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## AN EXAMINATION OF THE MEDIATING ROLE OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR ON THE EFFECT OF INTRINSIC MOTIVATION ON JOB PERFORMANCE OF TEACHERS

ESRA TÖRE<sup>1</sup>

### ABSTRACT

This study aims to examine the impacts of intrinsic motivation on the job performance of teachers with the mediating effect of organisational citizenship behaviour. The research was conducted in eight elementary and secondary schools in Istanbul. A total of 277 teachers participated in the study. Results of the study suggest that intrinsic motivation had a positive impact on job performance (that measured self-determination) and that organisational citizenship behaviour partially mediated this impact. On the other hand, it was found that there was no relationship between job performance as measured by workers and by managers and intrinsic motivation had no positive impact on job performance as assessed by school managers.

**Keywords:** Job performance, Intrinsic motivation, Organisational citizenship behaviour, Teacher.

### INTRODUCTION

Performance has been one of the most extensively-researched concepts in the field of human resource development (HRD). Yet it was not until the late 1980s that performance improvement began to be considered as an underlying component of the HRD definition (Weinberger, 1998). In the 1990s, critics of the performance paradigm of HRD viewed performance as a means to control and possibly deny “a person’s fundamental and inherent agency and self-determination” (Barrie and Pace, 1998, p. 295). Achieving higher performance is a requirement of every organisation, including schools (Joo and Park, 2010).

Since the 1990s, many scholars have been defining performance as a set of behaviours concerning organisational goals in which subjective appraisal was employed. Exploration of the performance construct is the first step to evaluate performance scientifically. Most of those results indicated that performance was a multidimensional construct. More recently, many studies indicate that an individual realises organisational goals in two different ways. One is a set of regulated organisational behaviours, and the other is a set of spontaneous role behaviours. The former set of behaviours is the task performance, and the latter set of behaviours is the contextual performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993; Cai and Lin, 2006).

Teacher performance evaluation not only provides powerful support for education system personnel decisions in promotion, prize and punishment, and in employment and dismissal, but also proves to be the key criterion in examining teacher qualification certificates and evaluation of the effectiveness of teacher training. Most teacher performance studies explored the evaluation of the effectiveness of college teaching. Researchers showed great interest in teaching effectiveness evaluation and proposed that teaching effectiveness constructs should be multidimensional (Cai and Lin, 2006; Marsh and Dunkin, 1992).

Teacher job performance is considered as teachers’ observable behaviours related to outcomes, which are relevant to educational goals (Cook, 2008). One of the main factors affecting job performance is work motivation, and it was found that there is a positive and significant relationship between teachers’ work motivation and job performance (Hutabarat,

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2015). Motivation and performance are very important in determining the organisation's success and the outcomes. If the external environment changes due to new developments in technology, it becomes necessary to adopt these changes, so that it can motivate the employees (Inayatullah and Jehangir, 2002). Therefore, in order to meet the organisational changes, it is necessary to upgrade employee skills and competencies in accordance with these technological developments, so they would be able to adapt into the new working environment (Latt, 2008). It was also found that motivated teachers are more satisfied than those less motivated, and this results in higher performance. (Iwu et al., 2013).

Based on the literature discussed above, the objective of the study is to examine how intrinsic motivation affects job performance via organisational citizenship behaviour.

## **THEORETICAL BACKGROUND**

### **Intrinsic motivation and job performance**

Intrinsic motivation is described as “any motivation that arises from the individual's positive reaction to qualities of the task itself; this reaction can be experienced as interest, involvement, curiosity, satisfaction, or positive challenge” (Amabile, 1996, p. 115). This concept refers to the state where organisational members are motivated and committed by the task itself and their own enthusiasm for the task (Amabile, 1988). In other words, they are not motivated so much by the external outcome, which refers to the desire to expend effort to gain outcomes external to the work itself (Amabile, 1993). Deci and Ryan (1985) note that the critical component of intrinsic motivation is self-determination. Individuals who are intrinsically motivated tend to be driven by inherent interest in the work itself and enjoyment, and thus they feel naturally drawn toward carrying out their work. Here, the decision to make the effort is self-determined (Grant, 2008).

Intrinsic motivation is marked by the interest, curiosity, continued learning, and a spirit of challenge experienced by an employee when stimulated by the work itself rather than external outcomes, such as rewards or the absence of punishment (Deci and Ryan, 1985). Intrinsic motivation is the motivation to perform an activity for itself, in order to experience the pleasure and satisfaction inherent in the activity (Deci, Connell and Ryan, 1989).

Previous research has suggested a consistent positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and job performance (Grant, 2008; Karatepe and Tekinkus, 2006; Lawler and Hall, 1970; Tierney, Farmer and Graen, 1999, Collins, 2010; Dinger et al., 2015). When individuals' performance in an organisation is based on intrinsic motivation, they tend to be highly engaged in the task itself, and as a result, their performance improves. According to Grant (2008), when people are intrinsically motivated, they tend to be process focused and thus, they view their task as “an end in and of itself” (p. 49). Accordingly, it is expected that intrinsic motivation will be positively related to job performance.

