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TABLE OF CONTENTS

COLLABORATIVE LEARNING – A MODEL FOR REDUCING DISCRIMINATION AND VIOLENCE IN HIGHER EDUCATION	
Carmen Alexandrache	4
HOW TO OVERCOME LANGUAGE BARRIERS AND CULTURAL DIVERSITY IN A PRODUCTION COMPANY?	
Weronika Kawecka ¹ , Agata Kubiak ² , Marek Sekieta ³	12
DETERMINANTS OF INDIVIDUAL CUSTOMER TRUST IN PHYSICAL BANKING: CASE OF THE BALTIC STATES	
Viktorija Skvarciany ¹ , Mangirdas Morkunas ²	21
THE SUBCULTURE OF FOOTBALL FANS AND ITS PLACE IN THE DELINQUENT SUBCULTURE	
Karina Zalcmane	29
THE IMPORTANCE OF GRAMMAR FOR TRANSLATOR TRAINING	
Gemma Navickiene	36
POLISH SOCIOLOGY OF ART (THEATRE AND FILM): TRADITION AND TRENDS	
Ewelina Wejbert-Wąsiewicz ¹ , Emilia Zimnica-Kuzioła ²	46
OVERVIEW AND ANALYSIS OF LEGAL REGULATIONS IN THE PRACTICE OF LATVIAN MEDICAL PRACTITIONERS	
Karina Palkova	56

COLLABORATIVE LEARNING – A MODEL FOR REDUCING DISCRIMINATION AND VIOLENCE IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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Abstract. In the context of the development of scientific research, technology and technological processes, the mobility of people has increased. In this respect, different problems have to be resolved referring to intercultural dialogue, communication with people shaped by different ethnical environments, integration of people in a social, professional and cultural space. Our study starts from the premise that students can learn better in a collaborative education context. Our paper is a small empirical research. It presents problems related to intercultural competences of students, use of education strategies encouraging mutual collaboration; principles, attitudes and values that have to be respected during all activities while working in an inhomogeneous environment. It is based on observations made during activities with students and analysis of the results of literature review on education, as well as social and human sciences. The paper proposes some methodological aspects of collaborative learning for developing students' social and intercultural competences, their attitudes and values, as well as some examples of activities and strategies which can be used by students and teachers during training and teaching activities in higher education.

Keywords: education, intercultural, social competences, cooperation, quality

Introduction

In this age of technological explosion, humanity is facing an amazing social mobility in geographic and virtual spaces. This reality has imposed, among other things, two concepts – *diversity* and *difference* that encourage the manifestation of many attitudes, gestures and behaviours. All of them can be grouped under two human reactions: *to reject* all things that are different, at the cultural, personal and socio-professional level, respectively, *to harmonize* differences for diversification of the prospects of life and human activity.

The awareness of and fostering a culture of diversity are fundamental, especially due to the fact that the (*non*) *acceptance* of the others is a complicated problem of discrimination.

In this respect, the problem of human differences and attitudes towards human discrimination is more and more often mentioned in the aims of the studies carried out in the field of educational sciences, the researchers and teachers from Romania and from other countries of world being concerned about it. For this purpose, branch literature develops new concepts such as *interculturality*, *inclusive education* (Vrăsmaş *et al.* 2010), cultural, community and professional *integration* as solutions of the human discrimination problem. In this respect, the studies present the importance of teacher training that contributes to the formation and development of social competences of students, their interaction for learning together.

The issue regarding differences between individuals has become also a permanent subject for education; training at school from the perspective of differences is one of the many directions needed to ensure the quality of education. Each student is a unique person, so there is need for ensuring an equal chance to education, irrespective of his/her inborn and acquired abilities, and allowing the chance to respect their potential. In addition, *differentiated education* (Gherguţ 2006) has started to incorporate both the concepts of pupil-focused education (based on seeing each person as a unique individual) and of inclusive education (based on the need to integrate in schools also persons with disabilities) (Radu 1978).

In case of the university, it is well-known that educational process is oriented towards preparing students for a specific professional field or job. But it is necessary to understand academic education

from another perspective: to relate the need, expressed at the level of the labour market, to the current reality and its future evolution. Therefore, the university must prepare its graduates to accept and collaborate with different people, to discover and improve one's own personality, a positive aspect in one's profession.

Starting from this notice, we have an interest in the attitude of students towards the other who is seen as different. As a result of the observations and discussions at the seminars on History subjects, students evinced a series of problems occurring during work group learning activities, namely they have noticed that:

- there is not enough time to appreciate the other person, to notice his/her needs, characteristics, interests and learning potential;
- the social rank is dictated by the immediate results;
- they were not encouraged to meditate on their own personality in relation with the personality of the other, on their actions toward the other, to reflect about changing their emotional/ affective, attitudes, gestures and cognitive experience.

This is the reason for collaborative learning as a solution that develops a positive interaction between students.

Methodology

This paper starts from the premise that the university contributes efficiently to the development of students' social and intercultural competences, even if its mission is the specialization of its graduates in a professional domain and their professional integration. It can offer multiple means to cultivate communication and social relationship abilities, both during seminars, and also during lectures delivered by professors. Academic education has to continue the preparation of students for their social life to the same extent as for their professional life. This aspect must be an objective followed directly by all teachers.

The paper emphasises these aspects and hopes to encourage university teachers to include didactical strategies of collaborative learning in their study programmes, in formal and non-formal activities. We believe that the collaborative learning is a strategy useful in academic education that allows adapting learning activity to own potential of every student and developing the student's interaction with an optimistic and constructive effects.

In this paper, we present analysis of theoretical literature and results gained from observing student activities and student interviews focusing on several issues, namely: what we can do when university students are very different (age, personality, cognitive and affective experience, desires, aims, economical status, education, etc.); what we do for fostering their learning as an individual process, but not an individualist one, which cannot interrupt the dialogue with the others; the interest about the needs and specifics of the others; how we value and follow up the individual features of students during learning process; how we encourage students to cooperate between each other in the learning activities, to appreciate the differences of the other, to want to know them better; how we make them accept each other.

Evidently, the paper proposes some methodological aspects and practical solutions to develop communicative and collaborative competences, some didactical methods and techniques that stimulate and enhance communication and social relationship, cognitive, social and emotional interaction while learning.

The paper offers on insight into the results which have been obtained by systematic observation, oral and written interviews of students (evaluation and self-evaluation) majoring in History. These results have helped to identify the best didactical ways how to apply collaborative learning strategies in the academic education system. These methods have been used in our activities during one year.

Our proposal may positively contribute to the configuration of some educational strategies focused on the development of interaction competences of students. It has also proved that the success of a didactic activity is assured by the quality of cooperation.

Literature Review and Results

Certainly, the attitude towards others, who are different, implies the idea of discrimination. Scholars impose in their researches the concept of positive discrimination, as an attitude towards people with physical, mental, sensorial, talking and learning disabilities. Positive discrimination is regarded as a combination of gestures, human conduct, attitudes and values related to acceptance, receptiveness, implication, cooperation. But the line between positive and negative discrimination is really thin. This line depends on the intention, reason, own and ethnical prejudice, cultural stereotypes, impacts at the emotional, communicational (Mark 2007) and relationship level. Sometimes, when the line is broken, the discrimination can involve violence and many other antisocial acts.

A possible graphic model of the relation between discrimination and social reaction can be seen in *Figure 1*.

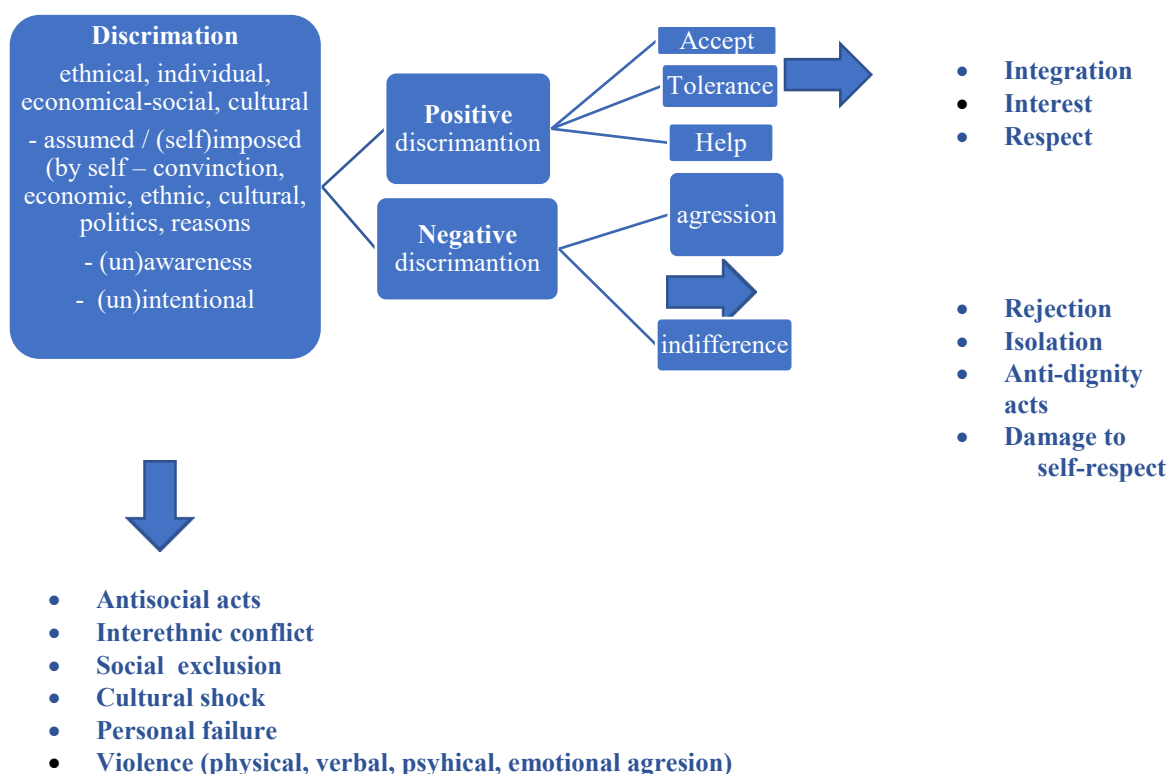


Fig. 1 Relation Discrimination – Social reaction

Obviously, Figure 1 highlights more clearly the relation between discrimination and violence and thus one can understand why it is necessary cultivating the social and interaction skills of students. These aspects are increasingly important in academic education and professional integration of students.

In most cases, human discrimination results from the lack of knowledge or poor knowledge of the others. It is harder to change an opinion about the other person than making a correct one. Therefore, we propose group work as an effective alternative to the incomplete knowledge and limited acceptance of the other (Bogoş 2013). This learning mode depends on the interaction of the members of the group. It is a working together method, students need to collaborate with others for solving some learning tasks.

Collaborative learning is a teaching and training strategy based on working together for solving the same problem, exploring a new learning theme, exploring a significant question, finding out more information or different aspects of a task, reality, proposing new ideas, creating new solution etc.

We consider that collaborative learning means a new opportunity to realize the following aspects:

- discovering personal qualities or qualities of the other is a great result;
- work in a group is more efficient;
- stereotypes do not have a real support;
- people do not look alike as much as we think;
- appreciations of others are considered to be more important, without even thinking about the relevance and the impact that they have on one's own personality;
- working in a group is really attractive;
- learning through collaboration, where students are stimulated to analyse informational content, reflect upon the text, associate new ideas;
- while working in a group, the student forms a positive and critical attitude towards one's own person (self-trust, sense of personal efficiency, respect towards one's own accomplishments);
- respecting each other's views allows to understand the reality from multiple perspectives;
- confronting with other's opinions is a perfect moment to understand better, to communicate, to accept that the reality is more complicated than we think;
- students with disabilities receive an efficient support for their educational needs and the possibility to be accepted by the others, to interact with their colleagues;
- students learn to work together like a team;
- students develop the capacity to find efficient solutions for every problem;
- responsibility for their learning increases;
- human differences are interesting for everyone and these can be harmonized by a good intention.

As it can be noticed, the students involved in a collaborative learning process are developing their interpersonal competences. For this reason, we sustain using the collaborative learning strategy in academic education. But it is important to know that the collaborative learning strategy has two forms:

- a. *Cooperation learning* methods and techniques (working in a small group or in pairs, the activity being structured and students will be evaluated for their work);
- b. *Competition learning* (working in a team for a competition; students' work is more motivated if they are in a competition with each other. In this way students can renounce to their inhibitions).

Collaborative learning means participation of students to solve learning tasks, but cooperation learning means systematic working together. It is really important to involve every student in learning activities (Mackie 1989).

Therefore, the collaborative learning strategy has a useful role as for learning process and for reducing negative discrimination. In this respect, the collaborative learning strategy incorporates many methods and techniques like the following: *Debate, Case study, Brainstorming, Role play, Discussion Panel, I*

know – I will know – I have learnt, SINELG, Dials, Prediction method (Prediction in pairs), Learning through discovery, Interview in three stages, Think – Pairs – Show, Project method, Mosaic Method (Jaques 2001). These methods and techniques have succeeded in stimulating the participation of students in group activities (Messick, Mackie 1989), debates, brainstorming, sharing and offering counterarguments, opinions, and at making them to listen to the ideas of the others.

For using the collaborative learning strategy teachers and students need to prepare carefully the following steps:

Table 1. Using the collaborative learning strategy

<i>Stages of using the collaborative learning strategy</i>	<i>Essential questions of the teacher</i>	<i>Essential questions of the student</i>
Knowing the work-group Knowing the students and the psycho-physical-bio potential of each student	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do you know the features of each student? • Do you know his/ her desires, passions, interests, personal experience, own learning potential? • Is your knowledge about the syntality of the group also satisfied? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What do I know about me and the others? Did I find out information about my colleagues? How much do I know each colleague? Do you like your colleagues? Why? • What was the context when you interacted with them? • How much does the group know you? • Am I encouraged expressing my own needs, interests, experience?
Preparing the learning context	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do you share properly the working-tools? Can students use them easily? Do all students have access to the learning resources? Are there any disturbing things in the classroom? Do you assure an optimistic and democratic climate, a pleasant working atmosphere? • Do you prepare a positive affective atmosphere? An affective attractive one? • Have you provided an access to the learning programme and resources for all students? • Is the classroom decorated and individualized in line with students' preoccupations? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is everything done for beginning the activity? • Do I feel good I?
Forming the groups	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How do you want to make the work groups? Do you need homogenic or aleatoric groups? Why? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have you any preferences working with the others? Who is your favourite colleague? What is more important: solving the learning task or working with a favourite colleague? Why do you like/ dislike working with the other?

Establishing the tasks and rules of an activity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What do work groups have to do? • Are the rules of the activity understood? • Who makes these rules? Why? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do you know the rules and learning tasks? Do you like it? • What piece of task/ rule don't you agree to? Why? • Have you communicated your dissatisfaction? Is there a problem related to your colleagues?
Time for working in groups Realization of interaction Debate on ideas, opinion formulation Structuring the new knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do you encourage students to respect cooperation during learning stages? • Have you reserved proper time and level of difficulty for each learning stage? • What is the role of the teacher? • Who monitors the work? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can you respect time and stages of working together? • Do you want to work? Why not? • Are you motivated to learn? • Do you want to help your colleagues? What does your help mean? Do you get some help (for you)?
Valorisation of results (Self) Reflection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are students doing with their results? • Who appreciates the work results? • Do you have time for offering an immediate feedback to students? • Do you fix any forms to share the work results? • How do you encourage students to confront their opinions with each other? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are you motivated to share your work results? • Have you worked in your team? • Do you participate in the analysis of the work results? • How do you feel? And your colleague / your work group? • What have I learnt from this activity? How do I feel? And your colleagues? • How will I use this experience to work/ interact with the others? • Am I satisfied with my learning results? Is this caused by my feelings about the others? • What can I change in my attitudes towards the others? • Do I like what I found about me? Do you like what your colleagues think about you?

From the above mentioned aspects, we consider that with the help of these essential questions, the teacher can apply the collaborative learning activity better and students will be more motivated to work with others with a higher sense of responsibility.

Further we propose some modes for applying the collaborative learning strategy, especially in the field of History. But these suggestions can be extended to other fields as well. This issue is presented in Table 2:

Table 2. Didactical examples using the collaborative learning strategy

<i>Context learning</i>	<i>Types of activities</i>	<i>Recommendations</i>
In formal teaching context	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Working with sources of historical documentation • Guiding the learning of students with learning resources • Organizing and encouraging students' own learning experience • Developing the creativity of students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Giving the tasks differently • Tools for appreciating the contribution of every student who works in a group • Sheets for peer- and self-evaluation • Choosing the best solution • Vote for the best opinion
In non-formal teaching context	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Elaborating joint projects, joint portfolio • Realizing common documentation theme/ tasks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop positive emotions among all students
At the end of the collaborative activity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Summarizing their work in a group • Elaborating a text/ conclusion in pairs/ groups • Presenting the group work • Realizing the reflection exercises 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attitudes and reactions about the others

Conclusions

The quality of education increasingly tends to become the paradigm of this century's scientific preoccupations, a fact that orientates the innovation and change of education towards the problem of the students' proactive competences (Doncheva 2016). Even though, the concept of competence seems to be more and more consistent with the demands of the “future school”, still its lucrative dimension depends on the capacity to interact with each other (from communicative, affective, cognitive and social perspectives). Its responsibility in general is to provoke and to support any initiative in the instructive-educative field.

A great solution is collaborative learning as a group work method. (David 2001). This learning strategy permits the other to be accepted, encourages the work with the person who is different. In this way, the discrimination disappears. Of course, every person tends to look carefully what is different and what she/ he knows about these differences. But this reaction can be improved in a positive sense, by the habitude to work with the other. And, as a result, every person will be tolerant and more confident in the good-intentions of the other and in the good results of working together. It is well-known that a person can learn him-/ herself better, if she/ he is referring to the other who is a different person. The self-image is a relation between the way in which one person sees him-/ herself and the way she/ he wants to be seen by the others or by him-/ herself. The discrimination is diminished or stopped by the method of working together.

The collaborative learning strategy is a popular classroom technique used to expose one's own knowledge and to motivate students to work together, to accept the other. Equally speaking, this

strategy is a pleasant didactical model to stimulate students to learn better and to interact positively with the other. Using the collaborative learning strategy, students' responsibility for their learning and their social attitudes will increase. In this way, students are motivated to participate in the activity, to work together, to communicate with each other, to express their own thoughts and feelings about the interaction with the others and how they want to be appreciated by the others.

