of weapons of mass destruction. (Ponsonby, Nr 6)

To spread optimism and to protect the defenceless

Another poster by Raleigh showed the monstrosity exuded by the German soldier who was shown bent over his victim, once again a woman, but also for the bewilderment of the frightened young person in the foreground. She was portrayed taking a baby away from the pitiless tormentor, holding it close to her, keeping her body between the Hun and the child. The meaning was understood in the slogan “Hun or Home?”: investing in the army was a choice for the home; not investing meant opting for the barbarians.

The poster was certainly successful regarding the emotions of the public and played a role in convincing those who were as yet undecided about enlisting, because it represented the terror to which the most defenceless part of the public might be subjected.

In fact the rhetoric of fear was also useful for collecting money to support the operations of the army⁶, whose purpose was to maintain the status quo⁷. This message was included in several posters illustrating women who were placed in danger, badly treated and victimized by the enemy, and who thus became eloquent protagonists of pictures inspired by this strategy.

Slogans caused fear and gave incentive to support the war effort: “Give or we perish” or “Lest we perish”. The visual parts were composed of women of every

⁶ According to Cialdini (2006) this belongs to the principle of reciprocity

⁷ According to Kahneman (2012) to defend the status quo is a very strong persuasive principle

age, alone or in the company of other women and sometimes also with children to incentivise the instrumental implementation of emotivity.

At every moment of the war it was necessary to create or consolidate self-confidence to be able to find a remedy for the dangerous situation with the messages "Don't let them die. You can save them", "Do your share to help win the war" or "Do your bit".⁸

Much printed matter of the combating nations portrayed the visage of a woman with the slogan proclaiming she had been "Killed by the barbarians", urging the spectator to "Help stop these atrocities" (Ponsonby, Nr 4).

One important value of words is to influence the decoding of the entire message and to participate actively in motivating a choice so as to avoid indifference. This phenomenon, called Halo Effect, confirm how incisive the expectations are which are created by words, prejudices, superstitions and desires in dealing with others. (Ries, 2006)

So, that fear did not demoralize the public rendering it inactive, the propagandists undertook to spread optimism giving it to understand that the government was steadfast in its actions to oppose a possible invasion: "We are not afraid" was the slogan, a slogan that politicians repeat today against terrorism⁹.

Optimism and trust are necessary ingredients to nourish self-motivation. They are also sentiments that ordinarily emerge from the recognition that others give to our actions, flattering us, since our minds are pervaded by egocentrism and narcissism. (Fine, 2006; Cialdini, 2006; Kahneman, 2012)

The subject of generating anxiety to motivate spectators to fight and to justify the war, was reintroduced in other illustrations which were designed to personalize the discourse, so that the question was brought nearer: "your home", "your door", other than by means of the slogan which engaged readers further, causing them to try to find an answer¹⁰.

Through neuropsychological research we know today that anger and rage render humans more likely to assume risks (Kahneman, 2012). It was therefore to be hoped that the response of those who saw similar scenes would be precisely that of channelling sentiments and actions "to help stop" the tragedy. Remembering the inhumanity of the enemy towards the most vulnerable members of society and its private affection for them, was consequently a good expedient for mass persuasion.

Reflecting on the general situation of today N. Chomsky (1988, p. 207) wrote:

"a confused and frightened public, used to believing that demons (...) are ready to take away everything they possess, are predisposed to fanatic nationalism."

Nothing is more important than this for the modern propagandist and spin doctors.

⁸ According to Cialdini (2006) this belongs not only to the persuasive principle of liking, but also to the principle of authority

⁹ Using the principle of authority

¹⁰ To personalize means to involve, and this is part of the principle of liking (Cialdini, 2006)

To defend the values of culture

The cause of the atrocities the civilian public was forced to suffer was the German culture.

One poster took its subject from the torpedoing of the hospital ship *Llandovery Castle* in 1918 by a German submarine. In spite of its clearly exhibited Red Cross emblems, the Germans thought it contained soldiers and armaments. The tragedy in which 146 people were killed became the basis of the promotion “to help stop” (as often slogans repeat) the abuse by buying Victory Bonds. The payoff of the message commented on the picture, stressing the philosophical difference: “Kultur vs. Humanity” (Ponsonby, Nr 5).

Beyond the trust they wished to infuse into the target, the propagandists hoped to obtain a consensus by means of the expression of a value, which could also have taken place by representing its opposite, and of associations shared by the culture of the spectator and his identity. (Cialdini, 2016)

To communicate effectively, therefore, it was absolutely necessary that there was a solid base of values, beliefs and common accords which could guarantee shared areas of meaning and predictability. Consequently, with reference to W. Lippmann’s consensus factory (Lippmann, 2010), culture is a filter through which messages are chosen.

We also know that it is a word-container used by everyone to include reality, sensations and various needs. Therefore, culture helps define identity by emphasizing the contemptible character of the other. (Cialdini, 2016; Siri, 2001)

The numerous caricatures that filled newspapers and other media found inspiration in the archetypal fear towards the other, the unknown member of a different culture whose origins and values were fundamentally different from ours, while hate was instigated by means of the representation of his brutality in causing the death of innocents. It was necessary to defend the status quo.

In England, anti-German violence continued in the years following the Great War with notices discouraging business relationships with Germans, urging the public not to forget what had taken place a few years previously because, as one could read in a poster by D. Wilson,

Once a German – Always a German! 1914 to 1918: Never Again! Remember!
Every German employed means a British Worker Idle. Every German article sold means a British article unsold.

A sacred cause

The more the antagonist was demonized, the more the allied soldier became a picture of sanctity. (Albrinck, 2009)

Both British and American soldiers were idealized and described as courageous, cordial, determined, good-looking, happy to serve their country and to celebrate the successes obtained in the name of civilization. Theirs was the struggle of good against bad.

Along the roads of America and the British Empire posters referring to religion were also exhibited.

Their message had a didactic function in that it suggested appropriate behaviour to the public and indicated what the nation expected of him.¹¹ At the same time, interlocutors who had already been persuaded to leave would have interpreted it as reassurance as to the correctness of their action.

Placing trust in religion was the equivalent of securely obtaining majority public agreement with and support of political decisions.

The propagandists also addressed the public with religious words and pictures to increase their incentive and ennoble their mission (Ponsonby, Nr 7). For this reason soldiers were called and portrayed as crusaders fighting against evil and contributing to the diffusion of democracy and American values in the world. (Creel, 2012)

The allied cause took on a sacred character referred to by President Wilson in a second address to gain public approval¹²:

This was a war for democracy, a war to finish all wars, a war to protect liberalism, a war to free barbarous Europe, a crusade. (Kazecki and Lieblang, 2009, 119)

This topic also appeared in French and British propaganda. The infidel was the other, the unknown, the barbarian, which was a further motive to combat him. (James, 2009)

To convince the public to defend the borders and freedom of the homeland, the neutral Switzerland also diffused a national poem which last verse was "Mit uns Gott" (God is with us). Similarly, together with the swastika, years later the Nazi logo expressed "Gott mit uns". Regarding our times, Bush invaded Iraq using the invocation "God bless America", while the ISIS movement is presented as a divine mission to be fulfilled in the name of a prophecy. We need only think of the ample use of fear on the part of ISIS, maintaining that everyone is free to kill infidels "until you eliminate from the world human life which does not respect Allah" (Erelle, 2015, 88).

A decisive element of war propaganda was, therefore, to make the public believe that only the enemy perpetrated acts of cruelty, whereas theirs was an army which was welcomed as a liberator by the populations it encountered. (Ponsonby, Nr 5)

Moreover, this is still taking place today in trying to remove the horror of war by using intelligent weapons in fulfilling peace missions.

In the endless chess game of propaganda, the German authorities reacted to the accusations of having a similar nature. In 1915 they revealed the results of research undertaken two years previously demonstrating the superiority of their people compared to those of the French and English. The poster by L. Oppenheim bore a slogan of certain impact which recalled with self-irony the provocation of the enemy propaganda: "Wir Barbaren!". In his poster he compares economic and

¹¹ According to Cialdini (2006) this belongs to the principle of social proof

¹² According to Cialdini (2006) this belongs to the principle of liking

cultural data: the number of illiterate people enlisted in the armies of the principal countries of Europe out of 10,000 recruits: 2 Germans, 100 English, 320 French; the investment made for instruction: 878 million marks in Germany, 384 in England and 261 in France; the number of books printed every year: 34,800 in Germany, 12,100 in England, 9,600 in France; the social benefits paid by insurance: 900 million marks in Germany, 0 in England, 100 million in France and in the end the Nobel Prizes in science won between 1901 and 1915: 16 in Germany, 5 in England and 6 in France.

Today's advertising and the fear arousing language

The considerations expressed up to this point recall the technique of modern social advertising which adopts fear arousing language and which, therefore, has in common with many Great War posters an emphasis on unpleasant consequences, the result of non-acceptance of the conclusions reached by the communication.

In planning messages, the similarities which can be drawn between the dramatization of this subject by the propagandists and today's social advertising (Gadotti, 2003; Lombardi, 1998; Pratkanis and Aronson, 1992; Sternthal, 1974) are various:

- topics with strong emotive involvement were chosen in order to sensitize interlocutors to the question being dealt with;
- in the majority of cases and in accordance with the criteria of a wide appeal, the locations of the scenes in which the action took place were not clearly defined (with the exception of some symbolic construct). This vagueness helped lend a universal significance to the communication. They were largely from everyday experience and were chosen with the aim of presenting something which would prove familiar and customary for the largest number of spectators;
- personages were rather ordinary people, which made immediate identification easier;
- messages had no precise time indication because the event was taking place in the present; however, it could have been repeated at any moment;
- a solution was indicated, a plan of action, to avoid what was described in the picture. Basically, the communications functioned as guides to behaviour and their acceptance would take place, and would result in a new conduct (or attitude) if the request to accept the rules of that proposed was in agreement with the collective sensitivity. They also suggested alternatives resulting from the assumption of such rules. A great deal of research has demonstrated that whoever receives a message based on fear and notices that there is no way to oppose the threat, will probably opt to disregard the message.