The results suggest that employees perceived higher in-role job performance when they had higher intrinsic motivation (Joo and Park, 2010). On the other hand, research results in Turkey show that intrinsic motivation does not have any significant effect on job performance (Turunç and Tabak, 2009). Based on the literature discussed above:

*Hypothesis 1: Intrinsic motivation positively affects job performance.*

### **Intrinsic Motivation and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour**

Several job aspects influence an individual's work outcomes. One of the most important aspects is organisational citizenship behaviour, which has been identified as a significant feature of work design for employee outcomes. Studies have suggested that giving autonomy to individuals is expected to encourage higher motivation, satisfaction, and performance in a variety of settings.

Researchers have shown that intrinsic motivation has a positive effect on organisational citizenship behaviour (Bolino, 1999). In addition, employees are more concerned with performing the work itself rather than performing extra work beyond the formal job description (Grant, 2008).

*Hypothesis 2: Intrinsic motivation positively affects organisational citizenship behaviour.*

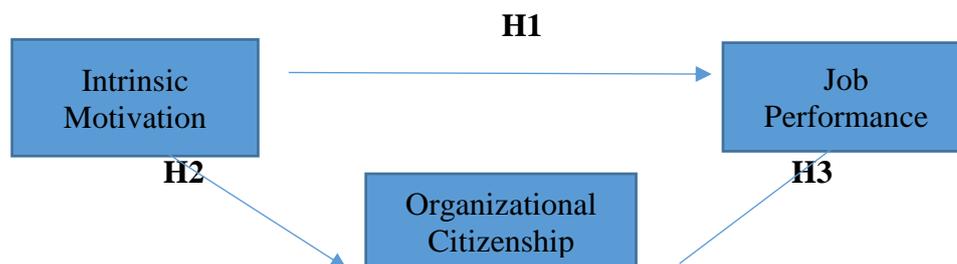
### Citizenship behaviour and job performance

Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) refers to actions performed by employees which surpass the minimum role requirements expected by organisations and promote the welfare of co-workers, work groups, or the organisation (Witt, 1991). Examples include making innovative suggestions to improve the company, orienting new people to their work, and helping co-workers with heavy task loads (Becker and Randall, 1994). While the dimensionality of OCB has been debated (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Fetter, 1991), past research identified a five-dimensional model of citizenship: altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue (Morrison, 1994; Smith, Organ and Near, 1983; Lovell et al., 1999).

MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Fetter (1991) assessed the relationship of altruism, civic virtue, courtesy, and sportsmanship to performance ratings and found that citizenship behaviours were just as important as objective measures of productivity in determining a subordinate's performance rating.

*Hypothesis 3: Organisational citizenship behaviour positively affects job performance.*

### Figure 1. Conceptual (hypothesised) model



*Hypothesis 4: Organisational citizenship behaviour plays a mediating role for the impact of intrinsic motivation on job performance.*

In summary, the conceptual framework in this study links intrinsic motivation and job performance with a partially mediating role of organisational citizenship behaviour. Figure 1 illustrates the conceptual model of this study.

### METHODS

With this in mind, related literature was reviewed within the context of the study; sub-dimensions of intrinsic motivation, job performance such as the impacts of intrinsic motivation on job performance with the mediating effect of organisational citizenship behaviours were examined in eight elementary and secondary schools in Istanbul.

### Participants

Participants were 227 teachers and managers working in eight schools located in Turkey. The schools are public and at primary-secondary level. The response rate was 94% for teachers, but after dropping respondents who could not be matched to supervisors and for whom there were excessive missing data, 89% of the teachers asked to participate were included in analyses. The response rate for supervisors was 100%. Among the group members, 73.6% were men, 26.4% were women. The age range of the employee sample was 25.6 % between 20-29

years old, 38.3% between 30-39 years old, 21.7% between 40-49 years old, 8.3% above 40 years old and 6.1% of undisclosed age. The tenure range of the employee sample was 27.8% between 1-5 years, 18.8% between 6-10 years, 15.9% between 11-15 years, 19.9% between 16-20 years, 16.2% above 21 years and 1.4% undisclosed. The supervisor sample was composed of 100% men. Among the group members, 92.4% have a bachelor's degree, 4.7% have a Master's degree or PhD and 2.9% of members chose not to disclose their education level.

## Measures

Three different scales were used to collect data. The intrinsic motivation scale was developed by Lawler and Hall (1970) and adapted to the Turkish language by Yılmaz (2008). It included 4 dimensions and 22 items. Items were rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Reliability of the scale in the current study was found to be .90. The organisational citizenship scale was developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990) and adapted to the Turkish language by Bitmiş, Sökmen and Turgut (2014). It consists of 21 items and 5 dimensions such as courtesy, sportsmanship, altruism, conscientiousness, and civic virtue (Bitmiş, Sökmen and Turgut, 2014). Items rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Reliability of the scale in the current study was found to be .77. Finally, the job performance scale was developed by Kirkman and Rosen (1999) and adapted to the Turkish language by Özkan (2017). It had four items rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always). Reliability of the scale in the current study was found to be .95. All measures were adapted to the Turkish language and had high-level reliability and validity. The intrinsic motivation scale and organisational citizenship behaviour scale were identified by workers; the performance scale was identified by both workers and supervisors (school managers) for all workers.