Collaborative learning is a better method of cultivating students' tolerance for those that are different from them, understanding and accepting their differences. Students will have a habitude to interact constructively with the other, to manifest a positive, optimistic, compassionate and flexible attitude towards the other.

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HOW TO OVERCOME LANGUAGE BARRIERS AND CULTURAL DIVERSITY IN A PRODUCTION COMPANY?

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Abstract. Each company is leading according to its own management conception. In a culturally diverse company employees frequently perceive it in different ways. Very often they have different approaches to the methods and standards of the company. Feeling the sense of community is very important in every single company. As a consequence, the understanding of different values by workers increases the commitment and efficiency of every single employee, thus making the company move forward much faster and potentially even reaching a dominant position in the whole market.

Moreover, production companies hire people from all over the world for the position of a worker. The main reason for that is the economic issue. In a culturally diverse company, there are a lot of difficulties to ensure proper communication. Successful communication seems to be a crucial factor for good cooperation among employees. Without mutual understanding, the work cannot be properly performed. It can cause a lot of waste for the production company. Examples worth mentioning are the following: defects, unnecessary motion and overproduction. Overproduction is the worst kind of waste, because it is associated with other losses. Furthermore, lack of communication can also be a reason for accidents. Particularly safety in each modern company is one of the most important core values.

Keywords: production company, diversity, management conception, cooperation

Introduction

Nowadays, the migration of people is a key point for the development and existence of many companies. Many Poles emigrate with intent to find better job opportunities. However, many people also come to Poland, especially the citizens of Ukraine, Belarus, Russia and Vietnam. Approximately 70% of the workforce of the company where the research was conducted are Ukrainians. The company employs employees only from one other nationality because it does not involve additional difficulties like translating documents, instructions, forms and messages. The main objective of the project was to identify the difficulties that migrants face in Poland. In this research, two kinds of research tools were used: anonymous surveys among Ukrainians working in one of the production companies in Łódź and interviews with the managers of that company.

This situation is associated with large opportunities for companies. Poles should be glad that companies can hire more foreign people and grow. Furthermore, they should not fight with this. The entire paper was written not only on the basis of the experience and observations gained during the research, but also benefiting from literature and Internet resources. One can especially highlight some viewpoints that contributed the most to the content of the paper:

- Aniszewska G., *Kultura organizacyjna w zarządzaniu*, PWE, Warszawa, 2007 – clearly explains the importance of culture in an organization. This position provides a good description of the desired approach of managers that should be implemented in a multicultural company.
- Muhlemann A.P., Oakland J.S., Lockyer K.G. *Zarządzanie – produkcja i usługi*, PWN, Warszawa, 1997 – describes the importance of management processes in a production company.

- Lewandowski J., *Projektowanie systemów informacyjnych*, Wyd. Politechniki Łódzkiej, Łódź 2002 – a basic compendium for designing information systems. These processes are crucial, especially for the migrants that need more focus.

All the other sources should not be omitted, however these three positions pointed out above should be purposely specified.

Literature Review

1. Culture. The influence of culture on organizational retention.

Management sciences, in the study of the effectiveness of organization's activities, more and more often refer to the cultural perspective that assumes that multiculturalism becomes an everyday element of every organization's life and has a large impact on the results of the company's office (Gajek 2009).

The role and importance of the human factor in company management has changed significantly. Thus, in a modern company employee management and realization of personnel functions should be perceived in a new way (Ducker 2005). Cultural diversity penetrating the structure and processes of the organization, as well as leaving an impact on its surroundings, is nowadays an important factor determining the life and survival of the organization. Multiculturalism is based on individual and group differences affecting the processes of communication, understanding and cooperation. In social sciences a broad understanding of culture and multiculturalism is assumed. The difference may be related to race, nationality, culture, language, religion and worldview, age, sex or gender orientation, disability, etc. In management sciences, when talking about multicultural organizations, the concept of culture is usually interpreted in its national or ethnic aspect, thus relating to differences in the sphere of axiology, norms and language.

The factor that affects the dynamism of multicultural relations is not only the existence of otherness in itself, but also the systems of interpreting reality that are manifested in different rationalities. In other words, the quality and specificity of intercultural contacts is influenced by the awareness of differences and the degree of contradiction in which it conflicts with the individual's values, norms and behaviours that are considered to be right. The existence of multicultural interactions at these three levels may be the cause of both positive phenomena supporting the development of the whole organization as well as negative phenomena limiting its growth.

2. National culture and organizational culture

Diversity management is defined in literature as the management of cultural diversity, multiculturalism management, intercultural management or multiculturalism. It is necessary in the situation of at least two cultures in one organization, which is, among others, a natural feature of transnational organizations that carry out territorial expansion and at the same time – the effect and cause of globalization (Jankowska-Mihułowicz 2011). Managing cultural diversity in organizations takes place both through cultural mediation, negotiations, explanation of positions and searching for solutions beneficial to all parties, as well as by shaping such a lasting organizational culture that prevents intercultural conflicts and determines superior values, beliefs and behavioural patterns allowing to reconcile contradictory cultures and efficient operation of the organization. However, it is important that organizational values and beliefs are not contradictory to the values and beliefs of a social culture in which the organization develops and from which employees come. It is therefore a task to find a common platform for cooperating among cultures and stepping outside (Zawadzka 2010).

Intercultural cooperation consists of creating conditions for mutual penetration and enrichment of cultures. Its effect may be, as in the strategy of domination, unification of organizational culture or creation of a common "meta culture", which is accepted by the majority of employees and enables effective management of the organization. This strategy reflects the perception of multiculturalism as an opportunity for organizational development. Its implementation, however, is dependent on the intercultural skills and competences of its employees. Contacts of people from several different

cultures often lead to unintentional conflicts resulting from natural problems accompanying intercultural communication.

Above all, interlocutors of intercultural dialogue assume that the norms and rules governing their conversation are similar or that they mistakenly interpret non-verbal signals in accordance with the principles of decoding that are binding in their own culture. In addition, knowledge about different cultures is acquired most freely and relies mainly on associations and simplified elements of knowledge, especially stereotypes and values of a given nation. As a result, intercultural interactions are associated with a strong drag and stress – ignorance of the codes prevailing in a given organizational culture and additional feeling of alienation, being constantly observed as “the different one” can be an everyday experience of people working, e.g. in an international team.

Organizational culture arises under the influence of the objectives pursued, which, in turn, determine the behaviour of people from different groups and categories that make up the given organization. On the labour market, at this time, more frequent changes and the phenomenon of employees migrating between organizations can be observed. Organizations employing professionals from various fields are becoming more and more popular. The members of such organization are employees who have retrained and perform a profession different from the learned one, thus bringing the culture of their profession to the organization currently employing them. These people bring very different elements to the organizational culture and, on the contrary, they themselves are subjected to acculturation, that is, the influence of the existing organizational culture on their psyche, way of thinking, values, habits and behaviours. A member of the organization is influenced by colleagues from work, a superior, a wider community in which the organization functions, for example a characteristic national or professional culture, as well as a close environment (for example, family and its customs, views, etc.). Organizational culture also changes under the influence of the emergence of young labour force on the labour market, people who started their professional activity at the turn of the century (Jemielniak 2008).

Poles in this description appear as a national group characterized by a strong avoidance of uncertainty and short-term orientation as well as a distance of power, moderate masculinity and individualism. In no dimension, Polish national culture is not definitively defined. Apparently, the marked dimension of Polish culture is avoiding uncertainty, and the least – individualism. As a result of the influence of various national, professional and other cultures, as well as the conscious activity of the founders and people managing the organization, a specific organizational culture is created (Aniszewska 2007).

Currently in the world the labour migration plays a significant role. In 2015, a total of 4.7 million people migrated to one of the EU-28 Member States, while at least 2.8 million emigrants left an EU Member State. Since Poland's accession to the European Union, the phenomenon of growing interest of Ukrainian citizens in taking up permanent employment in Poland and actually undertaking it has been observed. Until recently, workers from Eastern European countries found seasonal employment, working in agriculture, with simple physical work that did not require qualifications or experience. Countries such as the United Kingdom and Scandinavian countries have attracted conscientious and well-qualified Polish workers with attractive salaries. As a result of labour migration of Poles, the local labour market began to feel a chronic lack of employees. At the same time, there was an increasing interest of migrants from the East in the Polish labour market. For years, the largest ethnic group employed by Polish employers have been Ukrainians. Among the countries of the European community, Poland is often chosen by migrants from Ukraine, and the migrants themselves are well-assimilated in Polish society. Both countries share a lot in terms of political and economic, as well as cultural dimensions (Szpakowska *et al.* 2016).

The activity of production companies or logistic centres in Poland is increasingly dependent on Ukrainian employees. Over time, they have ceased to be just a cheap workforce – employees from the East in certain regions of Poland are simply the only chance for the functioning of companies. Already now over a million Ukrainians work in Poland. The number of Ukrainian migrants still slowly increases, but the peak of arrivals was in 2016 and 2017. The others countries of migrants are: Belarus, Russia, Vietnam, Armenia (International Organization for Migration 2016).

The migration flow of Ukrainians is directed towards main destination countries: Poland, Czech Republic, Italy and the Russian Federation. Ukrainian migrants choose Poland and the Russian Federation because of their large labour markets, lower total cost of migration, and socio-cultural similarity. It is important to underline that the migration of Ukrainians to the Russian Federation rapidly decreases because of the conflict in Donbas and Russian annexation of Crimea.

Above 90 percent of Ukrainians come to Poland in order to do physical work here. Migrants from Ukraine are the best option for Poland to fulfil the demographic gap. These people are working 200 hours per month and they are even more satisfied if they can work 240 hours per month. In fact, they are mostly working in agriculture, in building sector, in restaurants and production companies.

It is really difficult to define why people are not willing to do the same profession as in Ukraine. One can suppose that is because of the language barrier. At the beginning there seems to be a similarity between these two languages: Polish and Ukrainian. But in the case of a specialist job there is demand to know a new complex vocabulary.

In most cases people immigrate to Poland to work as production employees but after a certain time period they want to stay in Poland and boost their qualifications. They are willing to learn the Polish language and required competences for a specific position.

Methodology

The aim of the project was to examine and identify the difficulties that Ukrainian employees experience in Poland, as well as what can be the case for Polish companies. In this research two kinds of research tools were used.

Firstly, the research had a form of anonymous surveys for Ukrainians working in one of the production company in Łódź.

Secondly, beside the surveys for Ukrainians workers, the research had a form of direct interviews with three managers: Production Manager, Lean Manufacturing Manager and Training Manager.

The areas analysed within the research included:

- the attitude of Ukrainian people to Polish culture,
- difficulties faced by Ukrainians in Polish companies,
- difficulties faced by Polish managers in cooperation with Ukrainian people,
- actual situation in one of the production companies in Łódź,
- opportunities for Polish companies,
- opportunities for Ukrainian migrants.

Results

The company that participated in the survey and interviews has its own factory in Łódź. The company is a global specialist in EPDM and thermoplastic body sealing solutions and specialises in equipping automobile doors. This company delivers sealing systems with a strong water, air and dust barrier. Furthermore, their sealing systems include resistance to fire or shock and acoustic isolation (Hutchinson homepage).

The corporation is internationally recognized as a support for carmakers from all over the world. They offer them attractive innovations that always fit perfectly the bodywork and gradually increase customer satisfaction (Hutchinson Poland). This manufacturer owns technologies that ensure the best possible solutions for the automobile industry to enhance the comfort of ride.

The company hires 800 people, and more than 70 percent of them are people from Ukraine working in the position of a worker. The questionnaires were given to a group of 80 respondents. All of them

were Ukrainian employees. In order to have a good understanding of the questionnaires by the respondents they were translated into the Ukrainian language.



Fig. 1. Period of Ukrainians living in Poland
(Source: own elaboration)



Fig. 2. Period of Ukrainians working in Poland
(Source: own elaboration)

According to the answers of respondents, Poland is a long term destination for Ukrainian people. They usually come to Poland in order to work here for more than one year. Ukrainian employees working in the researched company agree with this statement.

In conclusion, it can be clearly seen from the obtained results that the majority – 31% of the surveyed Ukrainians stay in Poland for 12 – 36 months. Also 20% of them work in Poland for 6 – 12 months.

Citizens of Ukraine can rarely stay in Poland for more than a year or two due to the necessity of having a visa.

Moreover, thanks to the possibility of finding a job through an employment agency, they are usually hired directly after their arrival to Poland; this can be seen in Figure 2.

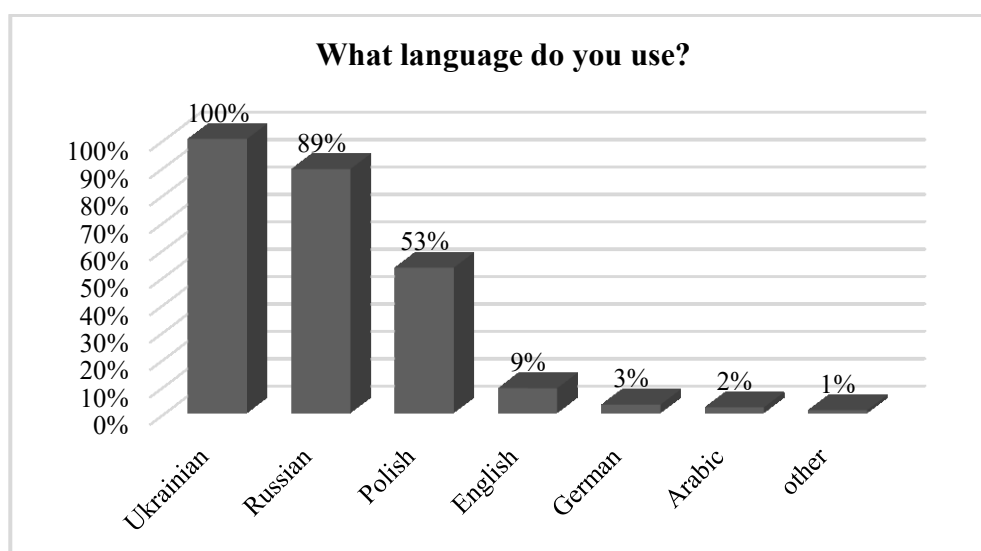


Fig. 3. Language skills of Ukrainian immigrants (Source: own elaboration)

Research shows that 89% of respondents have the best language skills in Russian. The Polish language ranks second with a score of 53%. Most Ukrainians know Russian and Polish very well because of the cultural and geographical proximity.

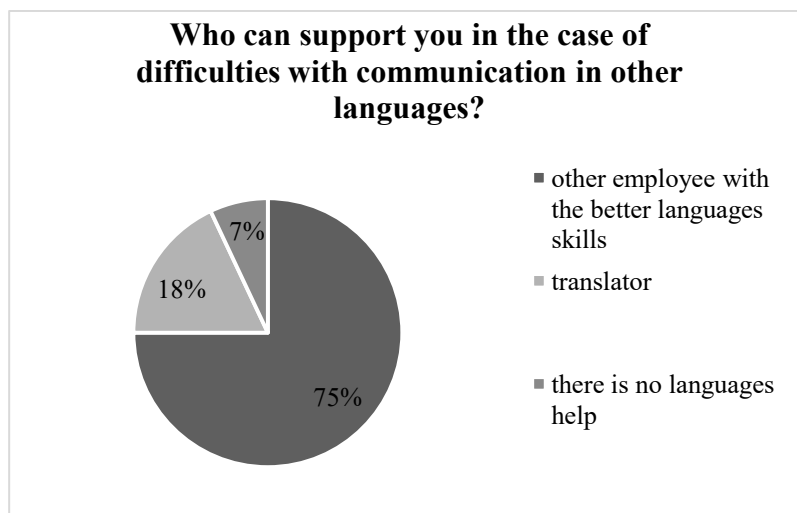


Fig. 4. Available sources of help for Ukrainians in case of difficulties with communication (Source: own elaboration)

Research shows that 75% of respondents in the case of communication difficulties reach for the help of another employee with better languages skills. Only 18% of people use the help of a translator, and in 7% of cases there can be observed a lack of any language support in the case of the difficulties with communication in another language.

The reason for these results is the fact that Ukrainian employees feel most comfortable when asking for help from their colleague. The help of a translator is not so popular because often there are not enough of them within the company.

Table 1. Summary of the surveys (Source: author's compilation)

Question	Average	Median	Dominant	dominant indicator [%]
1. Did you learn the Polish language before your arrival to Poland?	1.43	1	1	87.0%
2. Was finance the main reason of your arrival?	5.81	6	6	93.6%
3. Did you decide to come to Poland with your family?	2.61	3	3	48.1%
4. Do you have any difficulties to communicate with your bosses and leaders?	2.89	3	1	44.4%
5. Do you have any difficulties to communicate with others employees?	2.00	1	1	66.7%
6. Are there any misunderstandings during cooperation with employees from other cultures?	1.48	1	1	75.9%
7. In case you don't understand the information do you ask your leader once again?	3.07	3	1	37.0%
8. Is documentation at the worker place (instructions, parameters cards,	4.22	3	3	59.3%

control plans, forms) translated into the Ukrainian language?					
9. Company procedures and policy were translated into an easy to understand language for you.		4.63	6	6	55.6%
10. Have you been trained in terms of rules and policy of the company in the language that you understand?		2.85	1	1	63.0%
11. Are you willing to participate in some projects in order to improve some processes in your company?		1.69	1	1	79.6%
Type of answers:	1 – disagree	3 – neutral		6 – strongly agree	
0 – strongly disagree	2 – rather disagree	4 – rather agree		5 – agree	

The research shows that 87% of respondents did not learn the Polish language before their arrival to Poland.

In the analysed company a lot of people work with a lack of the Polish language skills. People who do not know the language have problems with the issue like:

- everyday communication within the factory,
- good understanding of the regulations that are applied in the company,
- good understanding of the principles and values of the company,
- good understanding of the work instructions and work station information.

According to the information gained from the Production Manager of the company, Ukrainian people who do not know the Polish language, often work in this company and sign the regulations in Polish. When people do not follow organization rules that are included in these regulations, it is difficult to blame him/ her and give penalise this employee because actually he/ she has not understood everything correctly.