In the conception of a message it is necessary to keep in mind that the receivers will be motivated to assume protective behaviour regarding risk only if they (Ivi):

- perceive the problem as actually serious;
- feel vulnerable because of it;
- find the suggested behaviour to oppose the threat useful;
- feel capable of undertaking the suggested action.

We assume that one hundred years ago the propagandists perfectly understood all of these points by intuition. The mass media repeated the monstrosity of the deeds of the enemy, so that the public was convinced of the justness of the war.

Immediately after the Great War, psychological methods were increasingly employed by advertisers to shift the critical functions of consumers from the product to themselves. What they wanted was to awaken sentiments of guilt and fear by insisting on the fact that respectable people did not live as they did.

In 1926, the advertising agent F. P. Anderson maintained that it was necessary to make the consumer “conscious of the size of the pores on his nose and of his bad breath” in order to sell more. In the same year, his colleague G.B. Hotchkiss tried to investigate this state of mind, without succeeding in defining it or measuring its effects. In *Advertising Copy* (1924) he claimed to have discovered that it was not really fear which came into play because “of itself, (...) it is paralysing, it takes away a person’s capacity to act. No-one buys anything out of fear, but rather following the instinct of self-preservation or by virtue of some other reaction which is almost inseparable from fear”. (Ewen, 1988, 95)

Products became the solution to psychological complexes because they lent personality and status to purchasers, allowing them to feel at peace with themselves and giving them the illusion of finding aspects of themselves in the objects they acquired. Products mirrored their history. And that happens even today. (Gnasso and Iabichino, 2014; Salmon, 2007)

We must also take into consideration the discourse of politicians, insurance agents and doctors who show their interlocutors potential problems while offering in advance plans of action, contracts or products as solutions. Marketing strategists know that they attract more customers if they stress risk and fear, exploiting this by selling products which promise security and personal safety, thus rendering the uncertainty of the future less problematic.

This is a market which is growing exponentially and which is ignored neither by political posters during electoral campaigns, in which it functions as an important resource for winning a consensus, nor by the mass media which offer a view of the world which is presented as very dangerous and threatening in order to have more listeners and viewers.

2. Demonizing the enemy

The author of the barbarism cannot but be described as an inhuman being.

Such a vision of the enemy certainly emerged from the physiognomy of C. Lombroso who became towards the end of the 19th century very famous for his part in beginning criminal psychology.

According to his interpretation, the personality traits of a criminal were associated with somatic anomalies. (Lombroso, 2013)

To summarize, whoever was capable of horrifying acts had to be a monster physically. This observation connects us to the words of Aristotle (1999): “the soul is like the form of the body”.

The images of the enemy and its actions were horrifying for their ruthlessness: of disproportionate dimensions, its gaze full of hate, its body was soaked with the blood of its victims.

In 1917 the artist A. Treidler rendered the idea of such cruelty in a rather striking fashion, succeeding in illustrating the scene with monstrous details: the German was pictured as a gigantic person who was ambling clumsily among the ruins of a city, carelessly trampling the limb of a woman, that of one of his recent victims. In one hand he was holding a rifle and in the other he was clutching a bloodstained knife.

The presence of the bloodstained knife drew a parallel to the work of the artist F. Strothmann, in which the written word “Hun” formed a chromatic rhyme with the blood, while Liberty Bonds was written in yellow representing the luminous or illuminated solution to the problem. “Beat back the Hun” was also in this case a slogan which enabled interlocutors to understand what the army they were called to support was doing.

The message was that through the purchase of bonds everyone was able to boost their morale and help the army¹³ cancel the fingerprints of the bloodstained hand, a synecdoche which here signified that this was the identifying symbol of the German soldier.

From the standpoint of propaganda, the blood of innocent victims testified to the savagery of the enemy and became its distinctive mark.

His stage of primitive incivility was stressed in the picture created by H.R. Hopps which appeared in 1916. The German resembled a depraved gorilla. With his bloodstained right hand, instead of a knife he was brandishing a club covered with blood and inscribed with the word Kultur, as a signature of a crime just committed. The cudgel, his domination of the half-naked woman, emblem of the homeland and of violated liberty, together with the setting of the scene on the English coast, increased the urgency of the call for enlistment to annihilate this threat.

In 1939, Goebbels reprinted it with a new caption to convince the German people that war was inevitable:

When they assaulted us 25 years ago, they wrote on their rotten slanderous poster: “Destroy this mad beast – They meant the German people!” (Ross, 2009, back cover).

It goes without saying that, for Hitler (2000, 41), the Jewish physiognomy was rather far from his aesthetic tastes to the point that he complained because “thousands of girls have fallen in love with repulsive Jewish bastards with crooked legs”.

However, there were other characteristics which contributed to rendering the German race particularly indecent and unpleasant. The French criminologist E. Bérillon reported in 1915 in *La polychésie de la race allemande* (see Lefrère and Berche, 2010, 708) that if need be, they would be capable of “feeding themselves with the meat of their compatriots”. Another alarming difference when compared to the French was that their urine had “a coefficient of toxicity which is at least one quarter higher”, they sweat more and have an abnormal intestinal activity so as to

¹³ Following the principle of reciprocity (Cialdini, 2006)

“produce more faecal material than the French and of a more unpleasant odour!” (Ivi, 709). From this particular he coined the term “polychésie”, from the Greek for defecate abundantly.

According to the author this would be the “formal demonstration of both the physical and psychological inferiority of the German race” (Ivi, 710).

An exception is contained in the passages of Proust (2014, 236–7) in which there is an air of Germanophilia in the conversations of certain personages.

Charlus, for example, “found the Germans very ugly” but, in spite of this, his sexual preferences induce him to affirm that our admiration for the French must not make us hold our friends in contempt (...) you have no idea what a soldier the German is, you have not seen him as I have seen him, marching past in parade step. (...) The fact is, I said to myself, that the marvellous man which is the German soldier is a being which is strong, healthy, who only thinks of the greatness of his country.

The definition of the enemy is arrived at by means of the creation of stereotypes or heuristic of representativeness (Kahneman, 2012), a technique whose purpose is to arouse public prejudice, labeling the other as individuals that people fear, hate and avoid.

It is one of the main mechanisms by which reality becomes finally easy to confront: it is a mental short cut, useful for rapid recognition, which seeks the help of generalization and therefore of stereotypes. Actually, the fact that one event seems more typical than another does not make it more probable.

The creation of stereotypes proved to be the fundament of every propaganda effort whose ultimate goal was that of generating the perception that our actions were ethical, whereas those of the enemy were not.

The creation of stereotypes is also the essence of every modern advertising campaign through which designers enhance a characteristic of a product as a plus, so that in the minds of consumers it becomes an important point of reference and in this way our analysis of a product reduces itself to a quick confirmation of stereotypes with which it has been inculcated.

All of this closely resembles the primacy effect (Kahneman, 2012) or the tendency of first impressions to assume a greater significance and to provide a pattern according to which successive information is interpreted.

Thus, our perception of events always depends on what we have in our minds (Ariely, 2008).

Propaganda that increases hate

Political propaganda has always found it easier to arouse hate for a leader than for all of his people.

In this regard, let us recall that in his declaration of 1917, Wilson maintained that, among the objectives of the war, were world peace and the liberation of peoples, including the Germans, giving the presentiment that there was an insane person governing them.

As always happens and as recent and present history confirm, the aim of warfare is to capture a dictator or insane criminal. The stories of his atrocities are a decisively essential element of propaganda because they serve the purpose of forging the identity of a nation, creating a division between these and the others, between us and the enemy, the latter constituting an obstacle against which our values are measured, as well as how much in life has been accomplished and obtained until now.

Where there is the other, there is chaos; where we are – justice and order.

In this regard, let us recall that G. W. Bush, after the Gulf War, wrote words which seem an attempt at manipulation:

“I hope the good people of Iraq will remember our history. America has never tried to dominate nor to conquer. Actually, we have above all tried to liberate. Our wish is to help the citizens of Iraq enjoy the benefits of freedom in respect to its culture and traditions.” (Salmon, 2007, 164)

This demonstrates an infallible method of directing the attention and conviction of the public towards objectives which hide the more important costs which will be paid for along the way to reach the final objective, or the awesome loss of life and resources that a war inevitably brings with it.

The content of the Ponsonby’ list exists, with different priorities, in the description of every conflict (Morelli, 2010), and continues to be regarded as true. Chomsky describes it (2002, 208) as “the fundamental doctrine according to which the State is of itself good and guided by the most noble intentions, only trying to defend itself and does not figure as an active subject in world affairs but simply reacts to the crimes of others, at times imprudently because of its own naivety, the complexity of history or its incapacity to understand the evilness of the enemy”.

Conclusions

In re-reading the Great War posters according to the principles of modern persuasion, we have provided an interpretation of them and an organization useful in defining the strategy of the propagandists. We have implicitly demonstrated how these modern principles were anticipated by them one hundred years ago to obtain public consensus, modifying and controlling public opinion.

In particular, at first, the goal is to cultivate a positive tie, and, therefore, reciprocity and liking are suitable. Then, people want to see if it is worth it, and the priority becomes reduction of uncertainty with authority and social proof. Lastly, with the principle of scarcity and consistency, a reason for action is stated.

The strategy of fear was the persuasive tactic chosen by governments to unite the public against the adversary and to have its support for their decisions that pointed out enlistment and the production of armaments as absolutely necessary.

The nucleus of the strategy to manipulate the enemy has always been the war of information¹⁴ to gain an internal consensus and conquer enemy territory without

¹⁴ In 1917 Lord Beaverbrook, owner of the Daily Express, commented that propaganda was the popular weapon of diplomacy in which “the munitions of the mind became not less vital for victory than fleets or armies” (Welch, 2013, 86)

fighting. The success of the subjects and the effectiveness of the persuasive techniques used to create poster campaigns which were carried out to induce agreement and modify attitudes, was incontestable.