## FINDINGS

Means and standard deviation of variables are shown in Table 1. Table 1 shows that the highest mean is self-determined job performance with 4.34. The second highest mean is organisational citizenship behaviour with 4.27, followed by manager-determined job performance with 4.08, and the lowest mean is intrinsic motivation with 4.04. It can be seen that all of the means are high.

Table 1: Descriptive Analysis

Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Intrinsic motivation	277	4,07	10,95
Organisational citizenship behaviour	277	4,27	9,39
Job performance (self-determined)	277	4,34	1,77
Job performance (manager-determined)	277	4,08	3,21

Linear regression analysis was conducted for Hypothesis 1, 2 and 3, using the same control and criterion variables with Hypothesis 1. The results (see Step 3 in Table 2) showed that the relationship between intrinsic motivation and job performance was significant and positive ( $\beta = .368$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Hence, Hypothesis 3 was supported. Hypothesis 4 was examined using the procedure proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986):

- (a) The predictor (intrinsic motivation) must be related to the criterion (job performance), as supported by Hypothesis 1.
- (b) The predictor must be related to the mediator (organisational citizenship behaviour), as supported by Hypothesis 2.
- (c) The mediator (organisational citizenship behaviour) must be related to the criterion (job performance), as supported by Hypothesis 3.

(d) The effect between the predictor (intrinsic motivation) and the criterion (job performance) must decrease when the mediator is controlled.

When organisational citizenship behaviour was entered in the regression model (see in Table 3), the beta coefficient for job performance was statistically significant and reduced from  $\beta = .368$  ( $p < .001$ ) to  $\beta = .235$  ( $p < .01$ ), and the beta coefficient for organisational citizenship behaviour was still significant ( $\beta = .233$ ,  $p < .05$ ). In addition, we tested Sobel for mediating effect and found that the z value is significant. Thus, organisational citizenship behaviour partially mediated the relationship between intrinsic motivation and job performance, and Hypothesis 4 was supported.

Table 2: Linear regression analysis

<b>Hypotesis 1</b>					
<b>Predictor</b>	<b>Criterion</b>	<b><math>\beta</math></b>	<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Intrinsic Motivation	Job performance	.368	.132	6.449	.000
<b>Hypotesis 2</b>					
<b>Predictor</b>	<b>Mediator</b>	<b><math>\beta</math></b>	<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Intrinsic Motivation	Organisational Citizenship Behavior	.656	.428	13.565	.000
<b>Hypotesis 3</b>					
<b>Mediator</b>	<b>Criterion</b>	<b><math>\beta</math></b>	<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Organisational Citizenship Behavior	Job performance	.314	.143	6.540	.000

Table 3: Linear regression analysis

<b>Hypotesis 4</b>						
<b>Predictor</b>	<b>Criterion</b>	<b><math>\beta</math></b>	<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>	<b>Sobel (z)/Sig.</b>
Intrinsic Motivation	Job performance	<u>.235</u>	.175	3.032	.000	12.632/0.000
		<u>.233</u>		3.060	.000	
Organisational Citizenship Behavior						

Results of the study suggest that intrinsic motivation had a positive impact on job performance (that measured self-determination) and that organisational citizenship behaviour partially mediated this impact. On the other hand, it was found that there was no relationship between job performance measured by workers and by managers and intrinsic motivation had no positive impact on job performance assessed by school managers.

## DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Means of the variables show that (Table 1) the highest mean is self-determined job performance with 4.34. The second-highest mean is organisational citizenship behaviour with 4.27, followed by manager-determined job performance with 4.08, and the lowest mean intrinsic motivation was 4.04. Results show that all means are high and many teachers have strong intrinsic motivation and organisational citizenship behaviour. The self-determined job performance

mean is higher than manager-determined job performance mean. Teachers perceive their performance as higher than managers do. Similar to this finding, it was found that there was no relationship between job performance as measured by workers and by managers. This result could be explained with the suggestion that neither side knows its expectations about job performance.

Based on the results above, it was found that the effect of intrinsic motivation on self-determined job performance is 13.20%, which means that intrinsic motivation is “the glue” in school organisation and works well to motivate teachers. Previous results also support this finding and it was found that intrinsic motivation affects job performance (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Grant, 2008; Karatepe and Tekinkus, 2006; Lawler and Hall, 1970; Tierney, Farmer and Graen, 1999; Collins, 2010; Dinger et al., 2015; Joo, 2010). Individuals who are intrinsically motivated tend to be driven by their inherent interest in the work itself and enjoyment, and thus feel naturally drawn toward carrying out their work. Here, the decision to make effort is self-determined (Grant, 2008). Intrinsic motivation is the motivation to perform an activity for itself, in order to experience the pleasure and satisfaction inherent in the activity (Deci, Connell and Ryan, 1989). When individuals’ performance in an organisation is based on intrinsic motivation, they tend to be highly engaged in the task itself, and as a result, their performance improves. According to Grant (2008), when people are intrinsically motivated, they tend to be process focused and thus, they view their task as “an end in and of itself” (p. 49). In addition, the results suggest that employees perceived higher in-role job performance when they had higher intrinsic motivation (Joo and Park, 2010).