Another important finding has been provided by the Training Manager. According to the rules of the researched company, after each training, there must be an assessment of the effectiveness in the form of a short manual exam and audit. It was really challenging to check the effectiveness of that training without understanding the Polish language by the Ukrainian employee. That is why one of the workers who was well-educated and with good Polish language skills was hired to work with the Training Department. From this time, Ukrainian people are trained by persons with Ukrainian as their native language.

According to the findings, the main reason for coming to Poland was their financial situation. Furthermore, a lot of Ukrainian people decided to migrate to Poland together with some members of their family. In many cases it is a sibling or a parent. Mainly the members who are too old, too young or well situated are staying in Ukraine and do not want to migrate to another country.

In accordance with the results of the research that has been carried out in the company, 25% of respondents have problems related to their communication with employees from other cultures. What is more, 36% of respondents have no difficulties in that field and 39% sometimes have some difficulties in communicating with people from other cultures.

Nonetheless, according to the information obtained from the Production Manager, immigrants try to overcome these barriers. In the case of some misunderstanding they:

- usually ask others employees for help,
- sometimes use their phones with the google translator in order to translate a difficult phrase,
- generally try to overcome a misunderstanding with the help of gesticulation.

According to the rules of the analysed company, the key documentation about their production process and organization policy should be translated into an easy to understand language for all employees. It

means that, if people from Ukraine, Italy and Spain worked in this company, the documentation would be translated into Ukrainian, Italian and Spanish. In order to make it easier, the company has decided to hire people only from one other culture – Ukraine. And in this way the company has to prepare their documentation in an easy to understand language only for Ukrainians.

On the premises there are a lot of different instructions, cards, forms, plans, dashboards with indicators and posters on the walls, only some part of that has been translated into an easy to understand language for Ukrainians. Respondents from the researched company agree with that. Around 59% of respondents answer that important documentation has been translated into Ukrainian only partially.

A well-developed system of suggestions operates in the company. The company applies an employee suggestion system based on the main assumptions of the Kaizen philosophy that was developed by Toyota. The system of employee suggestion is a very useful tool for continuous improvement of the company. All of the employees should clearly know how this system works and be able to propose their suggestions.

In the research, 79% of the respondents are not willing to participate in improvement projects in order to develop processes in the company.

After the consultations with Lean Manufacturing Manager, there is an explanation that they are willing, but they have a problem with their Polish language skills.

There are different approaches used by Ukrainians:

- one can write the suggestion in Ukrainian and will hope that some person will translate it into the Polish language;
- one can ask Polish colleagues to help him/ her with writing the suggestions;
- one can assume that is too difficult and resign from the participation in the suggestion programme.

According to the information from Lean Manufacturing Manager, the whole company is aware of the difficulties that Ukrainians are facing every day. That is why the Management Department came up with a solution to improve the employees' suggestion forms programme by translating them into their mother tongue language.

Conclusions

The research shows that the majority of respondents did not learn the Polish language before their arrival to Poland. People have to know the language because otherwise it causes problems with the issues like everyday communication within the factory, good understanding of the regulations that are applied in the company. In addition, it can prevent accidents in the future. Furthermore, understanding of the principles and values of the company and good understanding of the work instructions and work station information is necessary. However, many Ukrainian citizens came to Poland with an intention of settling down permanently.

Nowadays in Poland, there are a lot of people from abroad that are working at employee positions. To sum up, Polish people should not fight with that fact, but fully accept it. Actually, they should be glad that this situation helps most companies to develop. Moreover, the effect of synergy and culture mix would be useful for the companies with global range. Newcomers should be supported and introduced into the company and the country as well. They should be able to feel a part of the company in order to commit to work. That is the reason why the work and workstation documentation should be prepared with care for the employees from the other cultures.

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DETERMINANTS OF INDIVIDUAL CUSTOMER TRUST IN PHYSICAL BANKING: CASE OF THE BALTIC STATES

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Abstract. This research paper focuses on customer trust in physical banking. Main six determinants of trust in physical banking were distinguished on the basis of scientific literature: information provided to clients, risk perception of clients, quality and availability of bank services, bank characteristics, bank employees, and customer experience with other financial institutions. These six determinants and their relationship with customer trust in physical banking in all three Baltic States were researched. A questionnaire, correlation and regression analysis were employed as scientific methods. Research results show that the main determinant of customer trust in physical banking is information provided to customers, being followed by customer risk perception. Empirical findings also suggest that Estonian customers have the highest financial literacy level among the Baltic countries, being followed by Lithuania and Latvia respectively.

Keywords: trust in bank, the Baltic States, physical banking

JEL Classification: G21

Introduction

Nowadays one of the biggest concerns of economists and politicians in the world is sustainable economic growth. This issue is particularly important in the Baltic countries as small open emerging economies, as their whole economic systems depend on a continuous and incessant flow of financial capital. It was clearly demonstrated after the 2009-2010 financial crisis, when banks almost stopped lending money to businesses for their operational issues. It was a major factor contributing to the downfall of Estonia's GDP by 14.7%, Latvia's by 14.3% and Lithuania's by 14.8% in 2009, according to Eurostat. It is obvious that a stable financial system of a state, an integral part of which is physical banking, is considered essential for the overall stability of a country. This condition raised the question of the stability of banks, as the main component of state's financial system. A lot of researches have been accomplished on issues related to the stability of banks (Hilsher & Raviv 2014; Kohler 2015; Chiamonte *et al.* 2015) showing, that the main precondition to successful operation of banks is customer trust in it. There is a lot of scientific literature on trust-building in the banking sectors of Western Europe (Ehrmann *et al.* 2013), North America (Ladhari *et al.* 2011; Bordo *et al.* 2015), Asia (Zhao *et al.* 2010; Shainesh 2012; Akhlaq & Ahmed 2013), although there is a lack of scientific evidence of customer trust in physical banking in the Baltic States.

Therefore, it is crucial to determine factors that improve the trust-building process in physical banking as trust in physical banking increases customers' propensity to trust the whole financial system of a country.

The purpose of the research is to distinguish factors that have an impact on private customer trust in physical banking and to test their influence on trust in the Baltics.

Literature Review

In order to determine factors, which influence customer trust in banks in the Baltic States six determinants have been selected: information provided to clients, risk perception of clients, quality and availability of bank services, bank characteristics, bank employees, customer experience with

other financial institutions, which according to scientific literature are principal in customer's perceived trust in physical banking.

One of the most researched factors, determining the trust in banks is **information provided to clients** (further in the paper coded as X_1). Different authors research this factor from different aspects. Some of them focus their researches on the quality of information provided (Jemelyanova 2013), others put an emphasis on the amount of information provided (Polyakov 2012). In our opinion, it is important to provide information which reflects differences in physical banking services to allow clients to compare banking services, their credibility by his/ her own criteria of choice, as typical standard criteria for measuring bank credibility are provided by the Basel convention and EU institutions are constantly monitoring it.

Another factor, which according to some economic scholars (Maddaloni & Peydro 2011; Gertler *et al.* 2012, Acharya & Naqvi 2012), affects trusts in physical banking is **risk perception** (further in the paper coded as X_2) of their respective clients. Risk perception can be explained by Sjöberg's *et al.* (2004, 8) definition: “risk perception is the subjective assessment of the probability of a specified type of accident happening and how a person is concerned with the consequences”.

The **quality and availability of banking services** (further in the paper coded as X_3) is understood from two classical perspectives. According to the first perspective, service quality can be defined both in terms of functional quality („processual” view) and technical quality (the outcome of the services delivered). Hence, the second method defines the service quality with the help of specific characteristics of a research service. For example, Fin (2011) describes service quality in fourteen dimensions, although Zeng *et al.* (2011) identify only seven. Examining further economic literature on service quality (Thaichon *et al.* 2014; George & Kumar 2014; Bezerra & Gomes 2015) suggest that there are no fixed numbers of service quality dimensions, and each researcher chooses their own ones. In this research, five dimensions of service quality were researched: reliability, promptness, retention in the requirement of personal information, availability to choose the most suitable one, support after the delivery of service. This corresponds to the number of service quality dimensions used by Shanka (2012) researching bank service quality in Ethiopia. Ganguli and Roy (2011) research places the main responsibility on consumer trust in banks directly on the quality of banking services. Siddiqi (2011) researching Bangladesh banks and their customers has found corresponding results as Khan and Fasih (2014) in Pakistan, so the quality of banking services cannot be excluded from the research on trust in physical banking.

Bank characteristics (further in the paper coded as X_4) are understood as bank's good image, reputation. It should be noted that in this research such physical characteristics of a commercial bank as assets, revenues or profit are included in its image and reputation, as this research is made from customer's point of view, not from the viewpoint of its technical stability or resistance against external turbulences. We assume that a higher profit or revenue is reflected in a better image of a bank in customer's eyes. Bank reputation (image) has been widely discussed in scientific literature (Awan & Bukhari 2011; Gopalan *et al.* 2011; Chen *et al.* 2011; Bushman & Wittenberg-Moerman 2012; Krisnanto 2015).

Bank employees (further in the paper coded as X_5). An employee of a service provider is the main actor in providing services. Neither cutting edge technology, nor good image or huge financial resources will provide services of a high quality. It is the role of an employee, his/ her courtesy, honesty, competence. So their role in providing a high-quality service is hard to overestimate. Because of that reason, there is an enormous amount of literature dealing with employees influence on service quality (Dhar 2015), although no less academic attention is being paid to bank employees' influence on customer trust in banks: Hossain (2012), Kaur (2015).

Customer experience with other financial institutions (further in the paper coded as X_6). Customer experience is a factor, which is important not only in physical banking but in all services. Analysing customer experience from a customer's point of view, we describe it as a value that is created for the customer by the service he/she has received, the gained experience of it and the outcomes of the service received, including the benefits customers get from it. Because of its importance when researching different aspects of various services and customer satisfaction with services, customer

experience has been widely examined in scientific literature. In marketing science, Lemke *et al.* (2011) have been interested in this concept. In management science, customer experience is focal in Verleye (2015), McColl-Kennedy's *et al.* (2015) researches.

Methodology

Methods selected for the present research were statistical regression and correlation analysis. Data for analysis were obtained through a questionnaire.

In order to gather data for the research, a questionnaire method was used. The respondents were the residents of the Baltic States. The survey was conducted online, therefore there is a limitation – the results could be applied only to Internet users.

For the purpose of getting reliable research results, Likert scale was applied. Actually, the Likert scale is the most popular scale for obtaining data. While conducting the present research, the respondents were provided with the statements, which had to be assessed in a five-point Likert scale, i.e. the respondent had to indicate the degree of his/ her agreement/ disagreement with the statements. The number of respondents in the sample was calculated using formula (1).

$$n = \frac{1}{\Delta^2 + \frac{1}{N}}, \quad (1)$$

n – sample size

N – general population

Δ – margin of error.

In order to estimate the strength of the relationship between two variables, a correlation analysis was used. Correlation coefficient r_{xy} was calculated using formula (2).

$$r_{xy} = \frac{\text{Cov}(x,y)}{\sqrt{s_x^2 \cdot s_y^2}} \quad (2)$$

$\text{Cov}(x, y)$ – covariance of x and y

s_x^2 and s_y^2 – the sample variance of x and y

In order to explain the correlation coefficient, characteristics presented in Table 1 were used.

Table 1. Qualitative characteristics of the level of strength of the relationship (Source: Bartosevičienė (2010))

Quantitative characteristics of correlation coefficient	under 0,3	0,3 – 0,7	0,7 – 0,9	0,9 – 0,99
Qualitative characteristics of correlation coefficient	Weak	Moderate	strong	very strong

The current study examines one dependent variable, which is customer trust in physical banking (Y_1), and six independent variables that are as follows: information provided to the clients (X_1); risk perception (X_2); provided services (X_3); bank characteristics (X_4); bank employees (X_5), customer' experience with other financial institutions (X_6). In order to determine the level of impact of all the independent variables on the dependent variable, a multiple regression analysis was applied. The multiple regression analysis presented by formula (3) was used (Hadi & Homayoon 2017).

$$Y = b_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n b_i x_i + \varepsilon \quad (3)$$

\hat{y} – dependent variable

b_0 – constant

b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n – coefficient of independent variable

x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n – independent variable

n – number of independent variables

ε – error rate of the model

In order to describe the obtained regression model, the following criteria are used (Čekanavičius & Murauskas 2014; Cohen, Cohen, West & Aiken 2003; Pérez-Rave, Muñoz-Giraldo & Correa-Morales 2017): *coefficient of determination*, R^2 ; ANOVA p-value; Student-test; Variance inflation factor, VIF. The coefficient of determination shows which part of the whole population could be explained by the regression model. The R-squared ought to fulfil the condition $R^2 \geq 0,20$. ANOVA p-value shows if there are independent variables in the model that are linked to the dependent variable. If the p-value is lower than 0.05, there is at least one independent variable on which the dependent variable depends. Student-test shows whether the independent variable is statistically significant. If the indicator is less than 0.05, the examined independent variable is statistically significant and should be left in the model. Variance inflation factor (VIF) shows if there is multicollinearity between independent variables. If VIF is greater than 4, there is a multicollinearity problem, and the model ought to be modified by eliminating the problematic independent variables.

Results

During the analysis of consumer confidence in physical banking (Y), we have distinguished the factors that determine it:

- Information provided to customers (X_1)
- Risk perception of customers (X_2)
- Quality and availability of banking services (X_3)
- Bank characteristics (X_4)
- Bank employees (X_5)
- Customer experience with other financial institutions (X_6)

Table 2 presented below shows the correlation coefficients for each of the Baltic States together and for each State separately.

Table 2. Matrix of trust in physical banking and factors determining it (Source: authors' calculations)

		Trust	Information provided	Risk perception	Services	Bank	Bank employee	Customer experience
Trust: Lithuania	r_{xy}	1	0,462**	0,208**	0,334**	0,392**	0,314**	0,314**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000
	N	342	342	342	342	342	342	342
Trust: Latvia	r_{xy}	1	0,585**	0,374**	0,500**	0,515**	0,430**	0,471**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000

	N	351	351	351	351	351	351	351
	r_{xy}	1	0,415**	0,142**	0,335**	0,322**	0,330**	0,389**
Trust: Estonia	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000
	N	321	321	321	321	321	321	321

**Correlation is significant at the materiality level of 0.01

As it can be seen from Table 2, correlation coefficients are statistically significant, with a significance level of 0.01. Analysing the correlation coefficients, it can be noted that in all cases there is a positive linear relationship between confidence in physical banking and information provided. That is, the more transparent and better information is given to customers, the more customers trust it. The strongest link is in Latvia, where the correlation coefficient is equal to 0.585. Analysing the relationship between trust and risk perception, it can be seen that in Lithuania and Estonia this dependence is weak, and in Latvia, the correlation coefficient is 0.374. This coefficient shows that the perception of the customers of the Latvian banking services and their trust in physical banking are directly proportional dimensions and there is a moderate relationship between them. Thus, it can be concluded that a higher degree of risk perception leads to a higher degree of confidence in physical banking. Examining the relationship between trust in physical banking and banking services, we have found that there is a link between these concepts in all researched countries and it is moderate. However, the strongest connection is observed in Latvia. There is a linear moderate relationship in all cases among the service provider (bank) image, reputation, year of foundation, size of assets, etc. and trust in physical banking. However, the highest coefficient is in Latvia. Analysing the relationship between the characteristics of the banking service staff (their courtesy, honesty, competence, etc.) and trust in physical banking, there is a linear positive relationship between the factors and the correlation coefficient is moderate in all three countries. Hence, among the factors there is a moderate dependence – with the growth (improvement) of the characteristics of bank employees, the level of customer confidence in physical banking is also increasing. There is also a linear positive relationship between trust in physical banking and customer experience in all of the researched cases, which means that as long as the experience is positive, the more customers trust in physical banking. In Latvia, the relationship between these factors is the strongest (correlation coefficient is 0.471).

Below are the results of linear regression analysis. The selected confidence level is $\alpha = 0.90$. The values of the calculated indicators for all the Baltic States are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Linear regression models of trust in the three Baltic States (Source: authors' calculation)

	R^2	ANOVA	Const	X_1	X_2	X_3	X_4	X_5	X_6
Lithuania	0,261	0,000	1,990	0,298	0,056	0,038	0,190	0,019	-
Latvia	0,414	0,000	1,189	0,360	0,120	0,122	0,158	-	-
Estonia	0,206	0,000	2,257	0,289	0,290	-	-	-	0,185

It can be seen from Table 3 that the determination coefficients for all the models satisfy the condition $R^2 > 0.2$, which suggests that models can be used to describe the data. When generating a model in the case of Lithuania, one statistically insignificant variable was expressed, i.e. customer experience with other financial institutions (X_6). So, this variable has been removed from the model. In the analysis of the confidence of the population of Latvia in physical banking, the linear regression model has a coefficient of determination of 0.414, which indicates that this equation can be used to describe the data. According to the Latvian population, the professional competences of bank employees do not affect the confidence in physical banking. This may be explained by the fact that the qualification of commercial bank employees is high and does not raise doubts for the Latvian population, therefore they do not emphasize it. Thus, in constructing a model that reflects the confidence of the population

of Latvia in physical banking, two statistically insignificant variables – bank employees (X_5) and customer experience with other financial institutions (X_6) were eliminated from the model. The confidence coefficient of the linear regression model for the users of commercial banking services in Estonia is 0.206, not so high, however, the model can be used to describe the data because it satisfies the condition $R^2 > 0.2$. Analysing the data collected in Estonia, four statistically insignificant variables were distinguished: bank services (X_3), service provider (bank) characteristics (X_4), characteristics of bank staff (X_5). Unlike for customers in Lithuania and Latvia, Estonian respondents' experience with other financial institutions is an important factor in determining the level of trust in traditional banking. This can be explained by the fact that the Estonian population's financial literacy is higher than in Lithuania and Latvia, so the Estonian population understands that all financial system participants correlate with each other. Moreover, unlike in Lithuania and Latvia, the confidence of the Estonian population in traditional banking is not influenced by bank's services (X_3). The reason for this may be a high level of financial literacy among Estonian residents, so respondents understand that a large range of services does not guarantee their reliability.

Conclusions

Research results suggest that the highest financial literacy among the Baltic States is in Estonia. Latvia and Lithuania come close in their financial literacy, the latter having a slightly higher level.

The main factors influencing customer trust in physical banking according to scientific literature is information provided to clients, risk perception of clients, quality and availability of bank services, bank characteristics, bank employees, customer experience with other financial institutions.