Understanding what propaganda is and the mechanism that it uses is an essential task for understanding the modern times.

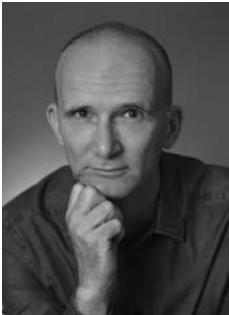
Today we can find the same principles of persuasion in the political and commercial publicity.

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PROSOCIĀLAS RĪCĪBAS CENA

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Abstract

It is important in today's world that universal human values are actualized, developed and maintained. People need to feel safe, they must be sure that when they will need help, people around them won't be indifferent. However, each individual also needs to feel ready to help others when necessary.

Unfortunately, the results of several scientific studies confirm the urban – overload hypothesis – people living in big cities are constantly subjected to intensified stimulation and are therefore forced to distance themselves in order to avoid emotional overload.

This study was conducted by analyzing Latvian students' experiences and assessment of possible actions in situations in which people around them need help that require some kind of extra effort, time or use of other resources.

During the analysis of the the answers provided by the respondents, conclusions are made about the price of prosocial actions in modern society; social and psychological factors that influence the individual's desire to provide assistance to people, also, proposals are made to promote pro-social activities.

Keywords: Prosocial behavior, the Price of prosocial behaviour

Ievads

Altruisms – nesavtīga gādība par citiem, gatavība uzpurēties citu labā. Prosociāla (altruistiska) uzvedība visbiežāk tiek definēta kā sociāli nozīmīga un grūta darbība bez savtīgiem nolūkiem, kas parasti saistīta ar pašuzpurēšanos, atteikšanos citu vai sabiedrības labā. Tomēr daudzi autori uzskata, ka, lai cilvēka rīcību nosauktu par prosociālu, tai ne obligāti jābūt nesavtīgai, jo daudzos gadījumos tā tieši vai netieši tiek novērtēta vai pat – apbalvota. Palīdzības sniegšana var izpausties arī kā maskēts egoisms (egoisms kā dzīves princips – savu personisko interešu izcelšana pāri citu cilvēku un sabiedrības interesēm; kā tikumiska īpašība – patmīlība).

Tiek izvirzīta urbanizācijas – pārslodzes hipotēze (*urban – overload hypothesis*): cilvēki, kas dzīvo lielās pilsētās, pastāvīgi tiek pakļauti pastiprinātai stimulācijai un tāpēc ir spiesti noslēgties sevī, lai izvairītos no emocionālas pārslodzes (*Milgram, 1977*). Cilvēki lielās pilsētās mazāk palīdz cietušajiem kā cilvēki, kas dzīvo maz apdzīvotās vietās. Tas saistīts ar to, ka dzīve pilsētā iemāca cilvēku emocionāli noslēgties. Lai būtu veiksmīgs, indivīds nevar pievērst uzmanību visam, kas notiek apkārt – viņam ir jāsteidzas, darot savus ikdienas pienākumus. 2009. gadā Budapeštā un Maskavā veikts pētījums parādīja, ka, Budapeštā garāmgājēji bija nedaudz atsaucīgāki un palīdzēja cietušajam biežāk kā garāmgājēji līdzīgās situācijās Maskavā (*Shcherbakova & Iadov, 2009*), tomēr biežāk cilvēki mazāk palīdz tiem, kuri pieder pie svešas grupas (*out group*) – grupas, ar kuru indivīds sevi nesaista (sociālais statuss, vecums, nodarbošanās u.c.). Pētījumi parādījuši, ka

dažādās kultūrās cilvēki palīdz tiem, ko uzskata par savas grupas (*in group*) dalībniekiem – grupas, ar kuru indivīds identificē sevi, jūtas kā šīs grupas dalībnieks vai arī gribētu piederēt šai grupai. Vairāk tiek palīdzēts draugiem vai paziņām (savas grupas cilvēkiem), kā arī cilvēkiem, kas izskatās veiksmīgi – ir skaisti, labi ģērbti (palīdzētāja vēlme piederēt pie šādas grupas).

Pētot motīvus, kas ir palīdzošas reakcijas pamatā, pētījumos konstatēts, ka prosociālu rīcību veicina vairāki personību raksturojoši aspekti: morālās normas, līdzjūtība, vēlme atbildēt uz iepriekš saņemtu līdzīgu palīdzību, vēlme paaugstināt pašvērtējumu, vēlme saņemt atzinību, kā arī izteikta personības spēja izjust empātiju (Aronson, Wilson & Akert, 2010). Prosociālu rīcību veicina pozitīva sevis apzināšanās (Scaffidi, Isgrò, Wicklund & Boca, 2006) un cilvēku personīgā labklājība, un mērķu apzināšanās pakāpe (Fosgaard, Fosgaard & Foss, 2017).

Sociālās apmaiņas teorijas pārstāvji uzsver, ka cilvēciskās attiecības virza “sociālā ekonomika”. Cilvēki apmainās ne tikai ar materiāliem labumiem, bet arī ar sociālajiem – informāciju, mīlestību, statusu, pakalpojumiem, to darot neapzināti. Saskaņā ar evolūcijas teoriju pastāv divi palīdzības sniegšanas veidi: savstarpējā palīdzība – indivīds palīdz tiem, kas palīdz viņam, un asinsradniecības faktors – palīdz saviem radniekiem (Brehm, Kassin & Fein, 2005). Cilvēku rīcību nosaka nepieciešamība pēc iespējas nodrošināt savu gēnu maksimālu izdzīvošanu; no tā izriet altruistiskas rūpes par bērniem, radiem (Hamilton & Sherman, 1994). Altruistiskas rūpes par sociāli tuviem cilvēkiem šī teorija skaidro ar to, ka izdzīvot grupā vienmēr ir bijis vieglāk nekā individuāli, tādējādi arī šīs rūpes nodrošina indivīda ģenētiskā materiāla sekmīgāku reproducēšanos. No sociobioloģiskā un evolucionārā skata punkta reliģija ir tā, kas veicina indivīdu pāriet no altruisma, kas vērsts tikai uz radnieciskām attiecībām, uz altruismu, kas ietver sevī plašāku sociālo grupu, sabiedrību, kultūru (Batson, 1991). Gandrīz visas psiholoģijas teorijas pieņem, ka reliģija veicina prosociālu rīcību, taču apjomīgā pētījumā konstatēts, ka prosociālā rīcība ir tikai viens, bet ne viennozīmīgi būtiskākais faktors (Saroglou, Pichon, Trompette, Verschueren & Dernelle, 2005).

Cilvēku prosocialitātes longitūdiālajos pētījumos konstatēts, ka prosociālas rīcības veikšana palielinās, pieaugot indivīda vecumam, bet nav saistīta ar indivīdu ģimenes un materiālo stāvokli. (Matsumoto, Yamagishi, Li & Kiyonari, 2016; Day, 2017)

Pētot emociju saistību ar prosociālu uzvedību, konstatēts, ka palīdzīga uzvedība cieši saistīta ar vainas izjūtu (Benetti-McQuoid & Bursik, 2005; Cohen, Wolf, Panter & Insko, 2011; Sütterlin & Gregorio, 2016). Vainas izjūta kopā ar empātiju saistīta ar izteiktāku palīdzīgās uzvedības veikšanu (Sütterlin & Gregorio, 2016). Pētījumi liecina, ka, lai gan pozitīvas emocijas (t.i., mīlestība, cerība, lepnums un līdzjūtība) izraisa prosociālu uzvedību pret tuvu būtni (salīdzinājumā ar neitrālu emocionālo stāvokli), bet tikai mīlestība izraisa proosociālu uzvedību pret attāliem citiem (Cavanaugh, Bettman & Luce, 2015). Lēmumu palīdzēt ietekmē labā noskaņojuma efekts (*good mood effect*) – jo labākā noskaņojumā cilvēks, jo devīgāks un vairāk palīdz citiem (Baron & Bronfen, 1994). Cilvēki labā noskaņojumā palīdz citiem, lai saglabātu savu pozitīvo garastāvokli; palīdz tādēļ, ka labā noskaņojumā rodas pozitīvas domas un gaidas attiecībā pret uzvedību, personu, kam nepieciešama palīdzība, vai pret sociālajām aktivitātēm vispār. Eksperimentā, kurā piedalījās 480 holandiešu, tika konstatēts, ka līdzīgās situācijās palīdzība vairāk tiek sniegta cilvēkam, kurš, to lūdzot, smaida (Vrut & Vet, 2009).

Arī negatīvs noskaņojums var veicināt palīdzības sniegšanu: cilvēki jūtas vainīgi un palīdz, lai šo sajūtu mazinātu; uzņemoties personīgu atbildību par negatīvu noskaņojumu, paaugstinās pašapziņu, pieaug vēlme palīdzēt citiem; cilvēki, kas jūtas nopiesti vai skumji, palīdz citiem, lai justos labāk. (*Brehm, Kassir, Fein, 2005*) Pēc **negatīvo emociju pavājināšanas hipotēzes** (*negative relief hipotesis*) cilvēki palīdz viens otram, lai vājinātu savas negatīvās emocijas, skumjas vai sāras (*Cialdini & Fultz, 1990*).

Pētnieki runā par **prosociālas rīcības cenu** – tā var būt laika zaudējums, apdraudējums paša dzīvībai, materiālie izdevumi, iespējamās palīdzošās uzvedības nesakritība ar personīgiem mērķiem un citi negatīvi aspekti, kuru apzināšanās var samazināt vēlmi sniegt altruistisku palīdzību (*Aronson, Wilson & Akert, 2010*).

Šī pētījuma mērķis ir noskaidrot studentu prosociālas rīcības paradumus, to ietekmējošus faktorus jeb prosociālas rīcības cenu.