It was found that the effect of organisational citizenship behaviour on self-determined job performance is 14.30%. This shows how organisational citizenship behaviour is significant in shaping schools and enhancing school performance (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Fetter, 1991). MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Fetter (1991) assessed the relationship of altruism, civic virtue, courtesy, and sportsmanship to performance ratings and found that citizenship behaviours were just as important as objective measures of productivity in determining a subordinate’s performance rating. When we evaluate independently, the current research shows that organisational citizenship behaviour affects job performance more than intrinsic motivation. These results could be explained with the suggestion that motivation is only an impulse but citizenship behaviour is “behaviour”, such as performance; so, organisational citizenship behaviour affects performance more than intrinsic motivation.

As a result, intrinsic motivation had a positive impact on job performance (that measured self-determination) and organisational citizenship behaviour partially mediated this impact. Therefore, it can be said that employees are more concerned with performing the work itself rather than performing extra work beyond the formal job description (Grant, 2008).

## IMPLICATIONS

There are practical implications of this study. Given the importance of the teachers’ job performance for the survival and development of a society in a fiercely competitive market environment (Morrison and Phelps, 1999), managers need to provide supportive behaviour (e.g., developmental feedback) to improve teacher job performance. For example, managers can provide supportive measures such as mentoring (Allen et al., 2004) and relevant training programs (Joo and Park, 2010), to stimulate employees’ intrinsic motivation and organisational citizenship behaviour, which is positively linked to employee job performance (Gou et al., 2014). The results support the value of supervisors’ intrinsic motivation as a possible way to facilitate the improvement of employee job performance. Positioning the sense of calling as an antecedent to intrinsic motivation is an important contribution because intrinsic motivation has been connected to many positive workplace outcomes, including high performance (Dinger et al., 2015). In this sense, it is important to identify what motivates individuals intrinsically and

to structure their activities around these motivators to facilitate a high performance (De Jesus et al., 2013).

### **LIMITATIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

There are several limitations to this study. First, the generalisability of our findings may be limited because the study was conducted in Turkey and results may be different in another cultural context. Future researchers could replicate our findings in another cultural context. Second, common method variance may have influenced the results. Thus, different information sources should be used to assess independent variables in future research. Third, a cross-sectional design limits the ability to test causal associations between variables. We cannot exclude the possibility that employees with a high level of job performance may be biased toward supervisors and the organisation. To address this, a longitudinal design should be considered in future research. Finally, because organisational citizenship behaviour only partially mediated the effect of intrinsic motivation on job performance in this study, other mediators, such as self-efficacy, job crafting, and social exchange should be considered in future research.

Job performance was operationalised via self-report and school manager measure. But the results show that there are differences between them. Future researchers could investigate the cause of that and design action researches to close the gap between employees and school manager evaluation.

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## THE EFFECT OF ENRICHMENT PROGRAMMES ON IMPROVING MENTAL FLEXIBILITY AND INVENTIVE WORK BEHAVIOUR FOR GIFTED STUDENTS: A VALUE-ADDED STUDY

ALAA ELDIN A. AYOUB<sup>1</sup>

### ABSTRACT

The current research aims to evaluate the added value of enrichment programmes in improving mental flexibility and inventive work behaviour among gifted students in the intermediate stage. Taking a sample of 92 students from the ninth grade who were participating in summer enrichment programmes, the researcher applied the scales of *mental flexibility*, and *inventive work behaviour* before and after the programme. By using cluster analysis, the sample was divided into three distinct groups according to their baseline performance (high, intermediate and low performance). The results of the research show that the programmes had a statistically significant effect on the dimensions of mental flexibility and inventive work behaviour in the three clusters. Additionally, the results indicated the effectiveness of the programme in providing low-performance students with greater added value than intermediate-performance students, and high-performance students. Also, the programme earned the intermediate-performance students greater added value than it did for high-performance students.

**Keywords:** Enrichment programmes, Mental flexibility, Inventive work behaviour, Gifted students, Value-added studies.

### INTRODUCTION

Many researchers emphasise the importance of enrichment programmes in meeting the needs of academically, cognitively and socially-emotionally talented students. In light of this, the educational systems in many countries around the world have designed programmes that foster and nurture talented students through various enrichment programmes (Ayoub and Aljughaiman, 2016). There is an increased attention on talented students and the development of the programmes that take care of them in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, catalysed by the 2000 programme of detecting talented students (Aljughaiman and Ayoub, 2012). At the same, the General Directorate of Talents in the Ministry of Education was established, followed the year after by the King Abdul-Aziz and His Companions Foundation for Giftedness and Creativity (also known as the Mawhiba Foundation (Mawhiba, 2015). In 2002, the summer enrichment programmes were first launched (Aljughaiman et al., 2009).