The information provided to customers is the most important determinant of consumer trust in physical banking in the Baltic States. This finding shows the possibility of banks to manipulate with customer trust in physical banking by disseminating useful information and restricting access to potentially harmful information in the press.

Customer risk perception has a strong positive correlation with trust in physical banking. It means if a person feels more assured and willing to accept higher risk levels, the more he/she trusts in physical banking. It is not an absolutely positive thing, as excessive assurance and willingness to trust in physical banking may lead to underestimating the possibility of bank default which leads to high personal losses as it was the case with “Snoras” and “Ūkio” banks in Lithuania.

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THE SUBCULTURE OF FOOTBALL FANS AND ITS PLACE IN THE DELINQUENT SUBCULTURE

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Abstract. The paper looks at the peculiarities of the subculture of football fans and, on the basis of the analysis of the phenomenon studied and the available monographs, scientific articles, research projects etc., it has been concluded that the subculture of football fans occupies a strong place in the delinquent subculture. The elements of the above mentioned subculture described in the paper allow to formulate the concept of this phenomenon – the football fan subculture is a kind of rules for the behaviour of football fans based on the established and current norms of behaviour that mediate joint group activities, practices of illegal activities during or in connection with football matches, a specific language of communication and external attributes. The subculture of football fans occupies an independent place in the culture of society, but has an antisocial nature, since its emergence and existence are directly connected with illegal activity, which inevitably puts it on a par with other objects that require in-depth study and analysis.

Keywords: football fans; delinquent subculture; antisocial behaviour; violence.

JEL Classification: K420

Introduction

It is known that the culture prevailing in society does not have a universal character for all its members, as a result of which groups of people are emerging, trying to create their own alternative culture which differs from the official culture or even denies it. This is the circumstance which caused the emergence of the concept of subculture. From the criminological point of view, subcultures are structural and functional formations that distinguish persons belonging to them from other members of society showing a sense of community (Glick 2005).

One of the first scientists who studied the phenomenon of subculture was American sociologist A. K. Cohen. In his view, the criminal subculture is in contradiction with the values prevailing in society, and a person, getting into a criminal group, perceiving its subculture, as if gets free of other social prohibitions, moreover, his/ her violation is often one of the norms of criminal subculture (Cohen 1955).

According to the theories of subcultures, members of a group always have a stable system of values that differs from the system of values existing in society. Upon getting into such group, the person develops in many respects in accordance with the rules and norms of the surrounding people, not perceiving the individual values of culture as a whole. In such situation, the individual inevitably seeks for relationships with ones like him/ her, determines the moral incentives of his/ her activity, relying on the protection of the group. This is how juvenile offenders, drug addicts, prostitutes, vagabonds, and beggars come together.

The study of this phenomenon shows that a subculture is formed as a result of integration of people whose views, activities and lifestyle are opposed (do not correspond) to the ones prevailing in society or proclaimed and accepted by them. Here we can talk about the complex interweaving of socio-economic preconditions for the formation of subcultures (social dissimilarity, inequality, injustice, “social disorder” of individuals) and socio-psychological factors of the formation of subcultural communities (people’s need for unification, psychological protection, the need to be “understood”, self-realized among ones like them etc.). And if culture is perceived as a specific human way of life, providing social inheritance, and a lifestyle as relatively stable, typical for a particular society (group, class) form or way of life, then the communities with the predominance of values, norms, patterns of

behaviour different from those dominant in society (“universally accepted”), form value-normative subcultures (bohemian, narcotic, religious-cult, criminal, etc.) (Гилинский 2002).

The criminal subculture is understood as the totality of spiritual and material values regulating and ordering the life and criminal activity of criminal communities, which contributes to their vitality, cohesion, criminal activeness and mobility, continuity of generations of offenders (Bordua 1961). The criminal subculture, like any subculture, is inherently aggressive. It invades official culture, hacking it, devaluing its values and norms, implanting its rules and attributes.

The basis of any subculture is alien to civil society values, norms, traditions, various rituals united in groups of people. In them, age and other social group characteristics of individuals are reflected in a distorted and degenerated form. Its social harm lies in the fact that it socializes a personality in an ugly manner, stimulates the transfer of age opposition into a criminal one, that is why it is a mechanism of “reproduction” of criminality, and especially in the youth environment.

The research aim: to formulate the concept of the “football fans subculture” phenomenon.

The research hypothesis: the subculture of football fans occupies a strong place in the delinquent subculture.

Research methods: in order to confirm the hypothesis and to draw a conclusion, the author used the following methods of theoretical research: method of description in order to describe the state of affairs as it exists at present; induction and deduction.

The research results: on the basis of the analysis of the phenomenon studied and the available monographs, scientific articles, research projects etc., it has been concluded that the subculture of football fans occupies a strong place in the delinquent subculture. The elements of the above mentioned subculture described in the paper allow to formulate the concept of this phenomenon – the football fan subculture is a kind of rules for the behaviour of football fans based on established and current norms of behaviour that mediate joint group activities, practices of illegal activities during or in connection with football matches, a specific language of communication and external attributes. The subculture of football fans occupies an independent place in the culture of society, but has an antisocial nature, since its emergence and existence are directly connected with illegal activity, which inevitably puts it on a par with other objects that require in-depth study and analysis.

Literature Review

In recent years, football fanaticism in the world has developed quite rapidly, and there have been many different changes with it. Nevertheless, for unknown reasons, that object has not caused serious scientific interest among Latvian sociologists and criminologists, although in Europe this phenomenon has been studied for a long time. This can be explained by the fact that in European countries the fanning movement has occupied a much larger scale, involved much larger resources and caused more problems. However, it is wiser to learn from other people’s mistakes, in order not to commit them oneself. Therefore, it would be logical to show an interest in this social phenomenon before it begins to bring serious problems to society.

It is quite possible and even necessary to study a social phenomenon, which can be called football fanaticism, from different perspectives. It is advisable to consider football fans from at least three positions: as a social movement, as a social group and as carriers of a specific subculture. The term “fan-movement” will be used in 2 senses. Firstly, when referring to the social movement supporting any particular football club, and secondly, when referring to a national fan-movement that unites all the fans, regardless of a club they support and in what relations they are with fans of other clubs. When studying football fanaticism, it is also necessary to clarify the question of who should be considered a football fan, and who simply a supporter (Sloan 1989). This question is very controversial and has not been finally clarified even by the fans themselves (Giulianotti 2002). Nevertheless, there are several criteria for classifying a supporter as a fan (Trail *et al.* 2003). Firstly, an active visit to the home team matches. Secondly, the annual commission of several trips to other

cities. Thirdly, knowledge and acceptance of the football fan subculture. On the basis of these criteria, there is a division between fans and ordinary supporters.

Each fan-movement consists of a certain number of formed groups (hereinafter: fan-group or fan-groupings) and a significant number of unorganized fans (Bjelajac 2005). Fan-groups, as a rule, consist of 15-30 people who perform a certain set of roles and are subject to certain norms. The overwhelming majority of groups have a so-called “charter” (Leeson, Smith & Snow 2012), in which the duties of a member of a fan-group are determined, in case of non-compliance, he/she can be subject to appropriate measures of influence (he/ she can be publicly beaten, distrust can be expressed and excluded from the group, “fined”). However, for most of informal fan-groups these requirements are not too harsh, and even if a fan violates these rules, but is in good relations with the rest of the fan group, sanctions against him/ her are unlikely to be applied.

Unorganized fans are in no groupings within the movement, but, nevertheless, are covered by social networks, participate in a significant part of collective actions and, thus, do not fall out of the movement (Bjelajac 2005). The foregoing allows to say that the central component of the formation of a fan-movement, as an environment, within which a specific subculture is reproduced, is the corresponding requirements for the fans and the options for the behaviour of members of the fan-movement (example: attending home games and traveling with the team to other cities, specific behaviour in stadiums and the use of special symbols, etc.).

At the moment, it can be stated that there are no independent national football fan subcultures, although there is some specificity, some practices different from those of fans from other countries, slang variants. But all this can be attributed to the variances of different people’s in their temperament, cultural traditions, etc. Nevertheless, the essential, fundamental difference between different national-fan subcultures should not be discussed in this paper. Due to the wide coverage of football by television and press, as well as through the constant contacts of fan groups from different countries, a worldwide fan subculture has been created. Latvia practically did not participate in the process of creating that subculture. Fan-movement in Latvia arose at a time when the worldwide fan subculture already existed (Особенности латвийского фан – движения, 2010). In addition, it could be said that it was the fact of the existence of such a subculture that gave birth to a fan-movement in Latvia. It arose in order to reproduce that culture. Moreover, it should be noted that the question about criminal behaviour of visiting fan groups in the territory of Latvia is more topical, rather than the behaviour of local fans.

The fan subculture is fundamentally opposed to the general culture of society, as it is aimed at creating its own lifestyle (Boyle & Haynes 2000; Giulianotti 2002; King 1997; Nash 2000; Quick 2000). Moreover, it is controversial. Very often conflicts arise spontaneously or on the initiative of some members of informal fan groupings. In most cases, the full potential of the conflict (often of a violent nature) splashes inside the subculture, with other fan-movements, admirers of other teams, law enforcement officers during the match.

As in any variety of subculture in the football fan subculture, a number of its constituent elements that carry very significant criminological information are accented. When considering its typological features, it is possible to find such characteristic features as ignoring the rights of the individual, expressed in an aggressive, cruel and cynical attitude towards the “alien”, weak, the presence of a number of attributes strictly regimented in the group’s consciousness, the lack of compassion for people, the depreciation of human work, expressed in vandalism, etc. (Czop & Juszczak 2017).

Methodology

In order to confirm the hypothesis and to draw a conclusion, the author used the following methods of theoretical research: method of description, in order to describe the state of affairs as it exists at present; induction and deduction.

Results

One of the behavioural attributes of the subculture under consideration is the unwritten code of conducting fan wars. According to this “law” members of a football fan group must adhere to a number of rules. Firstly, ordinary supporters should not be drawn into fights, but only “hooligans” or members of fan groups should fight. Ordinary supporters of teams should not be subjected to any discrimination, in particular, fans should not try to take away their club attributes. Secondly, during the fights it is forbidden to use any piercing or cutting objects. Fans should adjust their relationship by the fists, without using any means at hand: sticks, knuckles, etc. Thirdly, any cooperation with law enforcement agencies is forbidden, it is forbidden to be a “stool pigeon”. In case of non-compliance with such a “norm” (for example, a detained fan gives out participants in the riots), the person is not only immediately excluded from the fan-grouping but is also liable for bringing “disgrace” on the whole grouping.

Of course, in practice, these rules are not respected. No difference is made between ordinary supporters and fans. In collisions and fighting between fan groupings, an “improved” principle works: “Once you wear paraphernalia, be ready to bear responsibility for it”. As for group fighting and brawls between hostile fanatics, then, based on the author’s own observations, it could be concluded that fights only by fists practically do not happen. At least fans are armed with belts with metal plates or bottles, and periodically the metal armature, stones, sticks, etc. “float up” in fighting. Therefore, fighting ends up with rather heavy injuries, not excluding deaths.

Only the rule that prohibits contact with the police operates more or less accurately. Data on the contacts of fans with the police are extremely rare and are exceptions. This is due to the fact that the leaders of informal fan groups and supporters of criminal subcultures initially instil in their members that the grouping is the only guarantee of their personal security, and they should treat law enforcement officers with distrust.

If we turn to the experience of foreign football fanaticism, then for European societies this is one of the most serious problems associated with football fans. Mass battles, which are caused by fans of various clubs and teams, end in dozens of wounded, smashed shops and even killed people. In the history of the Latvian football, there are not so many precedents of physical violence, but deliberate harm to other people’s property is inflicted regularly.

It is interesting that usually fan wars, in general, around the world occur in three types of cases. Firstly, between fans of the teams located in the same city. For example, there are known tensions between the fans of the Italian teams “Inter” and “Milan”, “Roma” and “Lazio”, Spanish “Real” and “Atletico”, etc. This fact is quite easy to explain by the struggle for several “resources”, as well as by the frequency and number of affrays between the fans of these teams among themselves. When teams are based in different cities, their fans only collide 2 to 3 times a year, and if in one – then much more often. Because of this, small hassles can gradually develop into a stable mutual dislike.

Secondly, traditional rival cities. Almost in every country there are cities or regions whose relations are either historically complex or these cities are competitors in any area of public relations. One of the best-known examples is the relations between Madrid and Barcelona, or Madrid and Bilbao (informal capital of the Basques). Complicated relations of this kind are, voluntarily or unwittingly, projected onto the relations of the football teams and their fans, turning the teams into principal rivals, and their fans – into enemies.

Currently, almost every fan-grouping has appropriate symbolism, which are often the emblems of the clubs represented by them. Currently, a worldwide production of football attributes is “on stream”, so you can meet a wide variety of symbols and attributes. Therefore, it makes sense to build some types of these various attributes. At the base of the first type, we can put the affiliation of symbolism to the club. In this case, from the point of view of a particular fan, the symbols and attributes shall be divided into four large groups:

1. the symbols of their own team;
2. the symbols of friendly fan-movements;

3. the symbols of hostile fan-movements;
4. the symbols of fan movements, which the fans of this team do not have any relationship with.

Thus, different types of symbols are associated with different emotions: from friendly to hostile. Therefore, with this type of typification there is a number of rules that determine the behaviour of a fan, for example, how he/ she treats the fans with the symbols and attributes of other teams.

Also, the different attributes of one and the same team have different meanings. Here we can distinguish three main groups:

1. attributes of “hooligans”;
2. attributes of fan groups;
3. common fan attributes.

The first two categories are distinguished by the fact that they are not on open sale, and all the attributes are made to order. In addition, as a rule, they are numerical symbols, which formally should strengthen their individuality. According to unwritten rules or the “charter” of fans, they can raise their prestige and authority in the group in case of seizure (catch) of the attributes of hostile groups during fighting. Commercial attributes are on open sale, but they also have a different “rating”. Since there are quite a lot of various attributes on sale and they change periodically, the most prestigious attributes are those which were on sale earlier (it is desirable that its sale is currently terminated). The attributes of a developed fan-movement are quite diverse and it is very difficult to come up with something new. Club scarves, T-shirts, caps, hats, dozens of badges, flags, etc. features.

The next element of the football fan subculture is slang, which is a real fan language, which has not yet been fully formed and is in the making. At the heart of the fan slang there are the following components: specific words of the fan language; fan occasionalism; general words used in a special meaning or in a special situation; words of the standard language, understandable without context, but requiring an additional, in fact encyclopaedic interpretation of the designated realities; stable phrases (phraseological units), the most common graffiti, etc.

Mass culture is saturated with a criminal subculture – the psychology of nation is criminalized on a subconscious level through language. Slang not only of football fans, but also of politicians, showmen, TV presenters abounds with expressions of the criminal world.

According to some authors (Mattiello 2008), the vocabulary of systemic slang most often includes not only Anglicism (words oversaturated in English), but also words taken from the vocabulary of vulgar, understated colloquial style through various word-formation methods (word abbreviation, word transitions from one stylistic category to another, development of figurative and emotionally-amplifying meanings of certain words.

It is difficult to underestimate the criminological significance of the fan slang as an attribute of the football fan subculture. The danger of penetration of a special spoken dialect into the environment of fans is not a fictional exaggeration. An important criminological feature of the fan slang is its influence on perception. It is clear that the lifestyle and attributes form slang, and the formed slang dictates the lifestyle and attitudes.

Ignorance of the terminology of football fans will not allow an uninitiated person to participate in a conversation with the fans adequately, because, firstly, the vocabulary is rather extensive, and secondly, many words and phrases carry an additional semantic load, and thirdly, it is necessary to know not only the slang, but also be aware of events happening in the fan-movement. Knowledge of the fan slang greatly facilitates the work of law enforcement officers in carrying out the operational and preventive tasks assigned to them.

Some influence on the formation of the fan slang in Eastern Europe was provided by English, beginning with “hooligan” and ending with the English names of many fan groups. The main purpose of the appearance of the fan slang, on the one hand, is obvious – to underline and especially highlight the fan-movement among the rest of the world, to establish the criterion of division into “one’s own” and “strangers”. So, for example, in Russia an ordinary fan is called “*kuzmich*” (casual fan), while football fanatics call themselves more powerfully “*ultras*”.

Other indispensable attributes of subculture are sobriquets and nicknames. Personal observations, as well as content analysis of various sources show that almost every second member of informal criminogenic fan unions has one or another nickname. Nicknames cannot be regarded as an innocuous phenomenon. They are an indispensable attribute of an antisocial substructure in which the characteristics of relationships among offenders are manifested (Bierbach & Birken-Silverman 2007; Rymes 1996). Among the fans, nicknames perform not so much the function of social branding or humiliation of an individual, as the means of his/ her evaluation or a reduced reflection of merits of its bearer or features of his/ her appearance. For “leaders” and “authorities” the nicknames, as a rule, are euphonious (“Dragon”, “Professor”), but for those who stand at lower levels of the group hierarchy are less euphonious (“Nut”, “Coffin”), but for the rest – might be even offensive. Consequently, the nicknames of fans – offenders reflect the characteristics of their personality, refracted in the group consciousness.

Most often there are nicknames that reflect the appearance of a person, his/ her physical or psychological characteristics and behaviour, the characteristics of antisocial activity, abbreviated and changed surnames and names. Characteristically, the following aspects are reflected in the nicknames:

1. Physical handicap (“Squint”, “Hunchback”);
2. Negative qualities of personality and behaviour (“Pimple”, “Bacillus”, “Dogman”, “Ferret”, “Screw”, “Monster”);
3. Cacophony of last name and first name;
4. An ironic underlining of the qualities of personality opposite in meaning (for a sad face – “Merry”; for a tall body – “Boy”, for the stupid and beef-witted – “Intellectual”, for a very “sugary” nature – “Syrup”);
5. Features of antisocial activity (showing excessive aggression – “Shark”, making frequent trips — “Robinson”);
6. Socio-regional origin (“Chechen”, “Latvian”, “Khokhol”);
7. Position of the individual in the group hierarchy (“Leader”, “King”, “Baron”, “Screw”).

Conclusions

Upon considering the peculiarities of the football fan subculture, one can say that behind its outwardly “harmless” essence, there is a very countercultural character, since the very fact of belonging to a fan-grouping already expresses protest and justifies the activity directed against officially established norms and values in society, which is often illegal and of criminally punishable nature. In this case, the appeal of the football fan subculture is as follows:

- a wide field of activity and opportunities for self-actualization and compensation for failures;
- the very process of criminal activity, which includes risk and extreme situations, and impressed by false romance;
- removal of all moral and ethical prohibitions;
- no prohibitions on any information;
- basing on the flaws of the sense of justice, especially for young people, among which one can distinguish legal ignorance and misinformation, social & legal infantilism, lack of legal culture, social & legal negativism and cynicism.