1. Pētījuma izlase un metode

Lai noskaidrotu Latvijas studentu prosociālas rīcības paradumus, tika izmantota anketēšanas metode. Tika izveidota anketa, kas veidota, balstoties uz vairāku autoru pētījumiem (*Batson, 1991; Cohen, Wolf, Panter & Insko, 2011*). Anketa sastāv no četrām daļām – demogrāfiskajiem jautājumiem, jautājumiem par prosociālas rīcības paradumiem, par šādu rīcību ietekmējošiem faktoriem un daļas, kurā respondenti tiek lūgti novērtēt, kādas rīcības darīt izvēlētos cilvēks, kas viņiem līdzīgs.

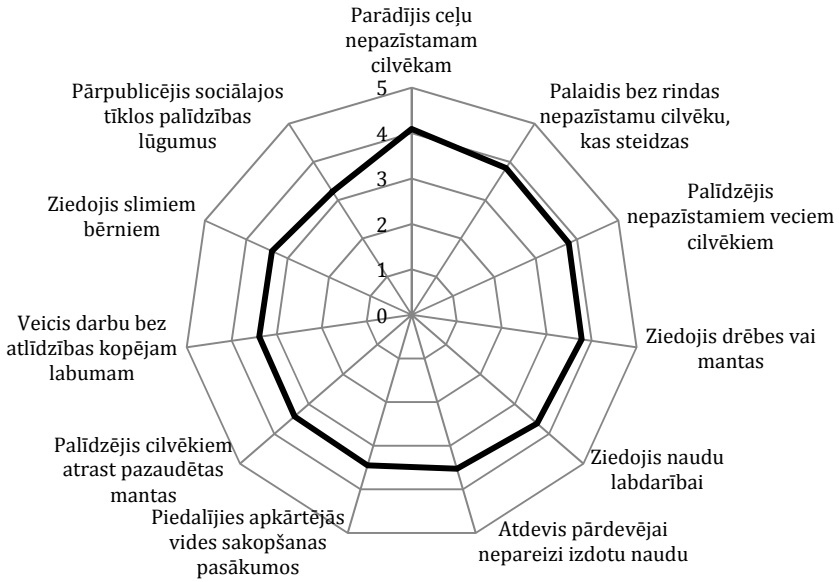
Kopumā tika anketēti 174 studenti no Latvijas augstskolām. Vidējais respondentu vecums ir 22 gadi, no respondentiem 42 % bija vīrieši, 58 % – sievietes. 72 % respondentu strādā pilna laika darbu, 7 % – strādā neregulārus darbus, tikai 9 % no respondentiem pašlaik algotu darbu nestrādā, tikai 5 % pašlaik ir finansiāli atkarīgi no vecākiem.

Novērtējot savu materiālo stāvokli, 29 % respondentu to novērtē kā zemu vai normālu, bet 71 % – kā vidēju vai ļoti labu.

Tika noskaidrota arī reliģijas loma respondentu dzīvē. 4 % respondentu norāda, ka reliģijai viņu dzīvē ir liela loma, 62 % norāda, ka reliģija viņu dzīvē daļēji ir nozīmīga, bet 34 % norāda, ka reliģija viņu dzīvē nespēlē noteicošu lomu.

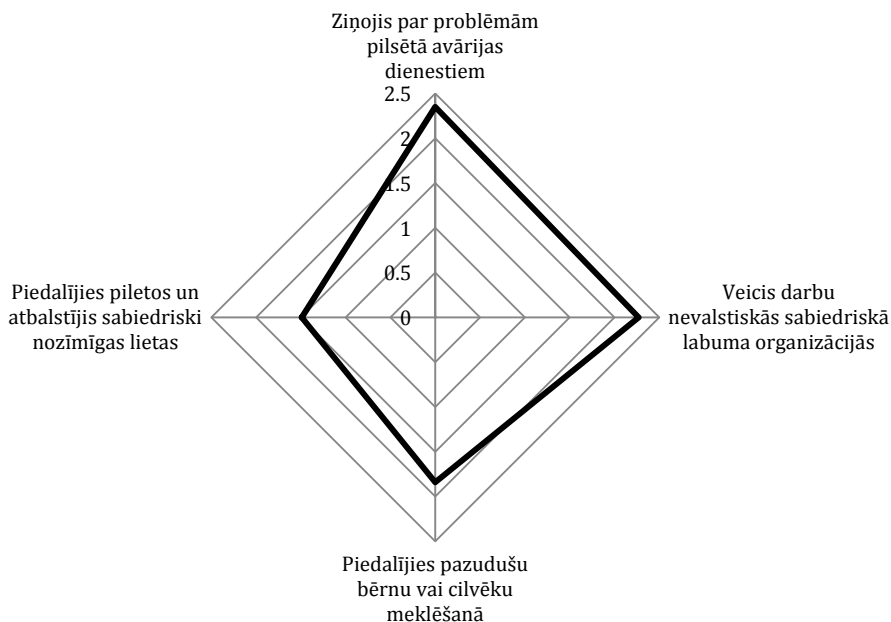
2. Rezultāti

Analizējot pētījuma rezultātus, tika konstatēts, ka respondentu vidū populārākie prosociālas rīcības veidi (skat. 1. attēlu) ir ceļa norādīšana vecākiem cilvēkiem (4,09+/-0,81); cilvēka, kurš steidzas, palaišana bez rindas (3,84+/-0,78); palīdzība nepazīstamiem veciem cilvēkiem (3,80+/-0,79); drēbju un mantu ziedošana (3,78+/-1,02); naudas ziedošana labdarībai (3,65+/-0,94); nepareizi izdotas naudas atdošana pārdevējai (3,53+/-0,92); piedalīšanās apkārtējās vides sakopšanas pasākumos (3,45+/-0,97); palīdzēšana atrast pazaudētas mantas (3,41+/-1,02); darbu veikšana bez atlīdzības kopējam labumam (3,39+/-1,02); ziedošana slimiem bērniem (3,38+/-1,04); palīdzības lūgumu pārpublicēšana sociālajos tīklos (3,22+/-1,34).



1. attēls. Studentu biežāk veiktie prosociālas rīcības veidi

Savukārt salīdzinoši reti studenti veic šādas procociālas rīcības (skat. 2. attēlu): ziņo par problēmām pilsētā avārijas dienestiem (2,35+/-1,28); veic darbu nevalstiskās sabiedriskā labuma organizācijās (2,27+/-1,16); piedalās pazudušu bērnu vai cilvēku meklēšanā (1,84+/-0,74); piedalās piketos un atbalsta sabiedriski nozīmīgas lietas (1,49+/-0,91).



2. attēls. Studentu retāk veiktie prosociālas rīcības veidi

Analizējot studentu sniegtās atbildes uz jautājumu par to, kas pamudina viņus veikt prosociālas rīcības (skat. 1. tabulu), studenti kā būtiskākos norāda audzināšanu ģimenē, iespējamos sirdsapziņas pārmērumus, ja palīdzību nesniegs; pārliecību par to, ka labie darbi atmaksāsies; līdzjūtību.

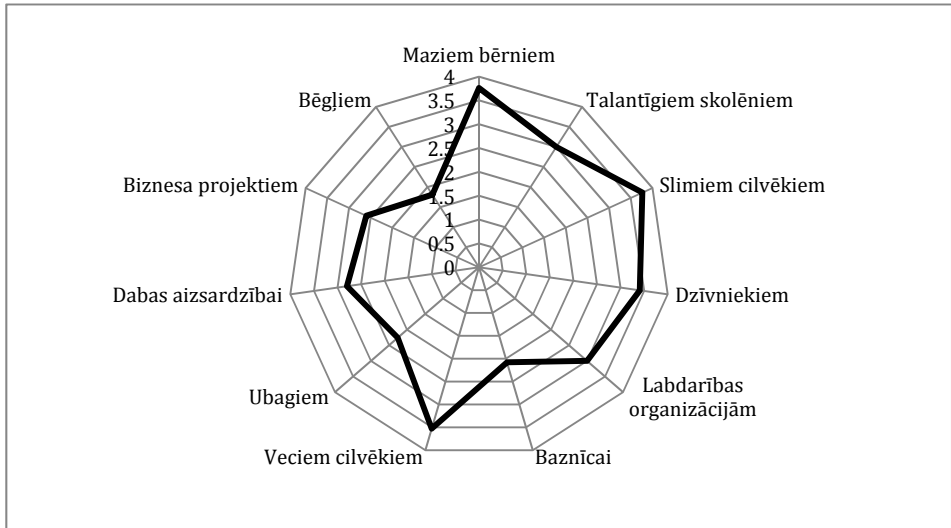
1. tabula

Studentu prosociālas rīcības cēloņi

Kritērijs	X vid.	sd
Audzināšana ģimenē	4,04	0,96
Iekšējie sirdsapziņas pašpārmērumi, ja nepalīdzēsi	3,85	1,15
Pārliecība, ka labie darbi vienmēr atmaksāsies	3,97	1,06
Līdzjūtība	3,91	0,98
Žēlums	3,38	1,03
Pārliecība, ka varēsi saņemt to pašu pretī	3,22	1,14
Vēlme darīt labus darbus kopā ar nozīmīgiem cilvēkiem	3,19	1,17
Tāpēc, ka es pats arī esmu bijis tādā situācijā	3,01	1,14
Vēlme sevi apliecināt, pierādīt	2,77	1,12
Sabiedriskā atzinība	2,57	1,11
Interese par to, ko tu šādā veidā vari iegūt	2,55	1,23
Tāpēc, ka citi arī tā dara	2,24	0,90
Sabiedrības nosodošā attieksme, ja nepalīdzēsi	2,15	0,96
Reliģiskā pārliecība	1,78	1,08

Kā mazāk pamudinošos faktoros studenti min reliģisko pārliecību un sabiedrības nosodošo attieksmi, ja palīdzība netiks sniegta.

Respondenti tika lūgti novērtēt tāda cilvēka, kas līdzīgs viņam (ja viņam būtu pietiekoši daudz līdzekļu) iespējamās izvēles, ziedojot naudu. Kā redzams 3. attēlā, respondenti kā iespējamākos ziedošanas mērķus min: slimiem cilvēkiem (3,77+/-1,04); maziem bērniem (3,76+/-0,99); veciem cilvēkiem (3,53+/-1,05) un dzīvniekiem (3,41+/-1,24).