This expansion in the application of gifted programmes has necessitated an urgent need to follow up and develop these programmes in order to cope with the development and rapid growth of knowledge and the continuous changes in the educational systems. This highlights the fact that evaluation is one of the most important processes in the success of the educational programmes. The goal of evaluation is not only to present some data that are related to gifted programmes but also to identify the proper methods for developing these programmes (Royse, Thyer and Padgett, 2010; Aljughaiman and Ayoub, 2013).

Evaluation is crucial to the success of gifted education programmes (Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation, 1994). The evaluation of the gifted programme is an integral part of the programme development cycle, as well as the difficulty of maintaining

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continuity and improving the quality of the programme which is not subject to a systematic evaluation. This is in line with the important observation of Gallagher (1998): we face the risk of losing legal documentation of the true contribution of gifted programmes if there is no strategy to design appropriate evaluation programmes and measurement procedures for these distinctive groups. Callahan (1996) has urged those who are interested in caring for gifted students to continue their efforts to evaluate these programmes and track their impact: “we have observed a change in students in a narrative way that has earned us parental support, but we have avoided collecting systematic data that can provide strong evidence of the success of our programmes” (p. 159). White, Fletcher-Campbell and Ridley (2003) have determined that the lack of research-based practices in gifted education gives the continuity to follow experience-based practices only, which is certainly unacceptable and untenable.

Despite all efforts to evaluate the enrichment programmes, many programmes and services still operate without adequate evaluation procedures to document their effectiveness. In a review of giftedness literature, Jolly and Kettler (2008) found that the majority of this literature (83.6%) provided only a general description without good data. This shows that there is an urgent need to transform evaluation research from being descriptive to evaluating the most effective practices, in order to improve practices in gifted education. In addition, as with all educational programmes, gifted education programmes must be held accountable to demonstrate that the allocated funds to the programme have been disbursed efficiently and effectively.

This is true not only in the Arab context, but for all countries with a history of gifted programmes. VanTassel-Baska (2006) has emphasised the poor levels of interest in programme evaluation in the United States compared to other programme components. Moreover, the reports of the Council of State Directors of Programmes for the Gifted in the United States have stated that there are no clear accountability procedures for half of gifted programmes in the United States and, in addition, in 20 US states the local education departments do not require reporting on their services in the area of gifted education. In another four states, local education departments must present their reports only when they require financial support (Council of State Directors of Programmes for the Gifted, 2011).

Hence, many countries have sought to find strategies and models for evaluation that overcome these problems in the evaluation of educational programmes in general and the gifted programmes in particular, and to make important contributions in assessing performance and improving accounting procedures. Value added assessment is one of the most important and modern methods to measure the performance and effectiveness of institutions and programmes (Papay, 2011; Ayoub, 2015). Its significance has caused many countries, such as the United States of America, the United Kingdom and Australia, to adopt it to evaluate and make accountable their institutions and programmes. The main concern in this type of evaluation appears in issues such as programme effectiveness, accountability and retrospective and forward-looking aspects. It is both retrospective as it tries to determine if the programme is effective and forward-looking, as it is frequently used to make key decisions about the future of the programme, such as continuation or termination of the programme, and increased or reduced funding (Borland, 2003).

In addition, the problem of the current study is illustrated by the indicators of shortcomings surrounding the evaluation mechanisms of the programmes, which are represented by many questions, such as: Did the programme achieve its role in the growth of the performance of each learner?; how much did the learner achieve because of his or her presence in the programme?; and how can the progress of the learner be measured? In this regard, some researchers (Robert and Michael, 2008; Braun, Chudowshy and Koenig, 2010; Northern Ireland Assembly, 2011) suggest that shortcomings in the evaluation of the effectiveness of the programme are shown only by measuring students' growth on the pre/post

test as the interest here is limited to the average performance of student groups and not to each individual student. Therefore, we cannot make decisions or develop policies related to educational practices so that all students are considered, not only the average student. Braun, Chudowshy, and Koenig (2010) explain statistically that regression to the mean is a phenomenon that occurs when selecting groups of students who have very high or very low scores in the test, such as students' grades (in the pre- or post-application). Therefore, if there is some random dispersion and fluctuation in grades, those whose scores are high can only go down, while those whose grades are below average may rise slightly, or move upward only. It is worth mentioning that the effects of regression may work against measuring the real performance of students, and this may create some problems for those who are interested in evaluating the gifted, regardless of the amount of variance in the error. In this regard, many researchers agree that the pre/post test leads to inaccurate judgments for the following considerations: it does not take into account the previous knowledge and the level of the student and considers that all students in the pre-test have the same baseline; and it does not take into consideration the differences between students in abilities.