Thus, on the basis of the analysis of the phenomenon under examination and the available literature on this subject, it can be said that the football fan subculture occupies a strong place in the criminal subculture, while possessing criminological meaning, and contributes to its mass reproduction among football lovers. The elements of this type of subculture described above allow to formulate the concept of this phenomenon. The football fan subculture is a kind of rules for the behaviour of football fans based on the established and current standards of conduct that mediate joint unlawful activities of a

group during football matches or in connection with them, a specific language of communication (“fan” slang) and external attributes.

The football fan subculture occupies an independent place in the culture of society, but has an antisocial essence, since its emergence and existence are directly connected with illegal activity, which inevitably puts it on a par with other objects that require in-depth study and analysis.

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THE IMPORTANCE OF GRAMMAR FOR TRANSLATOR TRAINING

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Abstract. For the translation to be reliable and fluent, of vital importance are the knowledge of, and the facility with, the grammar patterns of the source and target languages. The aim of the paper is to discuss the aspects of rendering the linguistic meaning while translating from Lithuanian into English and vice versa and the importance of the systematic approach towards developing the linguistic awareness of would-be translators. The library research method was used to discuss the meanings of the word and the comparative/contrastive method was used to highlight the differences of the usage of some grammatical categories in the English and Lithuanian languages. The contrastive analysis revealed the differences in the grammatical structures of the Lithuanian and English languages that cause some change in the information content of the message during the process of translation. Thus, the would-be translators should be taught not only the lexical-semantic systems but also the grammatical ones. Although it is possible to study grammar by taking bite-sized chunks and trying to accumulate a complete picture of the system, it is much more efficient to study it as a system. Grammar teaching involves not just studying the grammatical structures but also the meanings they express, and the contexts in which they may be used. The essence of such a proposal is that grammatical structures are not isolated from their meanings or their uses. The research is supposed to be relevant to both the lecturers training translators and the students determined to learn translation strategies.

Keywords: linguistic meaning, grammatical categories, translation process

Introduction

Teaching foreign languages and training translators involve teaching language systems and developing language skills.

The sentence *Give me the book* can be analysed from different angles. It is possible to analyse the meaning of words (lexis), the interrelation between words (grammar), the melody (phonology) and the usage in a particular situation (function). Thus, the four language systems distinguished by linguists are lexis, grammar, phonology, and function.

It is generally admitted that skills of language use include listening, speaking, reading and writing. Listening and reading are supposed to be receptive, as the learner receives information and does not produce it. Speaking and writing are productive skills as they are vital in the process of conveying information in a fluent and coherent way.

While studying languages, traditionally the heaviest stress was laid on grammar, reading and writing. Nowadays, a tendency prevails to teach and learn all the systems and develop all the skills gradually, especially listening and speaking skills as they are said to be more necessary in real surroundings than those of reading and writing. However, this proves to be a controversial truth that stands well while speaking about one's native language only. Learners of foreign languages have huge possibilities for developing their listening skills; however, their speaking skills are more often being developed in artificial semi-authentic situations during the lesson than in real environments.

While learning and teaching lexis, one of the most effective strategies is emphasising the lexical collocations which enable to fluently express ideas without any grammar rules. However, in most situations communication is possible only when both the speaker and the listener know the meaning of the words used, the form they are used in and the syntactic bonds they are connected by. It is especially relevant for translators. They have to comprehend language structures, not just memorise them like lexical units. Even though it is generally admitted that the translation should be done into the mother tongue, the business world nowadays needs people who can translate both ways. It is especially obvious while interpreting.

In fact, grammar is the sphere that foreign language learners want and expect to understand. They feel that even though a grammatically incorrect sentence might help to fulfil the communicative function, it will tell a lot about the speaker and his or her intelligence.

Thus lately, a good deal has been written about grammar revival. Grammar proves to be the system which still plays an important role in all textbooks. If grammar ever went away, it was only very brief and not very far.

As the mission of Kauno kolegija / University of Applied Science is to conduct qualitative studies of higher education oriented towards practical performance as well as the needs of the learner and the society, the linguistic competence is very important to the students who will translate texts from one language into another or work in international environments.

The aim of the paper is to discuss the aspects of rendering the linguistic meaning while translating from Lithuanian into English and vice versa and the importance of the systematic approach towards developing the linguistic awareness of the would-be translators.

The objectives include reviewing the meanings of the word highlighting its grammatical / linguistic meaning; defining the notion of the functional sentence perspective, which helps to comprehend the *deep structure* and the *surface structure* of the sentence; discussing the approaches to teaching and learning grammar; and providing the examples of the change in the information content of the message during the process of translation.

The library research method was used to discuss the strategies of rendering the linguistic meaning while translating, and the comparative/contrastive method was used to highlight the differences of the usage of some grammatical categories in the English and Lithuanian languages.

The library research revealed that lexical resources are not the only factor which influences the way in which the experience is reported. Another powerful factor is the grammatical system of the language. Thus, the would-be translators should be taught not only the lexical - semantical systems but also the grammatical ones.

The contrastive analysis, that is comparing languages side-by-side with the intent of discovering the relationship between them, revealed the differences in the grammatical structures of the source and target languages that cause some change in the information content of the message during the process of translation.

Literature Review

Baker (2011) states that translators are primarily concerned with communicating the overall meaning of a stretch of language. To achieve this, it is necessary to start by decoding the units and structures which carry that meaning. The scholar insists that the smallest unit which should be expected to possess an individual meaning is the word. However, she admits that the meaning can be carried by units smaller than the word, and this is where grammar gets to be involved. In order to isolate the elements of meaning in words, the term *morpheme* was introduced to describe the minimal formal element of meaning in a language. The ability to divide the word *inconceivable* into morphemes and the knowledge of their meaning is a must to a translator.

According to Cruse (1986), four main types of the meaning in words and lexical units can be distinguished: the *propositional meaning*, the *expressive meaning*, the *presupposed meaning* and the *evoked meaning*.

The propositional meaning arises from the relation between the word or lexical unit and what it refers to or describes in a real or imaginary world as conceived by the users of the particular language it belongs to. *A shirt* is not a *skirt*; thus when a translation is described as inaccurate, it is often the propositional meaning that is being called into question. The expressive meaning relates to the feelings or attitude of the whole nation of language users rather than to what words and lexical units refer to. *Out of the blue* and *unexpectedly* mean the same. However, they differ in expressiveness. This is true not only of lexical units within the same language but also for those from different languages. The

presupposed meaning arises from co-occurrence restrictions, which are of two types. The selectional restrictions are related to the propositional meaning of a word. A human is expected for the adjective *clever*, but an inanimate subject follows *intrinsic*. The collocational restrictions are semantically arbitrary restrictions which do not follow from the propositional meaning of a word. The English *wash their hair*, and the Lithuanians *wash their heads*. The difference between the selectional and collocational restrictions is not always clear-cut, which causes problems for translators. The evoked meaning arises from dialect and register variations as different groups within each culture have different expectations about what kind of language is appropriate to particular situations.

The distinctions drawn above are useful for the translator since one of the challenges faced is to perceive the meanings of lexical units very precisely in order to render them into another language.

The Lithuanian translation theorist Pažūsis (2014) distinguishes three main types of the meaning in the words and linguistic units: the *denotative* meaning, the *pragmatic* meaning and the *linguistic* meaning.

Pažūsis (2014) defines the denotative meaning in the way Cruse (1986) defines the propositional meaning. The Lithuanian scholar calls the relation between the lexical unit and what it refers to or describes in a real or imaginary world the denotative meaning. Even though the denotative meaning is an important feature of a lexical unit, it does not cover all of its relations. According to Pažūsis (2014), the pragmatic meaning relates to the feelings or attitude of the whole nation of language users rather than to what words and lexical units refer to, which corresponds to Cruse's (1986) definition of the expressive meaning. However, Pažūsis (2014) notes that any lexical unit does not function in isolation from other words but together with them forms a certain system. Each member of the same system is bound by complex multidisciplinary relationships. The relations of a lexical unit with other words of the same system can be called intrasemiotic. Accordingly, the third type of meaning can be defined as the linguistic meaning of a word or lexical unit.

It should be noted that there are words that have no denotative meaning at all, for instance, the English auxiliary verbs. Obviously, not all lexical units have the pragmatic meaning. However, each lexical unit has the linguistic meaning as it belongs to the language system, thus, it has to be related to other words. The linguistic meaning is usually not preserved in the process of translation as each language is a distinct system, the elements of which are related in the way that is characteristic to that particular language. Therefore, the linguistic meanings typical of the source language units are usually replaced by the linguistic meanings inherent in the target language units.

Baker (2011) also admits that lexical resources are not the only factor which influences the way in which the experience is reported. Another powerful factor is the grammatical system of the language. Differences in the grammatical structures of the source and target languages often result in some change in the information content of the message during the process of translation.

Some linguists have initiated the hypothesis that all sentences have a surface structure and a deep structure. By applying the notions of *deep structure* and *surface structure*, the fact that the crucial contrast area is the one that lies between the deepest structure and the most surface one becomes evident. The differences between languages can be observed at any level that lies between the deep structure and the surface structure. In this way, it is possible to qualify the similarities and differences between languages.

A Czech linguist and a prominent representative of the Prague School of linguistics Firbas (1992) emphasizes the three-level approach to syntax, which includes the semantic level, the grammatical level and the level of contextual organization. The scholar introduces the notion of communicative dynamism, which is based on the fact that the linguistic communication is not static, but a dynamic phenomenon. Inspired by the work of Mathesius, Firbas developed a theory of Information Structure and is credited with the first use of the term Functional Sentence Perspective (FSP). The main premise in the FSP theory is that the communicative goals of an interaction cause the structure of a clause or sentence to function in different kinds of perspective. Though it is rather complex, it is important for translators to become familiar with at least its major models.

The essence of the conception is that every act of communication is structured in two different ways: the grammatical pattern of the sentence, and the information-bearing structure of the utterance. In

English, the theme (what is known) - rheme (what is new) sequence is the normal, unmarked word order while the rheme - theme sequence is the marked word order. Communicative Dynamism is viewed as a process of gradually unfolding meaning, each part of the utterance contributing dynamically to the total communicative effect.

Functional sentence perspective is defined as the organization of a sentence in terms of the role of its elements distinguishing between the old and new information, especially the division of a sentence into theme and rheme. However, learners tend to be confused about what is new and what is known in the sentence, which causes additional problems while translating. A good idea is to advise them to analyse the sentence trying to split the information according to the logic *who did what where when* and *how*. That will be a formal sentence perspective which will lead to putting the sentence into a wider context and engaging into relevant information (Kaminskienė & Maskaliūnienė 2013).

It would strain credulity that someone would feel confident enough to say that they know everything about the English language. Similarly, there are few people in the world who know nothing about it. Even those who have never studied English have probably picked up a number of ‘international English’ expressions and words such as *exit*, *duty-free*, *no smoking*, etc.

Harmer (1991) argues that knowledge of grammar is essential for competent users of a language. However, there is a consensus about what grammar should be taught at what level. There may be variations in the actual order of grammatical items taught.

Scrivener (1994) distinguishes two rather different approaches to teaching grammar.

1. Divide the whole of the English language up into manageable bite-sized chunks, and then introduce these to students, one chunk per lesson, so that they gradually and systematically accumulate a complete picture of the language.

This approach needs a methodology that finds ways to ‘present’ small pieces of language that have previously been selected by a teacher or author of a certain textbook to exemplify particular structures. This is called PPP (presentation, practice, production) method.

2. Create an environment where a lot of language, known and unknown, is met and where the students are helped with new language only when they already have some awareness of it and have curiosity or questions about it.

This second approach needs a methodology that does not select and ‘give’ students language but instead exposes them to a wide range of authentic language and utilizes own intelligence, experience and knowledge to analyse, learn from, experiment with, and improve their own corpus of language whenever they are ready to do so.

The aim of teaching grammar should be to ensure that students are communicatively efficient with the grammar they have at their level. The teachers should be prepared to use a variety of techniques to help their students learn and acquire grammar. Sometimes this involves teaching grammar rules; sometimes it means allowing students to discover the rules for themselves.

Thus, as a challenge comes an innovative approach.

Give students a chance to be exposed to, or to attempt to use, language ‘above’ their apparent level of knowledge of grammar. A systematic approach is extremely useful and greatly aids future work on grammar. This approach celebrates what students can do – and clarifies precisely what still needs to be worked on.

However, a challenge does bring problems. Textbooks used in Lithuania to teach English in schools of general education and colleges do not present grammar as a system, and it is too complicated for learners to comprehend language as a system. Furthermore, quite a few teachers feel that while dealing with separate segments of English grammar, its knowledge as a system becomes limited.

It is generally admitted that the best strategy to learn something is to try teaching it. The more teachers are interested in grammar, the safer they feel during the lesson.

With the ambition of developing their professional competence and encouraging others to do the same, three teachers of English of our institution compiled *English Grammar Guide* (Bernadišienė *et al.* 2011). The target groups of this textbook are Lithuanian learners of the English language at A2 - C1 levels, and their teachers.

The main ideas of this book were used to highlight the differences in the usage of some grammatical categories in the English and Lithuanian languages.

Methodology

The library research revealed that lexical resources are not the only factor which influences the way in which the experience is reported. Another powerful factor is the grammatical system of the language. Thus, the would-be translators should be taught not only the lexical - semantic systems but also the grammatical ones.

The contrastive analysis, that is comparing languages side-by-side with the intent of discovering the relationship between them, reveals the differences in the grammatical structures of the source and target languages that cause some change in the information content of the message during the process of translation.

The main ideas of *English Grammar Guide* (Bernadišienė *et al.* 2011) and *Vertimas raštu: teorija ir praktika* (Navickienė 2016) were used to highlight the differences in the usage of some grammatical categories in the English and Lithuanian languages.

Results

Even though it is generally admitted that the translation should be done into the mother tongue, the business world nowadays needs people who can translate both ways. It is especially relevant while interpreting.

Most school leavers are supposed to have at least half-mastered English grammar. However, the question arises why people studying at colleges find it difficult to form a correct sentence, especially a question. One of the reasons might be different language systems. Lithuanian is a synthetic language, where grammatical relations between words are expressed by means of inflexions; English is an analytical language, where grammatical relations between words are expressed by means of form words and strict word order.

The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English defines grammar as “the rules by which words change their forms and are combined into sentences, or the study or use of these rules”. There are two basic elements in this definition: the rules of grammar and the study and practice of the rules.

The rules of grammar, as the dictionary suggests, are about how words change and how they are put together into sentences. However, the rules have no value if they are not properly applied in the language used in a particular situation, where lots of exceptions occur.

How do you do

The first issue to be discussed is the usage of the English verbs *be*, *do* and *have*. Simple as they may seem, these verbs cause a lot of trouble even at more advanced levels of learning English as they may be notional, auxiliary, and modal. It is important for English language learners, especially would-be translators, to see the difference between *I am to do it* and *I have to do it* or *I have a bath* and *I am having a bath*. Most students know the structure *There is a boy in the room* and often use it, but they do not understand why the sentence *There is Victor in the room* is incorrect.

Native speakers of Lithuanian very often misuse verbs *daryti* and *veikti*, and instead of asking *Ką veiki?* say *Ką darai?* The same mistake is frequent in English, where speakers misuse *do* and *make*, the usage of which differs. Furthermore, the English *How do you do* does not have any connection neither with *doing* nor with *making*.

I don't want to be unhappy

The structure of English and Lithuanian sentences differs. It is a must for an English sentence to have a subject and a verb; whereas Lithuanian is rich in impersonal sentences which have no subject at all, as in *It is cold.* ~ *Šalta.* In Lithuanian, for stylistic purposes, the subject very often should even be omitted as the agent is usually defined by the ending of the verb *I am going home.* ~ *Einu namo.* The constant repetition of pronouns in the translations into Lithuanian is a careless error frequently made even by experienced translators.

The widely spread proposition that an English sentence cannot have two negatives also appears to be false, as *I don't want to be unhappy* is both logical and grammatically correct. Moreover, it is emphatic, which makes the translator recall the strategy of antonymous translation and avoid word-for-word translation. Students have the right to know that there are no absolute truths in grammar. However, they should also know that there is no need to invent rules of their own.

One of the challenges is teaching to form correct questions. Even if students learn to form direct questions, the problems come back when indirect questions appear. English auxiliary verbs, word order, and intonation – everything seems to be different for a Lithuanian learner of English. Even exclamatory sentences differ. They contain *please* much more often than the Lithuanian ones do.

Perhaps TV made the have-nots want the things the haves had, even if it meant stealing them

One might be shocked to find a sentence with *the haves had*. However, the English nouns have a tendency to be derived from nearly any word without any obvious change, and they happen to be capitalised more often than the Lithuanian ones. Most nouns in both languages have the category of number, but in a lot of cases, the forms differ (*customs* ~ *muitinė*). Compounds also differ (*do-gooder* ~ *geradarys*) as well as the system of cases (*the roof of the house* ~ *namo stogas*).

The category of gender also appears to be problematic.

In their course book *Colloquial Lithuanian*, Ramoniene and Press (2004) state that the category of gender is ambivalent. One can speak about the real gender, i.e. sex (male and female), and grammatical category (feminine and masculine). Thus, both English and Lithuanian have *sister* ~ *brother*, *sesuo* ~ *brolis*, which denote sex, not gender. However, in Lithuanian, there are nouns that denote gender (*spinta*, *stalas*) and are substituted by pronouns *ji* (*she*) and *jis* (*he*), whereas in English such nouns are deprived of the category of gender and are substituted by the impersonal and genderless *it*.

Palmer (1991) also supports the idea that English has no gender. Such pairs of words as *uncle/aunt*, *brother/sister* are a lexical feature, not a grammatical one, so they should be related to sex, not gender. We ought to talk of these in terms of ‘male’ and ‘female’, not ‘masculine’ and ‘feminine’. The suffix *-ess* is also a lexical feature as it is not regular morphologically. The choice of the pronoun is entirely a matter of sex; *he* refers to a male, *she* to a female, and *it* to sexless objects or animals even when their sex is known. Again, there are exceptions: *ship*, *car*, *boat*, *engine*, *plane* and *hovercraft* might be replaced by the pronoun *she*. Where there is co-reference with reflexives, the choice of one also depends on a judgement about sex, e.g. *The dog bit himself/herself/itself*.