3. attēls. Studentu iespējamie ziedošanas objekti

Kā mazāk iespējamākos ziedošanas mērķus (skat. 3. attēlā) studenti min: bēgļiem (1,81+/-0,89); baznīcai (2,08+/-1,04); ubagiem (2,26+/-1,10).

2. tabula

Studentu prosociālas rīcības cena

Kritērijs	X vid.	sd
Ja tas prasītu pārāk daudz laika	3,09	0,80
Ja būtu citi, kas to varētu izdarīt	3,03	0,89
Ja palīdzība būtu jāsniedz atbaidošiem, smirdošiem cilvēkiem	2,99	1,05
Ja tev nebūtu pietiekošas iemaņas šādu darbu veikšanai	2,91	0,92
Ja tas būtu vajadzīgs cilvēkiem, kas paši vainīgi pie savām problēmām	2,88	0,89
Ja tas prasītu tev būtisku naudas daudzumu	2,68	0,92
Ja tu domātu, ka tas neatrisinās pašu problēmu	2,64	0,96
Ja cilvēks negribētu saņemt šo palīdzību no tevis	2,36	0,96
Ja tas apdraudētu tevi	2,16	0,97

Apkopojot studentu atbildes uz jautājumu par to, kas varētu kavēt, traucēt vai atturēt viņus veikt prosociālas rīcības jeb prosociālas rīcības cenu, varam konstatēt,

ka kā būtiskākos iespējamos traucējošos faktoros (skat. 2. tabulu) studenti min: laika trūkumu; gadījumus, ja līdzās atrodas citi, kas var sniegt palīdzību; ja palīdzība jāsniedz atbaidošiem, smirdošiem cilvēkiem; ja iespējamam palīdzības sniedzējam trūkst iemaņu attiecīgās darbības veikšanai.

Kā mazāk būtisku iespējamo traucējošo faktoru (skat. 2. tabulu) studenti min personīgo apdraudējumu.

3. Diskusija

Balstoties uz pētnieku secinājumu, ka prosociālas rīcības biežums vairāk atkarīgs no tā, ka indivīds identificē sevi kā prosociālu personību un uzrāda augstus empātijas rādītājus, šādi indivīdi palīdzību sniedz biežāk kā indivīdi ar augstu prosociālu morālu argumentāciju (Hardy, 2006). Šī pētījuma ietvaros vēlējāmie noskaidrot Latvijas studentu prosociālas rīcības paradumus un to ietekmējošos faktoros.

Šī pētījuma ietvaros iegūtajās studentu atbildēs uz jautājumu par prosociālas rīcības cenu jeb to, kas varētu kavēt, traucēt vai atturēt viņus veikt prosociālas rīcības, konstatēts, ka – kā būtiskākos iespējamos traucējošos faktoros studenti min: laika trūkumu; gadījumus, ja līdzās atrodas citi, kas var sniegt palīdzību; ja palīdzība jāsniedz atbaidošiem, smirdošiem cilvēkiem; ja iespējamam palīdzības sniedzējam trūkst iemaņu attiecīgās darbības veikšanai, kas pēc būtības līdzīgi citu līdzīgu pētījumu rezultātiem, kas veikti citās valstīs. (Aronson, Wilson & Akert, 2010)

Interesanti, ka – kā mazāk būtisku iespējamo traucējošo faktoru studenti min personīgo apdraudējumu, kas pat ir mazāk būtiski novērtēts, kā personas, kurām nepieciešama palīdzība un nevēlēšanās pieņemt palīdzību. Kā nebūtisku respondenti novērtē arī iespējamo būtisku naudas zaudējumu, kas varētu rasties, sniedzot palīdzību. Nozīmīgu lomu respondenti nepiešķir arī tam, ka iespējama palīdzības objekts varētu būt pats vainīgs savās problēmās, kas liecina par respondentu konstruktīvu un altruistisku pieeju situācijas risinājumam.

Kā būtiskākos faktoros, kas veicina viņu prosociālu rīcību, studenti norāda audzināšanu ģimenē, iespējamos sirdsapziņas pārmetumus, ja palīdzību nesniegs; pārlicību par to, ka labie darbi atmaksāsies; līdzjūtību. Šī pētījuma ietvaros netika konstatēta reliģijas lomas novērtējuma respondentu dzīvē tieša saistība ar palīdzības uzvedības paradumiem vai iespējamām veikšanām. Prosociālā rīcība ir tikai indivīda redzamās rīcības izpausme, tās cēloņi meklējami daudz dziļāk, tie ir personības faktori, no kuriem viens, bet ne viennozīmīgi būtiskākais, ir reliģiskā pārlicība. (Saroglou, Pichon, Trompette, Verschuere & Dernelle, 2005)

Lai gan pēc aģentūras "A.W. Olsen & Partners" 2017. gada janvārī veiktās aptaujas datiem, 57 % Latvijas respondentu atzīst, ka uzticas labdarības organizācijām (Kazāka, 2017), šī raksta ietvaros atspoguļotā pētījuma rezultāti parāda, ka studenti Latvijā vairāk gatavi ziedot naudu konkrētiem cilvēkiem (slimiem vai veciem cilvēkiem; maziem bērniem) un dzīvniekiem, bet izvēli ziedot labdarības organizācijām izvēlas retāk, tādējādi apstiprinot empātijas – altruisma hipotēzi (*empathy – altruism hypothesis*) (Batson, 1991) – ja indivīds izjūt empātiju pret otru cilvēku, tad papūlēsies palīdzēt tam tīri altruistisku izjūtu vadīts, neatkarīgi no

tā, kādu labumu par to iegūs. Ja indivīds altruismu neizjutīs, palīdzība tiks sniegta vai nu līdzjūtības vai iespējamā apbalvojuma dēļ, vai, ja tās cena būs pārāk augsta, – vistīcāmāk, netiks sniegta vispār.

Pretrunā O. Kazākas (Kazāka, 2017) secinājumam par to, ka “Latvijas labdaris” biežāk izvēlas salīdzinoši vieglāko palīdzības formu – naudas ziedošanu, šī pētījuma ietvaros varam secināt, ka studenti kā biežākās prosociālas rīcības izpausmes min konkrētas rīcības: ceļa norādīšana vecākiem cilvēkiem; cilvēka, kurš steidzas, palaišana bez rindas; palīdzība nepazīstamiem veciem cilvēkiem; drēbju un mantu ziedošana; naudas ziedošanu minot tikai kā piekto populārāko rīcības veidu.

Šis pētījums uzskatāms par pilotpētījumu apjomīgākai palīdzības rīcības izpētei dažādu vecumu cilvēkiem Latvijā, pārbaudot hipotēzes par palīdzības uzvedības paaugstināšanos, pieaugot respondentu vecumam (Matsumoto, Yamagishi, Li & Kiyonari, 2016; Day, 2017). Piedalīšanās pētījumos, aizpildot anketas par palīdzību rīcību, sociālo eksperimentu vērošana medijos rosina indivīdu domāt par savu rīcību, analizēt to, iespējams – mainīt savu attieksmi un rīcību par labu prosociālas rīcības veikšanai. Kalifornijas universitātes San Diego profesora Džeimsa Foulera (Fowler) un Hārvardas universitātes profesora N. Kristakisa (Christakis) sociālā eksperimenta pētījuma rezultāti liecina, ka labdabīgas attieksmes, prosociālas rīcības novērošana motivē aculieciniekus rīkoties līdzīgi (Fowler & Christakis, 2010). Tas ļauj izdarīt secinājumus, ka, veidojoties pozitīviem apstākļiem sabiedrībā prosociālas rīcības virzienā, iespējama šādas rīcības kopēšana, kas var radīt pozitīvas izmaiņas visā sabiedrībā.

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RESPONSIBILITY AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN CONSTRUCTION

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Abstract

More than two years have passed since the new Construction Law and other Construction Regulations came into force. After summarizing information on how responsibility of new regulatory enactments works in practice, the main conclusion is drawn that there is no unanimous view about the responsibility of each person employed in civil engineering and construction. Accordingly, the aim of the paper is to summarize information on responsibility and emotional intelligence in construction.

This paper analyses why it is essential to discuss responsibility and emotional intelligence in construction.

The methods used included analysis, comparative analysis, systematic text condensation and theoretical method of research to investigate, analyse and summarize information of publications and regulatory enactments about responsibility and emotional intelligence in construction.

The main conclusion demonstrates that the development of emotional intelligence would equally develop the responsibility in practice.

Keywords: emotional intelligence, responsibility, construction

Introduction

More than two years have passed since the new Construction Law and other Construction Regulations came into force. After summarizing information on how responsibility of new regulatory enactments works in practice, the main conclusion is drawn that there is no unanimous view about the responsibility of each person employed in civil engineering and construction, because quite often responsibilities of the persons involved in construction are overlapping. For example, construction work manager's responsibility overlaps with the building supervisor's responsibility. Each construction specialist should give a detailed account not only on their own actions, but also on the actions of other construction specialists, but in practice there is not such an account. The duty to notify the Ministry of Economics (hereafter – ME) and the relevant certification institution regarding infringements of the construction specialist is disregarded both by the participants in the construction process and institutions which control construction operations. While there is such a situation that participants in the construction process or institutions which control construction operations do not notify the ME and the relevant certification institution, responsibilities which are regulated by the new Construction Law and other Construction Regulations will not properly work in practice.

It happens that personal interests and wishes come first and the desire to realize them by having an impact on others. It is important, how fast we can react or

communicate, correlate interests, come to an agreement and cooperate. In this process emotional intelligence takes an important role.

Thus, the aim of the paper is to summarize information on responsibility and emotional intelligence in construction.

The research methods included: comparative analysis, systematic text condensation and theoretical method of research to investigate, analyse and summarize information of publications, regulatory enactments and practice about the responsibility and emotional intelligence in construction.