In light of the objectives and nature of the enrichment programmes, the present study seeks to fill the present gap in the evaluation of the gifted programmes in Saudi Arabia by using the value added approach to evaluate the growth of the performance (mental flexibility and inventive work behaviour) of the gifted students participating in summer enrichment programmes. These measures are used because these variables are related with the objectives of the enrichment programmes.

## **THE ENRICHMENT PROGRAMMES**

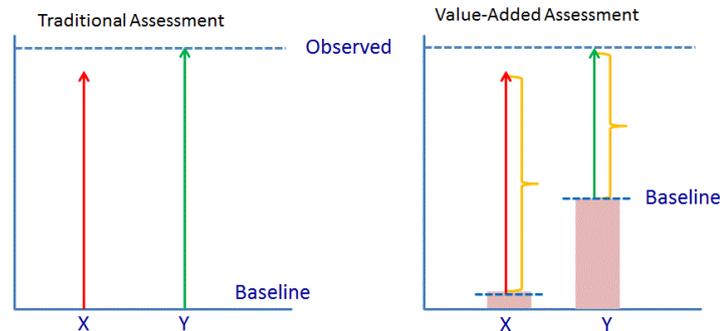
Summer enrichment programmes in KSA are four-week programmes where gifted students receive specialised scientific knowledge and advanced-level skills in order to meet the academic, cognitive, psychological and social needs of gifted students. They also include: activities to help gifted students explore their abilities and tendencies in various academic fields and acquire basic skills in thinking and scientific research and allowing students to perform scientific projects (individual and group) in a scientific field under the supervision of specialists in this field. The summer gifted programmes focus the student as s/he is the center of learning activities (the “student-centered approach”). In the literature of enrichment programmes in Saudi Arabia, summer enrichment programmes are considered as one of the most giftedness-focused activities through different regions in Saudi Arabia. Also, they are characterised with continuity as they are held annually. The first of these programmes began in 2000 through the establishment of 9 programmes for male and female students, and the number of summer enrichment programmes has continued to increase until the number of programmes in the summer of 2013 reached 51 programmes for male and female students (Aljughaiman and Ayoub, 2017).

## **VALUE ADDED ASSESSMENT**

Many studies (Goldstein and Spiegelhalter, 1996; Schochet and Chiang, 2010) have emphasised the importance of using the value added approach in evaluating the educational institutions and programmes as an alternative to average test scores, which are commonly used as the most important indicators to express performance growth. Gascon (2006) indicates that the use of value added assessment depends on the analysis of the results of the tests by different statistical methods that take into account the characteristics of the learner, which may affect the degree and growth; the simplest way to calculate the degree of value-added growth, is to present the baseline achievement of the learner and compare it with the current observed achievement, in order to determine their growth over a certain period of time. Figure 1 shows

the difference between traditional assessment and value added assessment in measuring the growth of student performance.

**Figure 1: Difference between traditional assessment and value added assessment on growth of student performance**



In the traditional assessment, learning outcomes (current performance) are measured without taking into account the student's prior knowledge and their level. The students in programme Y may have prior knowledge of the subject of the programme and thus they have achieved the learning outcome unlike or opposite to the students who are participating in programme X. In the evaluation of value added, the prior knowledge and the level of the students are taken into account as figure 1 shows. The students participating in programme Y have more prior knowledge of the subject of the programme than the students participating in programme X. Although the students participating in programme Y achieved learning outcomes, the added value of programme X to student performance is more than the value added of programme Y to the performance of the students (Ayoub, 2015).

### MENTAL FLEXIBILITY

Developing the mental flexibility of gifted students is one of the main objectives of the enrichment programmes. According to Matthew and Stemler (2013), mental flexibility is an individual's intellectual ability and his ability to adapt and absorb new ideas in accordance with changing circumstances and different perspectives. Wecker et al. (2005) add that it is the smoothness of an individual's thoughts and ability to transform his thinking according to the changing circumstances. The importance of mental flexibility as a mental function helps the individual to change and diversify the ways of dealing with things according to its nature, by analysing their difficulties into factors that can be grasped and utilised in finding solutions (Dennis and Vander, 2010). Mental flexibility is related to the cognitive strategies of self-organised learning and is closely linked to motivation (Cartwright, 2008). Therefore, mental flexibility is the cognitive basis of creativity and invention. The inventor possesses a high skill of diversity of visions and the construction of data in formulae that correspond to the latest developments. In addition, flexible individuals have the ability to change their views when they receive additional information and data. They share multiple outcomes and activities, build on their outcomes from problem-solving strategies, and generate self-knowledge through the interaction and complementarity of the knowledge that they receive and their prior knowledge. In light of the above, this study concludes that the choice of mental flexibility as a product of mental learning is the reason behind the superiority and distinction of exceptional people because it is the actual generator of ideas, solutions, alternatives and opportunities. Also, it helps the individual to think creatively and inventively.