Such an approach might be too complicated for students, but teachers might find it interesting.

We were about to start

Before summing up the usage of tense forms, it is advisable to go through the classification of verbs and emphasise the importance of comprehending the difference between regular/irregular, transitive/intransitive, notional/auxiliary/modal/link, and action/state verbs. While comparing their own native language with English, learners notice that the verbs denoting the continuous aspect in Lithuanian do not have prefixes, whereas the verbs denoting the perfect aspect usually have prefixes (*eiti* ~ *ateiti*, *nešti* ~ *atnešti*). The English language has different words to denote such differences (*go* ~ *come*, *carry* ~ *bring*).

Again, the contrastive analysis of the English and Lithuanian verb form systems reveals that the traditional proposition that ‘there are 16 verb forms in the English language and 4 in Lithuanian’ is

false. In this system, there is no place for *It is going to rain* (used to speak about future), *I used to cry when I was a child* (used to speak about repeated actions in the past) and *We were about to start* (used to speak about the beginning of a past action). The four traditional Lithuanian tense forms fail to include *esu buvęs*, *buvau matęs* and *buvau beišeinąs* (Navickienė, 2016). Moreover, they are not discussed at the lessons of the Lithuanian language at secondary schools, even though they are widely used while teaching English.

Can you open the window

This seems to be a rather simple sentence. However, some learners fail to define its communicative function. Do we want to know *if somebody is able to open a window*, or do we ask him or her to do it? In Lithuanian, the question would start with *Ar...*, and the request should start with *Gal...*

Must is also deceptive. Its basic meaning is a necessity, and not an obligation. *I must go* means *Man reikia eiti*, and not *Privalau eiti*. The negative form of this form is even more complicated as it expresses prohibition, and not the absence of necessity. *You mustn't talk to him* means *Don't talk to him*.

This proves how important it is for learners to comprehend the meanings of English modal verbs.

Having arrived in Vilnius, you should buy a city plan

Another problematic issue is the English non-finite forms of the verb, which also differ greatly from the Lithuanian non-finite forms. English has got *the infinitive*, *the participle* and *the gerund* (a noun-like *-ing form*), whereas in Lithuanian there are four of them, that is *bendratis* (infinitive), *dalyvis* (participle), *pusdalyvis* and *padalyvis*. The English form called *gerund* formally corresponds to *veiksmazodinis daiktavardis*, the usage of which is restricted in Lithuanian.

In the course book *Colloquial Lithuanian*, which is meant for foreigners willing to learn Lithuanian at beginners' level, Ramonienė and Press (2004) state that the Lithuanian *padalyvis* corresponds to the English *gerund* (which is completely wrong, as *gerund* has a function of a noun, whereas *padalyvis* is an adverb according to its function). *Pusdalyvis* is called *special adverbial participle*, which is also incorrect.

In the examples provided in the textbook, the Lithuanian *padalyvis* and *pusdalyvis* are translated into English by adverb subordinate clauses: *Atvažiavus į Vilnių, reikia nusipirkti miesto planą. ~ Once arrived in Vilnius, it is necessary to buy a city plan.* The translation should be *Having arrived in Vilnius, you should buy a city plan.* The example of *pusdalyvis* is also rather awkward *Važiuodamas į Vilnių, aš džiaugiuosi. ~ As I go to Vilnius, I rejoice.*

The examples provided above show how strange the explanations of the use of the Lithuanian language to a foreigner sound to a Lithuanian native speaker. Let's hope that Lithuanian teachers of English are competent enough to teach their learners more accurate English grammar.

He said he was ill

Another subtlety of the English language is the indirect speech and the sequence of tenses, the rules of which do not work in Lithuania. Grammar, in this case, has close links with lexis and function, as it is necessary to choose a suitable reporting verb, and then apply suitable changes.

Thus, *'It's not a good idea', he said* becomes *į He didn't think it was a good idea*, as it sounds more natural than *He thought it wasn't a good idea*.

However, in the Lithuanian subordinate clause, the verb has to be used in its present form, ... *kad tai [yra] gera mintis*. Since quite a few learners of English associate these changes with their mother tongue, they make mistakes while forming English indirect statements and questions as well as while translating them into Lithuanian.

Five times the amount of water

Even though the learners have already acquired a lot of knowledge about and used articles, pronouns and quantifiers, to sum up their experiences, the term *determiner* should be introduced. This helps to

revise articles and pronouns as well as their usage and sequence in the sentence. The Lithuanian learners of English find it strange that *his, her, my*, etc. are not pronouns like in their mother tongue, but possessive adjectives.

A nice tiny oval Italian wooden picture frame

The English adjectives are the easiest to learn, as they do not change in the plural, and have neither the category of the case nor that of the gender as in the Lithuanian or German languages. However, in the process of translation into Lithuanian, they should take the number, case and gender of the noun they modify.

Another problem that might occur is the complicated order of adjectives in a sentence. However, this problem might be easily avoided by splitting the sentence into shorter ones.

A fast worker works fast

However, English adverbs are more complicated than the Lithuanian ones. Some of them do not differ in their form from adjectives but have different functions, e.g. *a long day (adj.) ~ don't stay long (adv.)*; other adverbs have two forms that differ in meaning, e.g. *near the window (close) ~ nearly naked (almost)*. Furthermore, after some link verbs, some adverbs concede their rights to adjectives, as in *The cheese smells awful. ~ Tas sūris baisiai dvokia.*

1,000,000,000,000

When we talk about numerals, of great importance appears to be the point, or dot. In Lithuanian, a decimal fraction is separated by a comma, whereas the English use commas to separate thousands, millions, etc. In the English language, a decimal fraction is separated by a point.

Another curiosity is *billion*. For ages, British people understood *a billion* as a million of millions, 1 000 000 000 000 (Lith. *bilijonas*) (The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (b)). However, for Americans *a billion* has always meant a thousand of millions, 1 000 000 000 (Lith. *milijardas*). Nowadays both nations have come to an agreement that *a billion* is a thousand of millions, 1 000 000 000 (Lith. *milijardas*).

Moreover, in the *second step*, the numeral does not mean the same as in the *second floor*; *penkta valanda* (time) is *five o'clock*, and *penkios valandos* (duration) is *five hours*. The dates are written differently as well.

I hope you like English

Even those who are interested in the English grammar find it difficult to learn syntax. Although the learners of English are supposed to have mastered the syntax of their mother tongue, in fact, lots of them do not see the difference between a noun and a verb, to say nothing about the subject and object, which, actually, sound similar in English.

The ability to decipher the principal parts of the sentence (subject and predicate) and the complements that provide more information about the subject and the verb help to analyse sentences from the functional perspective. Other important issues include clauses and phrases and their functions in the sentence.

The analysis of English sentences is made even more complicated because of lack of punctuation. In Lithuanian, logically connected language structures and subordinate clauses are separated by commas, which is a rather rare case in English sentences.

The comparative/contrastive analysis revealed the following differences between the English and Lithuanian languages:

- the meaning of *do/be/have* changes depending on their function and the context;
- the formation of impersonal statements, negative sentences, questions and even exclamations differs greatly;
- the nouns may differ in number, gender and derivation patterns;
- the active verb forms differ completely in the way of expressing time and aspect;

- Lithuanian has no modal verbs; however, the modality may be expressed using different means;
- the non-finite verb forms differ even in number; while translating infinitive phrases, simple sentences may be replaced by complex;
- the rules of the sequence of tenses that are so important in the indirect speech in English do not work in Lithuanian;
- Lithuanian does not have a class of determiners; however, it is necessary to know them in order to render their meaning;
- the English adjectives do not change in plural and have neither the category of the case nor that of the gender; however, in Lithuanian, they should take the number, case and gender of the noun they modify;
- some English adverbs do not differ in form from adjectives, which causes problems while translating them into English;
- even though numbers are included in the list of direct equivalents, there are exceptions that depend on the context;
- different punctuation systems cause problems while translating, as inexperienced translators apply the English rules of punctuation in their Lithuanian texts, and the Lithuanian rules in their translations into English.

Conclusions

The theory of translation is a branch of the comparative-descriptive linguistics, which deals with a certain type of relations between languages. It finds its resources in a general linguistic theory that can offer answers to issues such as the theoretical validity of the equivalence in translation, the limits of translatability, and also the solution to the practical problem of finding equivalents in translation.

Lexical resources are not the only factor which influences the way in which the experience is reported. Another powerful factor is the grammatical system of the language. Thus, the would-be translators should be taught not only the lexical - semantical systems but also the grammatical ones. Although it is possible to teach or learn grammar by taking bite-sized chunks and trying to accumulate a complete picture of the system, it is much more efficient to study it as a system from the very beginning.

Grammar teaching involves not just teaching the grammatical structures (forms), but also the meanings that grammatical structures express, and the appropriate contexts in which they may be used. The essence of such a proposal is that grammatical structures are not isolated from their meanings or their uses.

The contrastive analysis, that is comparing languages side-by-side with the intent of discovering the relationship between them, reveals the differences in the grammatical structures of the source and target languages that cause some change in the information content of the message during the process of translation.

Studying grammar should not be just a matter of cramming arbitrary, boring and unconnected rules, but rather learning how to accurately, clearly, and fluently express meaning in particular contexts. That's where systematic knowledge of grammar comes in handy.

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POLISH SOCIOLOGY OF ART (THEATRE AND FILM): TRADITION AND TRENDS

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Abstract. The aim of this paper is a presentation of Polish heritage and trends in the sociology of art, which is a humanistic discipline (based on the sociology of film and sociology of theatre). The authors describe the main research and theoretical approaches in the subdisciplines mentioned above, using content analysis of Polish publications and their own experience in this matter. Emilia Zimnica-Kuzioła's studies are devoted to the social world of theatre. Ewelina Wejbert-Wąsiewicz observes cinema as a social institution (touring cinema and its audience) and she analyses film as a social phenomenon of culture (especially social and cultural taboos, e.g. senility, abortion and death). The sociology of art in Poland was initially treated as a subdiscipline of the sociology of culture and did not gather numerous researches. These experimental researches mainly used Ingarden's phenomenological concept of concretization of the work of art-scheme and Hans-Georg Gadamer's hermeneutics. Among different studies of Polish sociologists of arts, there are sociological studies of painting, studies of art and feature film, studies of photography and studies of theatre. The sociology of film was the best developed field of the sociology of culture in the 60s and 70s. Since 90s there has been a gradual disappearance of the research activity in the field of film. Sociologists of film turned to new media, audiovisual culture neglecting traditional – sociological reflection on cinema. Contemporary Polish sociologists of art examine artistic communities and the effects of their creative activities, which primarily reflect the changes that have taken place in Poland since 1989.

Keywords: Polish sociology of fine arts, sociology of film, sociology of theatre

Introduction

The aim of this paper is a presentation of Polish heritage and trends in the sociology of art, which is a humanistic discipline (based on the sociology of film and sociology of theatre).

The sociology of art studies focus on four essential elements: the work of art and its reception, the artist and the creative process, the recipients and the institutional, social frames of art (Kłoskowska 1981). When Stanisław Ossowski was designing a new discipline in Poland, what he had in mind was first and foremost the sociology of the works of art (Ossowski 1936, 465). Sociology of the creative process or reception issues was on the fringes of his scrutiny. He also wrote about works of art as a factor in social and economic change.

The sociology of art in Poland was initially treated as a subgenre of the sociology of culture and as such did not attract many scientists. The sociology of art scholars in the world and in Poland are first and foremost sociologists of literature, music, and in rare cases fine art, but not film. An essential part of the theoretical and empirical work of art sociologists oscillates around genetic structuralism or communicative perspective of art. In Poland, the list of valued books dealing with the sociology of art opens with the names of literary scholars, cultural experts (i.e. Jerzy Kmita, Sław Krzemień-Ojak, Andrzej Mencwel, Stefan Żółkiewski, Michał Głowiński, Maryla Hopfinger). And in the circle of culture and art sociologists (including literature, fine arts and film), the most eminent authors of theoretical or theoretical and empirical studies are, among others, Aleksander Wallis, Antonina Kłoskowska, Bogusław Sułkowski, Anna Matuchniak-Krasuska, Andrzej Siciński, Mieczysław Gałuszka, Kazimierz Kowalewicz, Cezary Prasek, Kazimierz Żygulski, Marian Golka.

The first department of the sociology of art in Poland was established by Bogusław Sułkowski in the 1990s. Two decades earlier (at the beginning of the 1970s) he published the book *Powieść i czytelnicy*

(*Novel and Readers*), an empirical treaty on the sociology of literature. The queen of Polish sociologists of culture, Antonina Kłoskowska, studied reception of literature representing national Polish canon, and Alicja Rokuszevska-Pawełek – social circulation of popular and entertainment literature. Subsequently, sociological studies of painting (by Anna Matuchniak-Krasuska), art film (Mieczysław Gałuszka and Kazimierz Kowalewicz, Ewelina Wejbert-Wąsiewicz), photography (Tomasz Ferenc) and theatre (Kazimierz Kowalewicz and Emilia Zimnica-Kuzioła) emerged. The common denominator of all these publications was a shared methodological paradigm – these were qualitative, experimental studies, conducted among ordinary art recipients. Acts of reception were under scrutiny – interpretation and evaluation – of a work of art. Emilia Zimnica-Kuzioła, next to an analysis of performance reception, conducted statistical research on representative study samples, aimed at sketching a social and cultural image of theatre audiences. The author conducted surveys among audiences of Łódź theatre-goers, and published the results of her studies in the book *Światła na widownię (Spotlight on the Audience)* (2003). These scholars invoked the phenomenological, Ingardian concept of concretization of a work of art scheme and the hermeneutics of Hans-Georg Gadamer. Sociologists consider art a kind of social communication, a discussion between the creator and the recipient about significant issues – social, political and existential ones. Contemporary Polish sociologists of art scrutinize film and theatre, as well as artistic circles (Ferenc 2015; Zimnica-Kuzioła 2018) and the effects of their creative actions, which to a large extent reflect the changes Poland underwent after 1989. In the Literature Review of the paper we shall describe specific fields of art sociology – film and theatre.

Methodology

This present paper aims to present Polish heritage and trends in the sociology of art. In order to define the specificity of Polish sociological interests in art (using cinema and theatre as illustrative examples), a descriptive literature analysis has been carried out. It contains the indication of important research programmes, exploration in the field of the sociology of culture and art, and also the display of negligence in this field. The authors describe the main research and theoretical approaches in the subdisciplines mentioned above, using content analysis of Polish publications and their own experience in this matter.

Literature Review

Sociology of film in Poland

Studies of the worldwide cinema phenomenon have preceded theories on this matter. The first analyses were characterized by sociographic descriptions of the cities, cinemas, economy of the cinema production field and audience. However, they were not free from moralizing and from the conviction that cinema has a detrimental effect, especially on the youth (Bevans 1913; Burt 1925). Scrutinizing the oeuvre of film and cinema sociologists all over the world, we can trace three major fields of interest (Darmas 2014, 37-38):

1. Cinematographic studies recognizing cinema and film as a field of cultural production together with its concomitant socio-economic aspects;
2. Cinematographic studies considering cinema a social institution representing production, but also cultural and artistic reception; especially popular were studies pertaining to the social impact of cinema and films;
3. Studies on social representation in the world of film.

Sociologists worldwide and in Poland would first and foremost address the two former analytical threads. Studies on reality representations were not so common (Sorlin 1991; Sklar & Musser 1990; Murphy 1989). They were based on internal, analytical approaches to film. An analysis of a cinematic work, as a research technique borrowed from other scientific disciplines dealing with the cinema, was a huge challenge for the scholars.

In Poland the sociology of film was derived from film studies, other than in Western countries, where the film was the subject of sociological studies even before the First World War. It is quite telling that local pioneering studies on film reception and cinema practices were taken up in 1913 by Ludwik Skoczylas, who decided to conduct a survey among the Lviv youth about cinema attendance and preference (Skoczylas in: Bocheńska 1975, 77-84). It is the first attempt of empirical studies in the field of culture, including sociology of theatre, known in Poland.

After the Second World War, Polish sociology of film remained under the influence of various film and culture studies (Wejbert-Wąsiewicz 2017, 17-46). The historical and geopolitical situation of the country had a great impact on that. The first department of sociology in independent Poland was established in 1919 on the initiative of Leon Petrażycki at the Law and Political Sciences Department of the University of Warsaw. The first Polish text on the sociology of cinema dates back to this initial period of institutionalization of sociology in the Polish state. It was a 1919 article by Jan Stanisław Bystron, entitled *Socjologia kina (The Sociology of the Cinema)*. The author was the first Polish sociologist to call for creating a separate discipline aimed above all at scrutinizing social impact of the cinema. However, Bystron's programme did not succeed in Poland, nor did its author pursue the subject any further, devoting his attention to other matters (such as, among others: folk culture, sociology of upbringing, sociology of city). Although the classic of Polish sociology Florian Znaniecki classified cinema as an institution of indirect upbringing (Znaniecki 1934, 303), the social impact of cinema was not of an interest to Polish scholars. The methodology of cinema studies failed to develop in Poland.

After the Second World War the sub-discipline underwent a growth spurt under the influence of cinema critics' circles (Michalewicz 2003, 10-20), but its lack of autonomy as a separate discipline was still conspicuous. In the 1950s sociology was considered a bourgeois science in Poland. However, film critics would appeal in press for initiating research on the sociology of film (Michalewicz 2003, 18-20). During that period field studies realized utilitarian goals, rather than scientific ones. In the Polish People's Republic (PPR) many was the time that gathering materials on film reception was cancelled due to lack of funding or censorship.

In the 6th and 7th decade of the 20th century in Poland there emerged a tendency to take up subjects preoccupying sociologists in Western countries (these were, among others, studies on elite, mass and popular culture). Sociologists' attention was focused on the matters of film reception and analysis (Gałuszka & Kowalewicz 1977; Gałuszka 1984; Kowalewicz 1978; Kłoskowska & Rokuszewska-Pawełek 1977). Sociologists were being accused of neglecting analysis of the content of the work and its connection to social reality (Michalewicz 2003, 42). Some posited that the theoretical and empirical scope of scrutiny be narrowed to the matters of audience and analysis of the cinematographic work itself (Prasek 1970).