For achieving the aforementioned goal, the following objectives were set: on the basis of regulatory enactments and scientific literature, to conduct a research and characterize the connection between the responsibility and the emotional intelligence in construction. This paper considers and analyses the information and summarizes the issues and problems about responsibility and emotional intelligence in construction.

1. RESPONSIBILITY AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN CONSTRUCTION

Responsibility

The author has analysed and summarized information on responsibility of construction specialists and officials in her research paper "Responsibility, quality and competitiveness in civil engineering" (Ziemele, 2016) and the situation in practice in her research paper "Defined responsibility in construction of the new Construction law and how it is working in practice" (hereafter – Research Paper) (Ziemele, 2017). Therefore, these issues will not be analysed in full detail in this paper.

Responsibility scientifically is a duty of every person and an organization, as necessity of self-control and caring about the consequences of one's own actions. The sense of responsibility is awareness of evaluation of one's own actions and person's ability to seriously judge one's own speech, action, behaviour and to be able to answer for the choice they made and its consequences in front of their self and others, which has been formulated in the process of socialization. The sense of responsibility provides for an ability to self-assessment and development of reflection and decentralization. The sense of responsibility is opposite to infantilism (Breslavs, 1999). The Construction Law regulates responsibility of all persons who are involved in the process of construction regarding the beginning of the construction process and the choice of the persons involved. The landowner or the owner of the structure is responsible for the commencement or performance of construction work without the necessary permit, also responsible for choosing a person who draws up the building design, a building expert, performer of construction work and building supervisor conforming to laws and regulations – namely, responsible for qualifications and consequences of actions of the persons chosen. The person drawing up the building design is responsible for the conformity of the building design or its documentation with the requirements of the laws and regulations governing construction, construction norms, as well as contracts entered into force by the designer and the commissioning party according to civil legal procedures, and for performing author supervision (when it

is regulated by law). The performer of construction work is responsible for the conformity of the requirements of laws and regulations at the construction site and for the conformity of the structure or its part created as a result of construction work with the building design and the requirements of the commissioning party, the Construction Law and other laws and regulations, as well as for choosing construction products conforming to the requirements of laws and regulations and integration technologies thereof. A building supervisor is responsible for supervision of the whole construction work at large and control of every stage specified in the plan of construction supervision at the construction site within the time periods provided for in the relevant plan, as well as for the conformity of the structure or its part, during construction of which the building supervisor carried out his or her duties, with the building design and the requirements of the commissioning party, the Construction Law and other laws and regulations. The building expert is responsible for the content of an expert-examination opinion and the validity of the conclusions included therein (Providus, 14.11.2016.). The landowner or the owner of the structure is responsible for qualifications and consequences of actions of the chosen persons. The person who draws up the building design, the performer of construction work and the building expert are responsible for the consequences of their own actions, but the building supervisor is responsible for the supervision of the whole construction work at large and control of every stage.

Right away after the Zolitude tragedy politicians and officials hastened to arrange regulatory enactments and responsibility of authorities in civil engineering, so they could strictly control processes in construction. Experts believe that the tragedy, however, did not let become more responsible and think about the consequences of actions in long-term. After the Zolitude tragedy the authorities promised to accomplish a lot of work, that would not let again new tragedies happen. Non-governmental organisation "Providus" has counted up that from 21 promised construction works only six have been done. There has not been created a cultural mechanism that could stop other people – just do not allow others to do so. Investigators have come to a conclusion, if everyone had accurately and responsibly done their job, then there would have been 30 possibilities to avert Zolitude tragedy. But that did not happen. Social psychologist, professor of the University of Latvia, Ivars Austers said "Sometimes there is in use the concept 'collective irresponsibility'. But it can be replaced by something else that can be called 'collective responsibility'. There has not been established culture when people point out to others. It does not mean to abuse someone or make him or her a dunce, but to point out for further goal. It can be questioning – do you really think that what we are doing now will end with a good result?" (Šnore, 2015). The situation in construction objects could improve if there were an online system, where to register specific construction works and the order of the register could not be changed. Besides, supervisors could access this register from distance (Šnore, 2015). Taking into account that there has not been established culture when people point out to others mistakes, situation in construction objects could improve if there were an online system, where to register specific construction works and the order of the register could not be changed.

Problems in practice

Consumer Rights Protection Centre in the first nine months of the year 2014, after performing inspections in construction objects and investigating documentation of construction products has discovered a lot of inadequacies that cast doubt about safety. In 53 construction objects were inspections of 420 construction products performed. It has discovered inadequacies of 186 construction products. There were established unidentified construction products and construction products with determined essential characteristics which were not in conformity with the determined in building design. 33 % of the discovered inadequacies of construction products were not provided for required documents – there were not declarations of performance or technical documentations. Still numerous importers and distributors do not pay attention to the required documents of construction products and do not pay attention that construction products when they are imported from a third country should have (Dzērve, 2014) the CE marking and the declaration of performance (Regulation (EU) No 305/2011). The situation could be improved if experience of the Nordic countries were considered, handing over inspection of construction products to a third party, because public authorities do not have the capacity to supervise all public buildings in Latvia, because it is not physically doable (Dzērve, 2014). Paying attention to inspections of construction products must be increased, because in one third of the discovered inadequacies of construction products there were not provided for required documents. Public authorities do not have the capacity to supervise all public buildings in Latvia, that's why situation could be improved if handing over inspection of construction products to a thirdparty.

In the Research Paper the author came to a conclusion, that ME holds the view that regulatory enactments clearly regulate responsibility of all persons who are involved in the process of construction, but in practice responsibilities of persons who are involved in construction are often overlapping, and it is not clear about the distribution of responsibility and duty of every person in civil engineering. Taking into account that action of other construction specialist can be evaluated in detail only by a person or a group of persons with equivalent qualification, there is not such a kind of evaluation in practice.

Duty to notify ME and the relevant certification institution regarding infringements of the construction specialist disregarding either participants in the construction process and institutions which control construction operations and until there is such a situationn responsibility regulated by the new Construction Law and other Construction Regulations will not properly work in practice (Ziemele, 2017). This situation is improved by the fact, that the Latvian Association of Architects focuses on architects, who are ready to offer building designs in a short period of time and for an incredibly low price, because not all colleagues have become more responsible after the Zolitude tragedy. The Latvian Association of Architects analyses and summarizes the data about the offers of architects which are doubtful. And there are architects whose names show up repeatedly and warning points have been amassed, and after that there may come next a certificate examination, and it is believed that many of them cannot pass this examination and will lose their certificates (Šņore, 2015). Responsibility is a condition, that defines the duty to meet commitments and it depends on evaluation, skills, abilities, competences and

status (Balčiņš, 2004). Behaviour of subjects of law that is defined by the norms and laws is legally important. Besides this behaviour can be legal and unlawful. Legal behaviour conforms to directions of law – subjective rights and duties. [...] Legal behaviour is a duty of every person, it maintains legality and orders in the society (Džugleja, 2011, 40). Participants in the construction process and institutions which control construction operations do not notify ME and the relevant certification institution regarding infringements of construction specialists, also the Latvian Association of Architects analyses and summarizes the data about the offers of architects which are doubtful. Participants in the construction process, institutions which control construction operations and certification institutions must become more active and notify ME and the relevant certification institution regarding infringements of construction specialists. Whereas ME must evaluate how to further order of notifying ME and the relevant certification institution regarding infringements of construction specialists in practice.

The current situation of hearing a criminal case of the Zolitude tragedy every hearing (there were 111 hearings in year 2017) shows that, not only the society, but also the responsible political persons have forgotten about the Zolitude tragedy, because ministerial officials do not attend hearings. The researcher of “Providus” Agnese Lešinska believes that ministerial officials should come to hearings and file all questions there spoken about. Only in this way they can get to know about the problems in practice. [...] The researcher has come to a conclusion that currently responsible ministries are waiting for judgment that will be ready in the court of first instance after some years. To establish problems in the system, it is not necessary to wait, but it is necessary to take an action, because already now we can hear about past and present problems in practice, and think preventively not waiting for five years while the court comes to a decision and there will be a judgment (Anstrate, 2016). If ministerial officials had paid attention to problems in practice which they could file in hearings of the criminal case of the Zolitude tragedy, they could have acted already to dissolve them, not waiting till there is a judgment and when it will come into force.

Although there are norms that regulate responsibility, duty to notify ME and the relevant certification institution regarding infringements of the construction specialist defaults in practice. There are not sanctions against defaulting of that duty which are regulated in regulatory enactments of construction. Responsibility can also be associated with behaviour of human; also deficiency or absence of responsibility is associated with behaviour of human or character. Now the author will pass over to the research on emotional intelligence and its importance in construction.

Emotional intelligence

The main body of qualities of emotional intelligence is formed by an ability to motivate oneself to action and not to step back when facing difficulties; an ability to hold back impatience and not to wait for immediate success; an ability to resist to fluctuations of mood and preserve sober mind in case of anxiety; an ability to sympathize with others and not to give up hope. Emotional intelligence is a new concept and by now no one can tell how much it impacts on the increase or decrease of life of every person (Goulmens, 2001, 60). Emotional interaction is as

much a knowledge domain as mathematics or literacy. Acquiring emotional interaction is not a natural gift, but the gift that has to be learnt during lifetime and it sets how well we will manage to use other skills, also our intellect (Goulmens, 2001, 63). The researchers of engineering education in Europe and Russia do not pay enough attention to the development of social and psychological competences. Construction is a rather stressful sphere of human activity. Therefore the Emotional Competency Program should be applied in an engineering university and its experience should be taken into account (Ishkov, 2015, 148). Moreover, when the graduates start their professional career, these socio-emotional competences, as much as technical training, will allow them to increase their competitiveness in companies. Nowadays, in the business world, the ability to establish healthy relationships with oneself and with others with initiative, self-confidence, flexibility and other personal qualities directly related to emotional intelligence are increasingly appreciated (Ndez, 2015, 33). Emotional intelligence is an essential knowledge domain in engineering and also in construction. Engineering education does not pay enough attention to the development of social and psychological competences. The Emotional Competency Program should be applied at every engineering university that will allow to increase socio-emotional competences and competitiveness.