## INVENTIVE WORK BEHAVIOUR

Inventive thinking is considered as one of the most important skills of the modern age because it is the real bridge through which the theoretical ideas of societies and individuals can be reflected to practical creative and inventive work (Sahak, Soh and Osman, 2012). There is no doubt that today's economy is based on technology and inventive thinking, and inventive thinking is now important for gaining wealth, as Ali (2015) has observed. Inventive thinking has specific concepts and thinking has its own concept. Sokol et al. (2008) define inventive thinking as the ability to solve unusual or untraditional problems in different inventive ways while avoiding the multitude of attempts and errors. The Australian Bureau of Statistics (quoted in Curtin, Stanwick and Beddie, 2011) defines inventive thinking as a new or developed product or application, service, operational process, management process, or marketing method.

In this context, invention thinking differs from innovation thinking in that invention thinking refers to the generation of a new idea or method that was previously unknown, while innovation refers to the use of a previously known idea or method in a new or better way. This confirms that invention thinking works on mental influences in generating the new idea, while innovation focuses on the economic effects of transferring the idea to a new product. The relationship between inventive and innovative thinking includes creativity as they are considered as two types of creative output. Taylor has identified five levels of creative output (quoted in Runco, 2007). Invention thinking has specific strategies and skills that can be developed or assisted by students through appropriate training programmes in school environments. Inventive thinking skills include cognitive curiosity, creativity, crisis management (Ali, 2015), adaptation, self-direction, risk management, higher thinking skills, and reasoning (Abdullah and Osman, 2010).

## METHOD

### Participants

This study's participants were 92 male and female (males,  $n = 49$ ; females,  $n = 43$ ) students from grade 9, ages ranging from 14 to 15 years ( $M = 15.37$  years,  $SD = 0.81$ ). They were randomly chosen from those students who were participating in summer enrichment programmes.

### Measures

#### *Mental flexibility test*

To assess the gifted students' mental flexibility, the researcher developed a test drawing on the tests and scales of: Multiple Cognitive Abilities Assessment (MCAA) (The Mawhiba Foundation, 2015); Aurora Battery (Chart, Grigorenko and Sternberg, 2008); and The Munich High Abilities Tests Battery (MHBT) (Matthew, Beckman and Sternberg, 2009). This test consisted of 40 items and two dimensions. The first dimension was *flexible inference* which refers to the student's ability to discover one relation or more between things and events. It can be measured by two subtests, *counterfactual analogies* and *novel analogies*. The second dimension was flexible mapping which refers to the student's ability to recognise a strong relationship (high level relations) between two edges that have a weak relation (low level relations). It can be measured by two subtests: *prediction* and *insight*. A sample of 271 students was used to calculate the validity of the mental flexibility test by confirmatory factor analysis to obtain factor loadings; the method of maximum likelihood supported the construct validity of test. All the standardised loadings and their associated t-values for the counterfactual analogies, novel analogies, prediction, and insight tests were significant. The fit indices for this full three scale model were all excellent. Specifically,  $\chi^2/df = 1.56$ . In addition, the values of

RMSEA = 0.054, GFI = 0.95, AGFI = 0.93, and NFI = 0.94 indicated that the suggested model for Mental flexibility test fits with the data. The reliability coefficient of the Aurora-a-Battery by using Cronbach alpha was (.76) for counterfactual analogies, (0.77) for novel analogies, (0.78) for prediction, (0.79) for insight, and (0.81) for the test.

### ***Inventive Work Behaviour scale***

Inventive work behaviour was assessed with a self-report that consisted of 31 items and taken from: the Malaysian 21st Century Skills Scale advanced by Soh, Osman and Arsad (2012); the Inventive Thinking Scale developed by Abdullah and Osman (2010), and the Inventive Thinking scale prepared by Ayoub (2016). Answers were rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly agree” (5) to “strongly disagree” (1). To calculate the validity and the reliability of the scale in the Arab environment, the researcher administered the scale to a sample of 9th grade students (N=271). As a result of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) by LISREL (Version 8.8), the factor loading values were determined to range between 0.37 to 0.95. The fit indices of the Inventive Work Behaviour scale were  $\chi^2/df = 1.86$ , the values of the root mean square error of approximation were (RMSEA = 0.045), goodness of fit index were (GFI = 0.96), adjusted goodness of fit index were (AGFI = 0.92), and normed fit index were (NFI = 0.93) which indicated a good fit of the suggested model to the data. The Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  of the scale was (.76) for self-regulation, (0.76) for Creativity, (0.74) for cognitive curiosity, (0.77) for Willingness to risk, (0.78) for adaptability and managing complexity, (0.79) for higher order thinking, and (0.80) for the scale.

## **Results**

### ***Cluster analyses***

To determine the participants’ profiles on the study variables (counterfactual analogies, novel analogies, prediction, insight, self-regulation, creativity, cognitive curiosity, willingness to risk, adaptability and higher order thinking), K-means (k=3) clustering analysis was used. The researcher classified the 92 participants across the three clusters (see Table 1).