In the 1970s the sociology of film remained the best-developed field of the sociology of culture, mainly thanks to Kazimierz Żygulski, who sketched its programme and conducted numerous empirical studies. Like in other countries, they focused mostly on cinema audiences.

Four components of film sociology – according to Żygulski – were the audience, the creators and producers, the cinematographic work itself and the organization of film production and distribution (Żygulski 1966). The goal of the sociology of film was analysing social and cultural conditioning of a cinematographic work, as well as studying social reception of films and cinema audience. According to Żygulski (1966), a film sociologist should be interested in the following matters:

1. Social situation depicted in the cinematographic work;
2. Juxtaposition of social issues shown in the films with social reality;
3. Comparison of the social situation shown in the film with the social perspective of other arts, such as literature, theatre, painting.

In Żygulski's opinion, a sociologist can analyse the relationship between the actual social reality and the fictional film reality, but can also undertake an autonomous analysis of the film reality comprised in the script (Żygulski 1966, 49).

It is worth noting that in the PPR film sociologists did not address the goals set by Żygulski. In the 3rd Polish Republic studies of that kind still remain on the outskirts of the science (Prasek 2014) or within the scope of TV studies (Bogunia-Borowska 2012) (among others regarding TV shows) (Łaciak 2013; Kurz 2008, 281-302).

In the 1980s interest in the sociology of film among Polish and international scholars decreased considerably. The TV boom is considered to be among the biggest factors here, with its concomitant changes in cinema audience attendance (Jarvi 1970, 106-110). Sporadic publications pertained to analyses of film protagonists and audience preference surveys. The reception of TV series and their content was analysed much more eagerly (Siemieńska 1981; Gałuszka 1984; Kościelski 1987).

In the next decade, sociologists would analyse the culture of TV series (Gałuszka 1996; Jacyno 1998), neglecting however the sociology of film and cinema. In the Western countries, links between sociology and cinema began with the empirical aspect; a development of the theory took place in the 1970s. This was influenced by semiotics, theories invoking psychoanalysis and ideology. In the period of social and cultural changes occurring in Poland after 1989, the sociology of film and cinema was replaced by a broader sociology of media and audiovisual culture. Unsatisfactory results of film studies in the previous decades also came to the fore.

It is worth asking if the sociology of film managed to establish itself in Poland as a separate sociological sub-discipline. The sociology of film was linked to numerous relations and inspirations, from the side of sociology and other culture studies alike. Sociologists of film usually did not invoke concepts or theory of art sociology. In Poland, compared to international representatives of this sub-discipline (Jarvi 1970; Prokop 1970; Żygulski 1966; Darmas 2014), film sociologists did not deal with the analysis of the production organization and film distribution, nor with the scrutiny of the role of film institutions in society, their social functioning and development conditions. Only recently did this subject become a field of exploration for Polish film experts and cinema historians (Adamczak 2010; Zajiček 2015).

The oeuvre of the discipline was dominated by quantitative cinema studies. In the second half of the 20th century the quantitative aspect of cinema or film reception was described in quite a detail (Rudzki 1967; Kulik 1968; Godzic 1996). Qualitative methods, such as, for instance, analysis of the reception of a work and the content of written documents was used very rarely. In the PPR the scarcity of research made it very difficult to trace the direction of changes, further exacerbated by the lack of methodological strictness, common at that time, fluidity of criteria and the nomenclature used by various scholars (Michalewicz 2003). The largest paucity is palpable in the analysis of the process of film reception – these are research problems known all over the world. A film sociologist is not a film expert and his or her use of the film toolbox has its limits. Looking for an idea in art assumes reading various complicated, overlapping signs and symbols, therefore there is no unequivocal “film reading”. Perhaps this is why the sociology of art film is not developing in Poland, and accomplishments of foreign sociologists in this regard (more often than film experts and cinema historians acting as sociologists) came under heavy criticism (Jarvi 1970).

National cinematographies in Europe were described from sociological perspectives by film historians (i.e. Siegfried Kracauer, Pierre Sorlin, Marc Ferro). Sociologists usually conducted their analyses in reference to the film plot, scrutinizing its ideological meaning, while ignoring formal aspects of the film.

The most recent scientific enterprises in the field of Polish film sociology pertain to the functional aspect of the cinema. Studies and surveys have been conducted during the tours of the “Polska Światłoczuła” touring cinema (Wejbert-Wąsiewicz 2016). Moreover, she published a paper analysing the cultural phenomenon of cinema. In her opinion the perspective of a sociologist of art should not overlook the formal aspect of the cinematographic work. It allows one to spot many formal tricks (i.e. grotesque, exaggeration, deformation, reality simulation). Films that were taken under her sociological scrutiny were selected European (including Polish) and American ones. The author was interested in the social and cultural taboo of aging and abortion (Wejbert-Wąsiewicz 2017). Old age has been depicted in art for centuries. The problem of abortion in literature and fine arts manifested itself quite late, mostly in the works of women. Both issues are timeless social problems and sensitive topics in

social studies. Aging is a universal human condition, but a highly repressed one in contemporary culture. The issue of abortion is strongly polarizing the society – in the general discourse it seems “feminist” and additionally closely linked to sex.

Sociology of theatre

The sociology of theatre as a new field of the humanities in the world was created in the 1930s. This field explores the influence of theatre on society, and analyses theatre as a social group. The first research in this direction has been developed in Germany and France, and now it is a highly developed field in the world. The sociology of theatre explores both the history of theatre, contemporary theatre and the psychology of a theatre work, looking for relationships of these areas with society.

There is no research tradition in Poland in the field of the sociology of theatre. The history of theatre and theatre studies (theatrology) developed well, but Polish sociologists began to study theatre only at the end of the 20th century. Polish sociologists wrote about the theory of reception of theatrical performance, they studied the social structure of the audience of specific theatres, they studied the colloquial and critical reception of a performance. They used typical sociological methods: surveys carried out in the theatre, interviews with viewers, analysis of actors and other theatre creators' statements in the press.

Further an insight into two books in this field written by the author of the present paper will be presented – one concerns the reception processes of a theatre performance, and the other is devoted to theatrical creators and their social world.

Spotlight on the Audience. Sociological Study of Theatre Audience (Zimnica-Kuzioła Emilia: 2003)

This book was an empirical study of theatrical performance reception. Its goal was to show social differentiation of expectations towards the theatre, colloquial reception practices, and to construct a typology of recipients of theatre plays and a typology of their discourses. The performer analysis allowed presenting the social-cultural structure of theatre audience. The employed research technique was an in-depth interview with a standardised list of problems, which contained questions concerning both the screenplay content and problems of the “theatrical form” itself, that is, the way of staging the play. Altogether 95 interviews were carried out with spectators of three performances in drama theatres in Lodz. The analysis of colloquial reception of sign of theatrical performance revealed two main reception trends: a trend integrating semiotic elements of the performance and a trend segmenting them and losing coherence of the performance. The most interesting reception testimonies come from spectators, whose academic education is accompanied by intelligence (combined with the ability to think logically, associate facts rapidly, as well as with linguistic efficiency) and who are surrounded by people with similar interests. Three fundamental types of discourses were distinguished: the vital one (connected with real life), the vital connected with the critical one and the critical. The vital discourse was attributed to spectators interested in the content or – as Gadamer said – in the truth of the performance and not expressing their opinion about the aesthetic value of the play. Respondents realising the type of the vital combined with the critical discourse perceived the performance holistically. They evaluated it according to its artistic criteria, but they were also ready to analyse its problem area and ideological content. The critical discourse was characterised by focussing attention on formal aspects, artistic quality of the performance and evasion of questions concerning its usefulness or practical authenticity. Spectators-critics did not look for a parallel between the sphere of real life and problems of the world of drama.

An original aspect of these studies of reception was a systematic presentation of reception among all layers of the theatrical matter. Elements constituting the performance were analysed by teatrologists, but sociologists did not analyse their social, colloquial reception. Value of this book was a combined presentation of statistical studies and reception studies (qualitative aspects and quantitative aspects). The earlier studies in Poland had been limited to one mode of cultivating sociology of public.

Social world of Theatre. Arenas of Public Dramatic Theatres in Poland (Zimnica-Kuzioła Emilia: 2018)

The aim of the book is a scientific analysis of the social world of contemporary Polish dramatic theatre as a space of action and discourse. The author is primarily interested in the arena of public theatre, that is, the place of dispute, discussion, polemics between the participants of this universe. It is the first sociological Polish book devoted to the creators of Polish theatre, especially actors.

A social world is a dynamic, fluctuating universe, created by communicating and interacting participants. Actions of theatre people are subject to constant discussions (on limited-scope, institutional and wide arenas). Basic categories serving an analysis of the social world of theatre are: core activity, technology, legitimation, segmentation, budding off, splitting off, professionalization, intersection, boundary objects and invading.

In every social world, boundaries keep being negotiated and definitions and meanings – re-established. The social world of theatre as well abounds in on-going discussions as to who can be called a “real actor (whether only a graduate of a public drama academy, or an extern standing a test in front of a state commission, or a student of a private actor studio as well). Amateurs pursuing this profession raise many controversies (permeability of borders phenomenon). Because they do not have formal theatre education, they are often denied the status of a real participant of the social world of theatre.

Social (stage) actors keep undertaking legitimizing activities, convincing themselves that what they do has sense and value; they create justifications, ideologies that reinforce their actions, working out rules and standards for “the proper” “the only correct” mode of action, they set an axiological and cognitive horizon for their own activity

Results

Sociology of film in Poland

The author depicted problems of pregnancy termination and ageing juxtaposing in film content with a scientific outlook, which allowed her to trace the correspondence of art and social reality. Over 60 films pertaining to ageing and abortion were included in the analysis. Works touching upon the problems of abortion evidence links with the social and cultural system, especially legal regulations of this phenomenon. Films about ageing have undergone a lifting procedure of various gradations. Hollywood movies are much more prone to retouching than the European ones (they de-age and beautify, make use of humour, comic effects, laughter [comedy], they favour an older protagonist who behaves like a young man, they do not show people in their eighth or ninth decade). Clear differences between the cinematographies are visible in the chart below:

American vs. European cinematography on ageing

- | European films (including Polish) | American films |
|--|--|
| ▪ focus on the work itself, on general ideas (prevalence of dramas) | ▪ focus on the receiver (star cult, genre cinema) |
| ▪ authorial and artistic cinema | ▪ Hollywood mass production |
| ▪ variety of film aesthetics, experimenting | ▪ popular clichés, symbols (voyage, road, child) |
| ▪ stressing extreme aspects of mature age | ▪ moderation in showing negative aspects of old age |
| ▪ realism and naturalism | ▪ old man in a family and professional aspect, self-defining |
| ▪ old man in a professional, self-defining, corporal aspect | ▪ didactic, moralizing functions |
| ▪ aesthetic and therapeutic functions, <i>catharsis</i> | ▪ protagonist in the social role of a father, husband (family) |
| ▪ protagonist – member of the intelligentsia or artist (creativity, art) | ▪ taboo of death on screen |
| ▪ death on screen | ▪ lack of a mature female protagonist |
| ▪ old woman as the main heroine | |

Sociological film studies show a mutual feedback between the cinema and the society, various relations between film and reality (truths, realisms, film myths) as well as between film and science. Art is by definition aimed at a certain dialogue with the receiver. Film is not only a creation, but also a message. The direction and scope of the artistic message can be determined by communication strategies. In films on ageing, five authorial strategies and in films with an abortion motif seven authorial strategies have been distinguished (Wejbert-Wąsiewicz 2017). These are the communication strategies (ranked by their popularity) in films on ageing:

- observer strategy (an insightful observation devoid of commentary or authorial manipulation; depiction of the life of protagonists, rituals, daily or festal values) present in a para-documentary stylization;
- witness and middleman strategy (the creator is submerged deeper in the protagonist's world than the observer; assuming his point of view; film as a life report; strong empathy towards the protagonist; attempt at depicting the subconscious, inner world of thoughts, feelings and dilemmas of protagonists);
- workman strategy (attention to film workmanship and the needs of the receiver-customer, significant didactic functions, focus on goodness and aesthetic qualities: beauty, emotion, ridiculousness); literature adaptations also fall in this category (popular American cinema);
- artist strategy (the theme is subject to a certain aesthetic concept, dominating over the entire work, being the main aim of the artist);
- psychotherapist strategy (allowing for a dialogue with the recipients, raising other controversial matters discussed in culture and society).

Other strategies prevail in films about abortion:

- agitator-spokesperson strategy, promoting certain attitudes and defending the interests of women, fetus or faith doctrines, that is pro-choice;
- strategy of a spokesperson of another cause, while the creator goes beyond the subject (for instance the life and fate of emigrants, political oppression, fight with social injustice, modelling as a mother and daughter's dream).

The authorial observer strategy does not work so well in films with an abortion theme, and the witness convention can be paired up with agitation. The psychotherapist programme is the least common one in all the analysed works. The strategy of the workman and artist are popular both in the social cinema on "third age" and unwanted parenting.

A universal trope in films on ageing is the juxtaposition of old age and youth (one's own and the other's) of the protagonists (old and young ones). Youth and old age are social 'institutions,' differently shaped in specific cultures and societies (this subject was highlighted by the classics of sociology, as well as the pioneers of anthropological research). Cult of youth stems from the "power of eternal renewal," in the words of Józef Chęciński (1969). Youth is one of the central themes in all cultures. In cinema, old age functions as foil to the youth, it is always seen as a "paradise lost". Fascination with this phenomenon was characteristic to mythology, art of various epochs and many genres.

Sociology of theatre

Theatre life organizers are accused of a lack of coherent and transparent cultural politics, as well as too little financial investment in the art of Melpomene, caused, according to the participants of the social world of theatre, by very poor understanding of the public theatre mission. The arena discusses the problem of subvention fragmentation (a boundary object between arts and politics) and co-financing private initiatives and events, which, from the point of view of public theatres, depletes budget of institutions they work in. The organizers are faced with the dilemma of public goods, the dilemma of limited resources. It is extremely difficult to work out fair criteria according to which the financial

resources for culture should be allocated (distributive fairness). As regards theatre politics, the rift between an autonomous take on art and its instrumentalization is clearly visible. In the first case, art has an “aesthetic parameter” a *sui generis* value and specific tasks: it is a factor in social development; it shapes awareness; it is an input in spiritual culture. Instrumentalization of art is a reductive perspective, employing business logic and industry rhetoric (language of economy). A stage artist becomes a producer of culture goods, a creative industry employee. He or she is rendering services for customers – the audience. Local governments are keen to co-finance the so-called events, mass artistic events, because they create the brand and promote the city (Sułkowski 2008, 33).

Not only the way a theatre manager is chosen engenders the arena; it is generated by different opinions on whether she/ he should be an artist or an administrator. Theatre managers are expected to maintain good relations with local politicians, but also to remain autonomous, manage the institution efficiently, communicate well with the personnel, have reasonable human resource policies, keep a high level of artistic production, etc. Representatives of theatrical environment do not want to let politicians solely decide about the matters that are crucial for the core activity (and the choice of a manager is undoubtedly crucial). Disparities between expectations and real life lead to public discussion on institutional and wide arenas, as well as feuds on micro-scale, on a limited-scope arena.

There is no consensus among the participants of the theatre social world as to how stage core activity should look like. Exclusivists active in the arena opt for a specific theatre formula and do not accept artists who pursue performances in other conventions. They cannot appreciate the quality of artistic performances prepared by the “opposite side”. Advocates of theatrical illusion, of the imagination theatre, do not appreciate artists who believe in realism and naturalism; technology enthusiasts, placing highest value on cameras, multimedia screens and other equipment do not understand others’ inclination for a “poor theatre”, where it is a poetic word and a close contact of actor and spectator that matters most; directors who make performances in turpster poetics do not esteem aesthetic refinement and beauty, etc. One cannot disagree with Boris Groys, who holds an opinion that the essence of art is contradiction, objection against the existing forms and themes: “When some artists insisted on the autonomy of art, others practiced political engagement. (...) When some artists started to make abstract art, others began to be ultra-realistic. (...) The field of modern art is not a pluralistic field but a field strictly structured according to the logic of contradiction” (Groys 2013, 1-2). One could express this thought in the terminology of social world – participants are trying to act “differently”, “better” they are striving to justify and legitimize their own way.

Agonistic critique generates discussion not only for professionals publishing in specialist theatre magazines and media-journalists, but also for theatre aficionados and theatre bloggers. An advantage of Internet posts is their response rapidity, up-to-date nature and interactivity, inviting for a wide discussion. However, theatre bloggers are denied the status of “real critics” (professionals are calling them hobbyists who should not gain financial profit from their activity). Participants of the social world of theatre question the notion that professional critique has a large impact on average spectators. Certainly, it has an impact on the status of artists in their own environment. A good opinion of professional authorities, theatrical prizes, accolades in the media, etc. are all external career validators, a transvalorization of an artist, putting him or her in the centre of the social world of theatre. And, adversely, a critique of opinion-forming circles can relegate an artist to the peripheries of the social world. Stage artists accuse their critics of a lack of competence and bias, but, of course, agree with them if they praise and appreciate them.

Political transformation brought about a change in human relations. Actors are fondly reminiscing the “good old times”, when they had time for one another, for friendship and mutual support. Nowadays it is the fast pace of life and competition that determine interpersonal relations, adding to their superficiality. A 21st century actor has to be poly-active and multitasking, however sometimes those who go beyond the core activity, writing screenplays or translating, are frowned upon. Members of the social world of theatre explicitly point out to the dangers of artistic creation (alcohol and drug addiction). Many stage artists struggle with addiction to flow experience.

Actors are talking about a lack of sense of security, an unfulfilled need for regularity, work stability, “which is always missing in this job”. The terms “high-risk profession” and “permanent unfulfillment”

are the best reflections of whether “to be or not to be an actor”. Fame has its dark side; what comes with it is an excessive privacy intrusion. An actor is under a constant scrutiny: during rehearsals by colleagues and the director, from time to time by their managers, every night by the spectators and during premiers and competitions – by professional critics. Intense professional work (although it is a dream of the majority of stage artists) involves living “on borrowed time” and a destabilization of personal and family life. Some roles are causing a profound emotional engagement, have an impact on the actor’s psyche and require him or her to break barriers of physicality or sexuality (self-instrumentalization, reduction of one’s “self” in G. Simmel’s words). All these factors generate inner states of tension and frustration, which are luckily balanced out by the positive sides of the profession. Complaints and inner dilemmas are permanent states of the job, but they are also accompanied by unforgettable moments, full of emotions that compensate all the annoyances.