The demands for a new type of leadership competence give rise to emerging education requirements in the area of personal competence, often conceptualized as emotional intelligence or social competence (Lappalainen, 2012, 1). The demands for a new type of leadership competence give rise to emerging organizational capabilities drawing from both intelligence and emotion – the interaction between intelligence and emotion is not a question of either-or, but rather one of both-and. Managerial interaction competences play a key role in the management of the relationship between superiors and subordinates (Lappalainen, 2012, 3). Emotional intelligence is the ability to perceive, understand, and manage emotions. [...] Emotional intelligence is not related to IQ but is related, as expected, to specific personality measures (e.g., empathy) and to other criterion measures (e.g., life satisfaction) even after controlling for IQ and personality traits. Emotional intelligence is also related to people's ability to manage their moods, but not to their ability to prevent moods from biasing their judgments (Ciarrochi, 2000, 539). Judgment is central to engineering, medicine, the sciences and many other practical activities. For example, one who otherwise knows what engineers know, but lacks "engineering judgment" may be an expert of sorts, a handy resource much like a reference book or database, but cannot be a competent engineer. [...] The central place of judgment in engineering, the sciences, and the like should be obvious once pointed out. It is important here because it helps to explain where ethics fits into these disciplines. There is no good engineering, no good science, and so on without good judgment and no good judgment in these disciplines without ethics. "Doing even a minimally decent job of teaching one of these disciplines necessarily includes teaching its ethics; teaching the ethics is teaching the discipline (or at least a large part of it)" (Davis, 2012, 789). The Emotional Competency Program in engineering education would not only increase social and psychological competences and competitiveness, but also managerial skills. Managerial skills which unite intelligence and emotions, and also an ability to resist to fluctuations of mood are important in the work of construction specialists

when forming relationships between superiors and subordinates and communication with public authorities. Equally important is judgment related to ethics and intelligence.

All those skills, which in total build up emotional intelligence, used to be called by an old-fashioned name – character (Goulmens, 2001, 410). Aristotle considered that a lot depends on ourselves in the ethical aspect, because “it is in our power to be chaste or immoral”. According to the conception of the philosopher chaste does not arise from nature, also not against nature. Nature just gives us an option to earn chaste. Therefore Aristotle characterizes chaste as commendable quality achieved by soul [...] and everyone in some way can be guilty of his or her character (Aristotelis, 1985, 13). Chaste as excellence of character always will guide the action of human to the mean as the right proportionality and goal. About well-done work we usually say, that there is nothing to add and nothing to take away from it, because overindulgence and inadequacy ruin the quality. [...] There are a lot of ways to make a mistake [...], but there is only one way to act right. For that reason it is easy to make a mistake and it is hard to hit the bull’s eye (Aristotelis, 1985, 54). The formulation and development process of emotional intelligence and character should be connected with real life, too. An ability to motivate oneself to action and not to step back when facing difficulties, an ability to hold back impatience and manage to use all our skills are important in every field, but especially in construction. In the same way as everyone is responsible for his or her action, everyone is responsible for his or her character and existence or absence of emotional intelligence. By improving emotional intelligence of engineers and construction specialists, construction field would gain mentally developed specialists with developed skills of emotional communication and who may act effectively. The development of emotional intelligence in character should equally develop the sense of responsibility in practice.

Responsibility and emotional intelligence have similar qualities. Responsibility as well as emotional intelligence are not natural gifts, but gifts that have been acquired in the lifetime. Responsibility is a duty of every person as necessity of self-control and caring about the consequences of one’s own actions, and it is also legal behaviour. Emotional intelligence includes qualities of self-control and ability to manage one’s own actions, too. Emotional intelligence is also a character. We may come to a conclusion that responsibility and emotional intelligence are of equal worth and interaction, and their existence side by side can promote expression of both of them. By increasing your emotional intelligence, responsibility increases at the same time and the other way round. Therefore, the responsibility and emotional intelligence are issues which we should speak about and discuss more often in the process of engineering education and in practice that could stimulate the formation and development of responsibility and emotional intelligence in society and in construction.

Conclusion

The landowner or the owner of the structure is responsible for qualifications and consequences of actions of the persons chosen. The person who draws up the building design, the performer of the construction work and the building expert

are responsible for the consequences of their own actions, but the building supervisor is responsible for supervision of the whole construction work at large and control of every stage.

Taking into an account that there has not been established culture when people point out to others, the situation in construction objects could improve if there were an online system, where to register specific construction works and it could not be possible to change the order of register.

Paying attention to inspections of construction products must be increased, because in one third of the inadequacies of construction products discovered was not provided for the required documents. Public authorities do not have the capacity to supervise all public buildings in Latvia, that's why the situation could be improved if handing over inspection of construction products to the third-party.

Participants in the construction process and institutions which control construction operations do not notify ME and the relevant certification institution regarding infringements of construction specialists. The Latvian Association of Architects analyses and summarizes the data about offers of architects which are doubtful. Participants in the construction process, institutions which control construction operations and certification institutions must become more active and notify ME and the relevant certification institution regarding infringements of construction specialists. Whereas ME must evaluate how to further order of notifying ME and the relevant certification institution regarding infringements of construction specialists in practice.

If ministerial officials had paid attention to problems in practice which they could file in hearings of the criminal case of the Zolitude tragedy, they could have acted already to dissolve them, not waiting till there is a judgment and when it will come into force.

Emotional intelligence is an essential knowledge domain in engineering and also in construction. Engineering education does not pay enough attention to the development of social and psychological competences. The Emotional Competency Program should be applied at every engineering university that will allow to increase socio-emotional competences and competitiveness.

The Emotional Competency Program in engineering education would not only increase social and psychological competences and competitiveness, but also managerial skills. Managerial skills which unite intelligence and emotions, and also an ability to resist to fluctuations of mood are important in the work of construction specialists when forming relationships between superiors and subordinates and communication with public authorities. Equally important is judgment that is related to ethics and intelligence.

Responsibility and emotional intelligence contain similar qualities. Responsibility as well as emotional intelligence are not natural gifts, but gifts that have been acquired in the lifetime.

In the same way as everyone is responsible for their own action, everyone is responsible for their character and existence or absence of emotional intelligence. By improving emotional intelligence of engineers and construction specialists, construction field would gain mentally developed specialists with developed skills of emotional communication and who may act effectively. The development of emotional intelligence in character should equally develop the sense of responsibility in practice.

Responsibility and emotional intelligence are of equal worth and their interaction and existence side by side can develop expression of both of them. By increasing emotional intelligence, responsibility also increases at the same time and the other way round. Therefore responsibility and emotional intelligence are issues which we should speak about and discuss more often in the process of engineering education and in practice, that could stimulate the formation and development of responsibility and emotional intelligence in society and in construction.

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KOPSAVILKUMS

Variatīvo moduļu sistēma izglītības iestāžu vadītāju profesionālajā pilnveidē

Olga Arhipova, Irēna Kokina

Mērķis: analizēt izglītības iestāžu vadītāju profesionālās pilnveides politiskā aspekta teorētiskos pamatus un pierādīt, ka praktiska VMS (variātvīvo moduļu sistēmas) piemērošana efektīvi atvieglo izglītības iestāžu vadītāju profesionālās pilnveides procesu.

Pētījuma pamatojums. Pētījums ietver starpdisciplināru izpēti, kas piedāvā vispārējās izglītības iestāžu vadītāju profesionālās pilnveides iespēju Latvijā un ārzemēs analīzi, piemērojot teorētiskos aspektus no vadības zinātnes, izglītības vadības, izglītības zinātnes, psiholoģijas, organizāciju psiholoģijas, socioloģijas, ekonomikas un citām zinātņu nozarēm un/vai apakšnozarēm.

Metodes. Pētījumā ir būtiski piedāvāt zinātniski pamatotas koncepcijas, teorijas un jaunus, variatīvos profesionālās izaugsmes moduļus Latvijas izglītības iestāžu vadītāju profesionālajai pilnveidei. Svarīgi ir arī piedāvāt jaunas perspektīvas. Izglītības iestāžu vadītāju profesionālās izaugsmes izpēte kā obligātu uzstāda filozofisku pieeju konstruktīvisma un komunikatīvās pieejas veidā. Izglītības zinātnē tie papildina viens otru un piedāvā visaptverošu skatījumu. Abas konceptuālās pieejas padara iespējamu izstrādāt zinātnisku koncepciju, kas ietver vairākus variatīvos moduļus, kas nodrošina multi-dimensionālu skatījumu uz izglītības iestāžu vadītāju profesionālo izaugsmi.

Rezultāti. Izstrādātais variatīvo modeļu sistēmas un tās apakšmodeļu saturs ir orientēts uz kompetences uzlabošanu noteiktā izglītības sfērā. Tā mērķis ir nodrošināt iespēju veicināt izglītības iestāžu vadītāju profesionālās spējas, iegūstot jaunus rezultātus izglītības saturā un metodoloģijā, kurus radoši piemērot izglītības vadībā saskaņā ar mērķiem, skolēnu vajadzībām un interesēm, vadības filozofiju un līderības pamatprincipiem.

Secinājumi. Izpētes procesā respondenti norādīja uz vairākām problēmām izglītības iestāžu vadītāju profesionālajā pilnveidē. Kā viens no galvenajiem problēmu eksistences faktoriem ir minēta profesionālās sistēmas nesakritība ar esošo situāciju un izglītības sistēmas uzstādītajiem mērķiem. Objektīvai esošās situācijas analīzei nepieciešama gan iespazīšanās ar ārējo vidi un tās ietekmes faktoriem, to analīzi un prognozēm, gan iekšējo attīstības faktoru noteikšana un analīze. Izglītības iestāžu vadītāju profesionālās pilnveides variatīvo moduļu sistēmas izstrādes procesā tika ievākta, apkopota, tad analizēta un novērtēta ar izglītības problēmām saistīta informācija reģionālā, nacionālā un starptautiskā kontekstā.