Conclusions

Sociology of film in Poland

The film medium, new as it is, has always been an art. In Poland, sociology of the cinematographic art (sociology of artistic film or sociology of film as a work of art) has developed poorly. It was over a decade after the first film screening that sociologists took an interest in the cinema in Poland and beyond. Research postulates of Polish sociologists failed to gain realization. Only after the Second World War a systematic interest in the cinema and film could be observed. In the entire Europe, after the golden era of film sociology (1960s and 1970s) the researchers’ attention was focused on audiovisual culture. After over 100 years of the cinema, some sociological research and theory traditions ran dry, replaced by some others. However, in conclusion, it is worth stressing that films can and should be treated as sociological data.

Sociology of theatre

The sociology of theatre is an area that is in the development stage in Poland and does not yet have great empirical achievements. The books that have been discussed here prove that the deadlock in the field is slowly being overcome.

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OVERVIEW AND ANALYSIS OF LEGAL REGULATIONS IN THE PRACTICE OF LATVIAN MEDICAL PRACTITIONERS

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Abstract. Medical practitioners play a huge role in the medical treatment process from the point of view of medical treatment quality and legal liability. Medical practitioners as professionals are able to exercise their own rights, as well as patient's rights in healthcare. Therefore it is important to research and understand what kind of legal regulations affect medical practitioners. In order to ensure the realization of patients' rights, the legislator has provided several obligations to medical practitioners. Duties and responsibilities of medical practitioners in healthcare arise from particular legal regulations which are described in the paper. The aim of the paper is to provide an insight into regulations which define the medical practitioner's rights and duties in Latvia. The number of applications for the court in healthcare cases is growing. It shows that patients are not satisfied with the policy regarding the healthcare system and with medical practitioner's work. The paper has described the most important legal regulations in the medical practitioner's sphere of activity, as well as defined problems and provided potential solutions. The results of the paper show that Latvian legal regulations affecting medical practitioner's professional activities have to be improved.

Keywords: medical practitioners, rights and duties

Introduction

The modern society is not imaginable without the provision of the healthcare service. The availability of healthcare is a foundation of any legal state. Healthcare is a special and quite complicated social institution, which in its creation process has become an internal part of the modern society.

Currently, healthcare and the persons involved therein provide to the society the execution of such functions as the provision of society's health, individual's right to health and life, etc. For the provision of a successful healthcare process series of measures at national level have to be implemented, including the organisation, arrangement and adjustment of public relations in the field of healthcare.

As it is stated in the Conceptual Message of the Cabinet of Ministers On the Reform of the Healthcare System as of 7 August 2017, the public health indicators in Latvia significantly lag behind other member states of the EU. For example, the number of oncologic patients is 1.3 times higher (3.55%) than in average in the EU (2.7%), the number of the patients, who are first time recognized as disabled twice exceeds the average numbers in the EU, while the percentage of people, who assess their health as good or very good in Latvia is 46.2%, average in the EU – 67%. Therefore the abovementioned Conceptual Message has included such essential aspects of the healthcare field as human resources of healthcare, provision of medical practitioners in 2016 and 2025, further development of the doctor's profession, as well as medical practitioners' wages and the key planned activities for the development of human resources in the health industry, as well as the regulatory framework governing the industry. It has to be pointed out that in connection with the latter, the information, provided in the Conceptual Message of the Cabinet of Ministers as of 7 August 2017, is insufficient.

Nowadays the medical practitioner is the one who must know, understand and be able to apply legislation, which governs his/ her as a specialist's work. The involvement of medical practitioners in the improvements of the healthcare process on various levels, including the socially legal one, will allow increasing the efficiency of the healthcare system, as well as the mechanism for the professional activity protection of medical practitioners.

During last few years a legislation creation process governing the activity of medical practitioners has been actively developing. It can be explained not only by the development of the healthcare system in general, but also by rapid changes in society's attitude regarding this particular field. The content of legislation governing the activity of medical practitioner, in its perfect version, is to provide for the improvement of the healthcare quality. However, due to the heavy legislative base and its inaccurate arrangement, the target might not be achieved. Therefore it is important to arrange systematically (create and systemize) the legislative framework governing the professional activity of medical practitioners.

The professional activity of the medical practitioner is directly related to the legislative provisions determining the industry. For example, the technologies of medical manipulations are related to the skills and knowledge of the medical practitioner, while the requirements for their realization always have been determined and governed by legislative provisions (Злобина & Солодун 2015).

The aim of the paper is to provide an insight in the content of legislation governing the activities of medical practitioners. The paper analyses legislative provisions, which govern the rights and obligations of medical practitioners regarding their patients. The results of the paper show that the legislative provisions governing the activities of medical practitioners of Latvia are outdated and it is necessary to make series of changes for the improvement of the field. For example, the currently valid legislative regulation is not directed to the interest of medical practitioners for the improvement of their professional knowledge, activation of the potential of medical practitioners, with a target to improve the quality of medical services provided to the society.

Methodology

Descriptive, analytical and deduction-induction methods are used in this paper. Legal acts, recorded opinions of legal scholars have been analysed using the above mentioned methods in order to draw conclusions and make suggestions. A descriptive method is used to describe characteristics of a specific phenomenon of medical practitioner's rights and responsibilities. This method is used to describe the most important legal regulations in the practice of medical practitioners. An analytical method helps to determine and then evaluate the legal concept or the issue and content of legal principles and norms. Deduction-induction methods are used to research the current problem from more general to more specific and vice versa – moving from specific observations to broader generalizations and theory. It helps to clarify the outcome of the research. In the research, there is also a systematic review used, including database search, management and acquisition of relevant literature, thematic and literature review. With the help of these methods, legal acts, opinions of legal scholars have been analysed and conclusions made.

Literature Review

In order to clarify the range of legislative provisions governing the professional activity of medical practitioners in the context of protection of rights, a study and analysis of the existing legislative provisions of the field has been performed. During the study legislative provisions regulating the complex public relations were identified, thanks to the professional activity of medical practitioners. The legislative provisions by their nature and content are divided in national and international legislative provisions (European Justice Portal, Member State Rights – Latvia). From the Constitution of the Republic of Latvia, for example, Articles 89, 68, 98, etc., it arises that international legislative provisions are a part of the Latvian legal system. Therefore, the activity of medical practitioners is regulated more widely not only at national level.

Article 53 of the Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties, which Latvia joined 4 May 1993, states that “the general imperative norm of the international rights is a norm, which is adopted and recognized in the international community of nations as a norm, from which no tolerance is allowed and which might be changed only by a successive general international rule of law, which has the same nature” (The Vienna Convention). Such rules of law shall be related the rules that are stated in the Constitution of the United Nations Organization. In other cases there is a necessity for additional

legislation, for instance, the Guidelines of the World Health Organization for Development of National Drug Policies (1988). This document contains guidelines for national drug policy. The guidelines cover all aspects which a country needs to know in order to carry out policies effectively, such as legal issues, financial resources, development and monitoring. As an example also the Convention of the European Council for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms can be mentioned, which Latvia joined 27 June 1997. The legal provisions of the mentioned convention are the sources of international rights. Here the Directive 2010/45/EU of the European Parliament and Council from 7 July 2010 on standards of quality and safety of human organs intended for transplantation should be mentioned. The Directive entered into force 26 August 2010, and Directive 2011/24/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council from the 9 March 2011 on the application of patients' rights in cross-border healthcare. Consequently, the professional activity of medical practitioners is not the issue of national level only, but it is largely affected by the international aspect, as the principles stated in the international legislative provisions are reflected in the legislative provisions at national level.

In the study, more attention is paid namely to national legal sources, which govern the professional activity of medical practitioners and by its nature is an important legal institution of healthcare.

Results

The most important rule of law governing the professional activity of medical practitioners is the **Constitution**. Article 106 of the Constitution states that “everyone has right to freely choose an occupation and workplace according to his/her abilities and qualification...” (The Constitution of the Republic of Latvia). Therefore, the professional activity of medical practitioners shall be supported and protected regardless of the institution, i.e. public, municipal or private, where medical practitioner works. The selection of an appropriate form of activity is exclusively in the competence of the medical practitioner. Article 92 of the Constitution states that everyone may defend his/ her rights and legal interests in a fair trial. Everyone shall be considered innocent, until his/ her fault is not adjudged in accordance with law. In the event of a groundless infringement of rights everyone has a right to an appropriate reimbursement. Everyone has a right to lawyer's assistance. The abovementioned is also related to the medical practitioner.

The main law, which provides the terms for society treatment and a procedure for its provision, is the **Medical Treatment Law**. In accordance with the Section 2 of this law, its purpose is to govern public relationships in medical treatment in order to ensure qualified prophylaxis and diagnosis of diseases or injury, and also qualified medical treatment and rehabilitation of patients, and to determine special legal regulation provisions for economic activity of medical treatment institutions. The Medical Treatment Law stipulates ethic issues, medical practitioner's rights and their activity in medical treatment, etc. From the abovementioned, it arises that the Medical Treatment Law regulates the basic terms and conditions related to healthcare.

Also the **Civil Law** governs the professional activity of medical practitioners. However, unlike some special legal acts, the Civil Law in some ways transforms the institute of medical practitioners' activity from a social to civil. Thus, providing also the regulation of the medical practitioners' activities in the context of the rights of the Civil Law liabilities. It depends on the form of medical practitioners' activity that medical practitioners may establish, for example:

- Contractual relations,
- Relations with persons, who have a business providing services in the respective field of specialization.
- Relations, which arise from the provision of fundamental human rights and basic freedoms, etc.

At the same time, Article 1635 of the Civil Law states that every infringement of rights, i.e., each individual unauthorised action, as a result of which there is a damage caused (also a moral damage), shall give a right to the victim to demand from an offender a satisfaction, to the extent it can be blamed for this action. Therefore, there are legal relations regulated between the medical practitioner

and patient. Article 1635 of the Civil Law also states that physical or mental suffering shall be considered as moral damage, which is an infringement of victim's non-material rights or non-material benefits, caused due to unauthorised action. The amount of remuneration for a moral damage shall be determined by a court at its discretion, considering the severity and consequences of a damage. While the note provided in the Article points out that an act here shall be understood in the broadest sense, covering not only an action, but also abstention from it, i.e., inaction. Article 1644 of the Civil Law states: "If a person inflicts harm upon another without wrongful intent, if such person is at fault for the wrong, then he or she acted negligently. Negligence can be gross or ordinary" (The Civil Law).

From the abovementioned it can be concluded that in the event the medical practitioner in his/ her professional activity has been negligent, he/ she might be held liable for infringing civil liability. The medical practitioner's negligence in this case might show up as, for instance:

1. The medical practitioner is obligated to take care of a person;
2. The medical practitioner has failed to fulfil or has fulfilled inappropriately the obligation to take care;
3. Due to failure to fulfil the obligation, he/ she could have foreseen a possible damage;
4. There is a real damage caused.

Therefore it can be concluded that the medical practitioner in his/ her professional activity shall be guided by the norms of the Civil Law.

Latvian Administrative Violations Code states the requirements for a medical practitioner in the field of medical service provision and control mechanisms of this specific field. Within the Latvian Administrative Violations Code, the medical practitioner shall be subject to legal proceedings, which is one of the national compulsory powers and types of responsibility related to imposing administrative penalty. There is a liability for a violation, which harms national or public procedure, property, human rights and stated management procedure. The Latvian Administrative Violations Code determines a series of prohibitions of legally administrative nature. For instance, in accordance with Article 45.³ of the Latvian Administrative Violations Code for an illegal disclosure of confidential information obtained during the treatment process, a fine in an amount up to three hundred fifty euro shall be imposed on the medical practitioner. At the same time, it states a liability from which medical practitioner's obligation arises to operate within medical private practice, registered according to the procedure stipulated by law. A medical practitioner also shall be careful with natural person's data, as for any illegal actions with natural person's data, including data collection, registration, entry, storage, arrangement, modification, use, transfer, disclosure, blocking or deleting Article 204⁷ of the Latvian Administrative Violations Code provides a liability. The medical practitioner in his/her professional activity shall also observe the principle of equality, i.e. not to allow discrimination, as in Article 204.17 of the Latvian Administrative Violations Code there is provided a liability also for violating non-discrimination.

Additionally, it shall be noted that the professional activity of medical practitioners is guided also by labour rights. For example, the legal provision of the **Labour Law** regulates relations of medical practitioners as employees and medical institutions as employers. But it shall be applied exclusively on condition that a work function is realized on behalf of the employee or the medical practitioner.

The **Criminal Law** provides criminal liability of medical practitioners for offense against human life and health. Part 1 of Article 138 of the Criminal Law states that for a failure to fulfil medical practitioners' professional obligations or for their negligent fulfilment, if this offense due to the guilty party's negligence has caused a severe body injury or a moderate body injury to a victim, shall be punished with a deprivation of liberty for a time period up to one year or with a short-time deprivation of liberty, or with a forced labour or a fine. While Article 2 of this law states that for the same offense, if it has caused victim's infection with a Human Immunodeficiency Virus or B or C hepatitis virus, or has caused victim's death, there shall be a punishment with a deprivation of liberty for a time period up to five years or with a short-time deprivation of liberty, or with a forced labour or a fine. The regulation of medical practitioners' professional activity is provided also by Article 136 of the

Criminal Law for a forced abortion, by Article 135 of the Criminal Law for the unauthorised abortion, by Article 139 of the Criminal Law for illegal removal of living or deceased person's tissues or organs for their use in medicine, if it is done by the medical practitioner. Article 155 of the Criminal Law – for placing a person in a psychiatric hospital deliberately illegally; Article 154.1 of the Criminal Law – for a human trafficking; Article 141 of the Criminal Law – for a failure to give necessary and obvious help for a person, who is in a life threatening condition, if the guilty party was aware that could give it without a severe harm to him-/herself and other persons, and if the failure to give a help has caused person's death or other severe consequences. As well as Article 140 determines medical practitioner's liability for violating sanitary hygiene and epidemiological safety regulations.

In practice there are also common problem issues of a legal nature concerning medical practitioner's operations with person's data. This issue is raised also in connection with the fact that on 25 May 2018 in Latvia the new Data Protection Regulations of the European Union (REGULATION (EU) 2016/679 OF THE EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT AND OF THE COUNCIL will enter into force on the protection of individuals with regard to the processing of personal data and on the free movement of such data, repealing Directive 95/46/EC (The General Data Protection Regulation)). The mentioned data protection terms and conditions shall be observed by all enterprises, including medical institutions.

Considering the abovementioned, a special attention regarding the analysis of legislative regulations governing professional activity of medical practitioners shall be paid to Article 145 of the Criminal Law, where there is a liability stated for illegal actions with natural person's data, as well as for influencing the personal data processing manager or operator or data subject, using violence or threat or abuse of confidence, for a purpose to perform illegal actions with natural person's data. The extent of medical practitioner's professional activity has been stated also in Article 315 of the Criminal Law, including medical practitioner's obligation to inform about a gross crime or especially gross crime.

Article 198 of the Criminal Law, determines a prohibition for the acceptance of benefits, referring also to medical practitioners. It is necessary to note the fact that until April 2013 Article 3 of the Criminal Law Convention on Corruption of the European Union stated that passive bribery is such type of deliberate action where any public official of this country requests or receives, directly or indirectly, any of his/ her undue advantage, and it refers to both this official and any other person. Article states that the benefit can be meant for both an official and any other person. With amendments made to the law On the Criminal Law Convention on Corruption of the European Council (Reporter of the Parliament and Cabinet of Ministers of the Republic of Latvia, 2001) the above mentioned Article was excluded.

The extent of the professional competence of medical practitioners, including its relation to a patient, is determined by the Cabinet Regulations. It has to be that the regulation, stipulated by the Cabinet Regulations, has been implemented considering the opinions of social partners, profiled organizations. (Ašneviča – Slokenberga *et al.* 2015). Cabinet Regulations No.268 as of 24 March 2009 “Regulations on the competence of medical practitioners and students who study first or second level professional higher education programs in medicine and the extent of their theoretical and practical knowledge” determines the competences of students and persons, registered with the Medical Person Register, in healthcare, as well as their extent of knowledge. Cabinet Regulations No.264 from 23 May 2017 “Regulations on the Classification of Occupations, the basic tasks fulfilling the profession and the basic qualification requirements” stipulate the main tasks of medical practitioners.

For example, Article 160 of these regulations determines that professions and appropriate main duties of an individual group “2211 Family (general practice) doctors and doctors” are: to examine a patient; to set for a patient's diagnostic examinations and analyse their results; to advise a patient on health promotion; for the provision of a general treatment and its continuity to provide and receive the information, necessary for patient's treatment, from other healthcare specialists, etc. Article 167 of the Regulations states that one of the main tasks of nurse's profession is to educate patients.

Performing an analysis of the above stated legislative regulations, we have succeeded to summarize and identify the most significant problems regarding professional activities of medical practitioners and legislative regulations governing them.

Conclusions

Having carried out the analysis of the regulations governing the professional activity of medical practitioners, it can be concluded that it is based on both national and international legal sources. A huge role in the activity of medical practitioners is given to the standards and guidelines in the field of healthcare. Studying the content of the legal regulations, provided in the paper, the following features can be distinguished:

1. The healthcare issue (including the relations between the medical practitioner and patients) is included in Article 111 of the Constitution. It indicates the vital significance of the tasks performed by medical practitioners in the context of international relations;
2. The regulatory framework exists in the field of healthcare of Latvia, and also in the field of professional activity regulation of medical practitioners;
3. Legal regulations governing the professional activity of medical practitioners are included in various law sectors (civil rights, labour rights, criminal rights, etc.);
4. There exists a large number of legislative regulations of national level governing professional activities of medical practitioners (special laws and Cabinet Regulations);
5. The competences of medical practitioners are not consolidated, but stipulated in separate legislative provisions for each group of medical practitioners (for the doctor, doctor's assistant, nurse, etc.). The abovementioned inconveniences not only a simplified availability of the information important for the medical practitioner, but also does not promote patient's understanding about the competences of medical practitioners. The competences of a medical practitioner have not been stipulated by the Medical Treatment Law.
6. The existing legislative regulation is not directed towards the interests of medical practitioners for the improvement of their professional knowledge, activation of the potential of medical practitioners, with a target to improve the quality of medical services provided to the society.

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