Lielo klientu vadības principu īstenošanas iespējamība nodokļu administrācijā

Māris Jurušs, Sabīne Elza Kalderauska

Lielo klientu vadība ir svarīgs process jebkura biznesa vadīšanā. Tomēr publiskā sektora vadībā daudzi labi principi tiek ignorēti. Šī pētījuma pamatmērķis ir izveidot ieteikumus lielo klientu vadības galveno pamatprincipu īstenošanai nodokļu

administrācijā. Uzdevumi, lai sasniegtu šo mērķi, ir šādi: izpētīt galvenos atklājumus pētījumos par klientu attiecību vadību, īpaši par lielo klientu vadību; analizēt pašreizējo segmentāciju, reģistrāciju un nodokļu ieņēmumus no dažādām nodokļu maksātāju grupām; noteikt pamata vadlīnijas lielo klientu vadībai nodokļu administrācijā. Lielo klientu vadības process sastāv no vairākiem nozīmīgiem posmiem, tai skaitā plānošanas, rīcības, aptaujas un analīzes. Klientu aptauja ir viens no svarīgākajiem posmiem lielo klientu vadības procesā. Turklāt lielo klientu vadītājam un katram no komandas dalībniekiem vajadzētu būt noteiktam personāla snieguma un attīstības plānam, lai būtu iespējams veikt regulāru novērtēšanu.

Intermedialitāte: teorētiskais diskurss un skaidrojošās pamatnostādnes performances un mediju studijās

Laine Kristberga

Rakstā analizēts intermedialitātes jēdziens performances un mediju studijās, kā arī tā izmantojamība kā radoša un analītiska pieeja debatēs par mediju un dzīvā satura polarizāciju, balstoties uz perspektīvu, ka robežas starp medijiem, žanriem un disciplinām ir plūstošas. Autore pievērš uzmanību mediju robežu problemātiskajam statusam, kā arī intermedialitātes izaicinājumiem, uzsverot atšķirības starp multimedijiem un intermedijiem. Tā kā intermedialitāte ir performances mākslas raksturīga un neatņemama sastāvdaļa, autore ir īpaši ieinteresēta intermedialitātes izpausmēs tajā. Tādēļ rakstā izziņāts intermedialitātes jēdziens, kā tas aplūkots *Fluxus* mākslinieka Dika Higinza, kurš ieviesa jēdzienu 1966. gadā, un Hansa Bredera, vāciešu emigrantu mākslinieka, kas 1968. gadā atvēra Intermediju Programmu Aiovas Mākslas un mākslas vēstures skolā, rakstos. Intermedialitātes jēdziens šajā rakstā ir aplūkots ne tikai Rietumu kontekstā, tiek izskaidrotas arī performances mākslas trajektorijas Latvijā vēlajā sociālisma periodā, salīdzinot intermedialitāti Andra Grīnberga performances mākslā 70. gados, kā arī mākslinieku kolektīva NSRD un mākslinieka Miervalda Poļa mākslā 80. gados.

Patērētāju apmierinātības veidošanās process mazumtirdzniecībā

Iveta Liniņa, Rosita Zvirgzdiņa

Mazumtirdzniecības sfēra vienmēr ir ieņēmusi nozīmīgu lomu Latvijas tautsaimniecībā. Veiksmīgas mazumtirdzniecības uzņēmuma darbības pamatā ir pircēju vajadzību apmierināšana un ilgtermiņā arī attiecību veidošana ar pircēju. Process jaunu pircēju piesaistīšanai vienmēr ir saistīts ar lielāku naudas, laika un enerģijas patēriņu. Lai uzņēmums noturētu esošos pircējus un iegūtu arvien jaunus, viens no pamata uzdevumiem ir pārzināt viņu vēlmes un vajadzības un operatīvi apmierināt tās. Šajos procesos mazumtirdzniecības uzņēmumiem var palīdzēt izprotot pircēju apmierinātību un tālāk jau attiecību dibināšanu un vadību.

Milēniāļu komunikācijas profesionāļu vadība, savienojot paaudžu iezīmes, līderības attīstību un darbinieku iesaisti

Juan Meng, Bryan H. Reber, Holley Rogers

Milēniāļu pieņemšana, iesaistīšana un paturēšana darbā ir kļuvis par organizāciju kritisku izaicinājumu; tomēr tikai nedaudzos pētījumos ir aplūkotas šīs talantu vadības problēmas korporatīvās komunikācijas un komunikācijas vadības nozarēs. Atsaucoties uz talantu vadības teoriju, aktuālie pētījumi milēniāļus novērtē kā unikālu un ietekmīgu grupu, lai saprastu tās cerības un viedokļus par uzņēmšanu darbā, iesaisti, integrāciju un līderības attīstību komunikācijas vadībā. Padziļinātas intervijas ar 39 milēniāļu profesionāļiem, strādājošiem stratēģiskās komunikācijas nozarē dažādās organizācijās (piemēram, pilnas apkalpošanas komunikāciju aģentūrās, publiskos korporatīvajos uzņēmumos un bezpeļņas organizācijās), atklāj vairākas atslēgas tēmas un plašāku kopsavilkumu par šo paaudzi. Atklājumi parāda, ka milēniāļu profesionāļi ir pretrunīga paaudze, kurai ir vēlme pēc neatkarības, elastības un izaicinājumiem, balansētiem ar skaidrām prasībām, regulāru novērtējumu un drošības tīkliem neizdošanās gadījumā. Ja tā tiek pareizi izmantota, stratēģiskās komunikācijas nozarei ir daudz struktūru un iezīmju, ar kurām var piesaistīt un iesaistīt milēniāļu darbiniekus.

Baiļu propaganda: no Pirmā pasaules kara uz moderno komunikāciju

Pier Paolo Pedrini, Jean-Patrick Villeneuve

Pirmā pasaules kara laikā (kā arī Otrā pasaules kara) baiļu propaganda bija emocionāla kara viltība, kura tika ekspluatēta, lai pārliecinātu cilvēkus aizstāvēt kara ideālus. Šī kara viltība bija acīmredzama plakātu ražošanā, kas kalpoja, lai cilvēkus motivētu un uzbudinātu. Amerikāņu un britu militāro spēku plakātu analīze ļāva identificēt dažādās izmantotās pārliecināšanas stratēģijas.

Ar plakātu palīdzību sasniegtie panākumi bija tādas vides un pilsoņu viedokļu veidošana, kas veicināja iestāšanos armijā, lai aizstāvētu nācijas identitāti. Ienaidnieks pārkāpj cilvēktiesības; ir drauds sabiedriskajai kārtībai, drošībai, labklājībai un nācijas vērtībām: cīnīties ar to ir jauns krustakarš. Apelēšanas pie bailēm galvenā motivācija ir likt sarunu biedriem apsvērt problēmas nopietnību, kas ir efektīgi, ja, izlasot ziņojumu, tie seko propagandistu sniegtajām instrukcijām.

Autori apgalvo, ka ir iespējams vilkt paralēles starp mūsdienu kara propagandu un motīviem, kas vada pircējus iepirkšanās laikā; sabiedrības locekļi savās politiskajās izvēlēs apstiprina Pirmā pasaules kara sekmēšanai izveidoto principu pamatotību.

Prosociālas rīcības cena

Daina Škuškovnika

Mūsdienu pasaulē ir svarīgi, lai tiktu aktualizētas, attīstītas un uzturētas vispārīgās cilvēciskās vērtības. Cilvēkiem nepieciešams justies drošiem, tiem jābūt pārliecinātiem, ka tad, kad tiem būs nepieciešama palīdzība, apkārtējie nebūs vienaldzīgi. Tomēr katram indivīdam arī jābūt gatavam palīdzēt citiem, kad nepieciešams.

Diemžēl vairāku zinātnisku pētījumu rezultāti apstiprina urbānās pārslodzes hipotēzi – lielu pilsētu iedzīvotāji tiek nepārtraukti pakļauti pastiprinātai stimulācijai un līdz ar to ir spiesti sevi distancēt, lai izvairītos no emocionālās pārslodzes. Šis pētījums tika veikts, analizējot latviešu studentu pieredzi un iespējamo darbību novērtējumu situācijās, kurās apkārtējiem nepieciešama palīdzība, kas pieprasa kāda veida lielāku piepūli, laiku vai citu resursu izmantošanu.

Analizējot respondentu atbildes, tika izdarīti secinājumi par prosociālas rīcības cenu modernajā sabiedrībā; sociālajiem un psiholoģiskajiem faktoriem, kas ietekmē indivīda vēlmi sniegt palīdzību cilvēkiem, kā arī tika sniegti priekšlikumi prosociālu aktivitāšu veicināšanai.

Atbildība un emocionālā inteliģence būvniecībā

Ināra Ziemele

Ir pagājuši vairāk nekā divi gadi kopš jaunā Būvniecības likuma un citu būvniecības noteikumu stāšanās spēkā. Apkopojot informāciju par to, kā praksē darbojas jauno normatīvo aktu noteiktā atbildība, var secināt, ka nepastāv vienprātīgs uzskats par katras civilinženierijā un būvniecībā nodarbinātās personas atbildību. Pētījuma mērķis ir apkopot informāciju par atbildību un emocionālo inteliģenci būvniecībā.

Šajā pētījumā analizēts, kāpēc ir būtiski apspriest atbildību un emocionālo inteliģenci būvniecībā.

Izmantotās metodes ietver analīzi, salīdzinošo analīzi, sistemātisko teksta un teorētisko pētniecības metodi, lai pētītu, analizētu un apkopotu informāciju par publikācijām un normatīvajiem aktiem par atbildību un emocionālo inteliģenci būvniecībā.

Gala secinājums parāda, ka emocionālās inteliģences attīstība vienlīdzīgi veicina arī atbildību praksē.