**Table 1: K-means clustering analysis results of study variables**

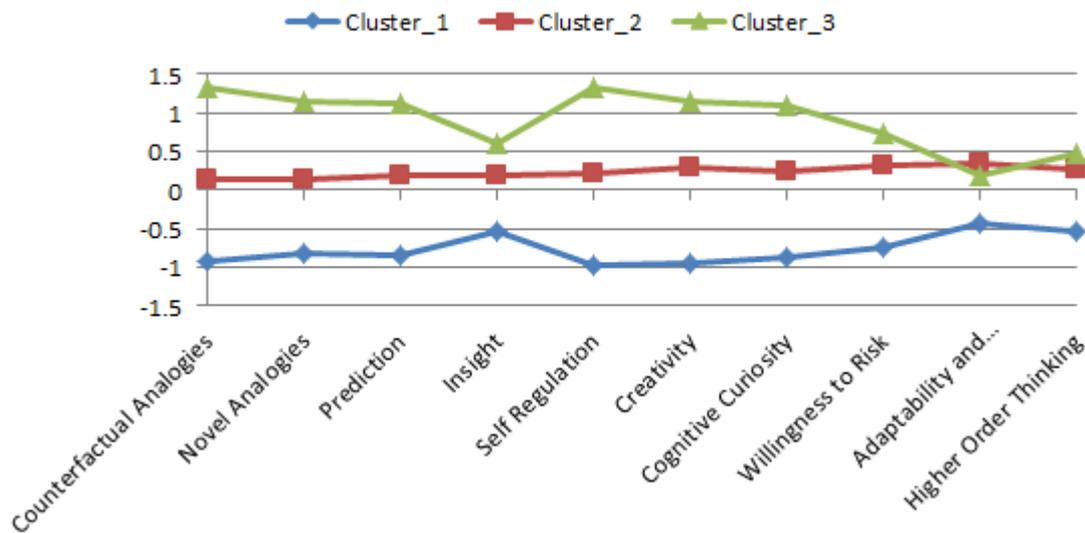
		Cluster_1	Cluster_2	Cluster_3
		M(SD)	M(SD)	M(SD)
Mental Flexibility	Counterfactual	21.22(1.32)	24.33(1.47)	27.86(1.28)
	Novel Analogies	22.11(1.68)	24.61(1.66)	27.23(1.69)
	Prediction	22.46(2.08)	25.49(1.84)	28.27(1.49)
	Insight	24.57(2.68)	26.39(1.97)	27.46(1.74)
Inventive Work Behaviour	Self-Regulation	13.54(1.10)	16.46(1.06)	19.23(0.75)
	Creativity	12.46(1.02)	14.73(1.07)	16.27(0.83)
	Cognitive Curiosity	10.87(0.75)	12.21(0.78)	13.23(0.61)
	Willingness to Risk	11.22(0.89)	12.39(0.83)	12.86(0.99)
Adaptability and Managing Complexity	Adaptability	8.62(1.38)	9.85(1.48)	9.59(1.71)
	Higher Order Thinking	8.41(1.26)	9.67(1.53)	10.00(1.72)
	Sex			
	Boys n (%)	21 (56.76)	12 (54.55)	16 (48.48)
	Girls n (%)	16 (43.24)	10 (45.45)	17 (51.52)

Table 1 shows that the sample size of the students in the first cluster (low performance) was 37 (40.22%), and the sample size of the students in the second cluster (intermediate performance) was 22 (23.91%), while the sample size for the participant in the third cluster (high performance) was 33 (35.87%). To determine the validity of cluster analysis or, one-way ANOVA was used. Results are shown in Table 2.

**Table 2: The validity of cluster analysis - ANOVA**

		Cluster		Error		F
		Mean Square	df	Mean Square	df	
Mental	Counterfactual	35.861	2	.217	89	165.55**
Flexibility	Novel Analogies	27.151	2	.412	89	65.85**
	Prediction	27.694	2	.400	89	69.21**
	Insight	10.071	2	.796	89	12.65**
Inventive	Self-Regulation	37.962	2	.169	89	224.12**
Work	Creativity	32.308	2	.296	89	108.98**
Behaviour	Cognitive Curiosity	28.714	2	.377	89	76.12**
	Willingness to Risk	17.488	2	.629	89	27.78**
	Adaptability	5.723	2	.894	89	6.40**
	Higher Order Thinking	8.479	2	.832	89	10.19**

Table 2 shows that F values were statistically significant ( $p < .01$ ), which confirms the valid differentiation of the three clusters on the variables of the study. To determine the profiles of the three clusters in the counterfactual analogies, novel analogies, prediction, insight, self-regulation, creativity, cognitive curiosity, willingness to risk, adaptability and higher order thinking, all the variables were converted to standardised Z scores ( $m = 0$ ,  $sd = 1$ ) (Figure 2).

**Figure 2: Differentiation of the performance of students at their baseline on the variables of the research**

### *The percentage of value added*

To determine the percentages of the value added of the summer enrichment programme on the dimensions of the variables of mental flexibility and the behaviour of the inventive work of the gifted students, the researcher calculated the gain score and the percentage of the value added of the programme on the performance of the students of each cluster in the study variables. Table 3 shows the degree of gain score and the percentage of value added for student performance in each of the three groups (clusters).

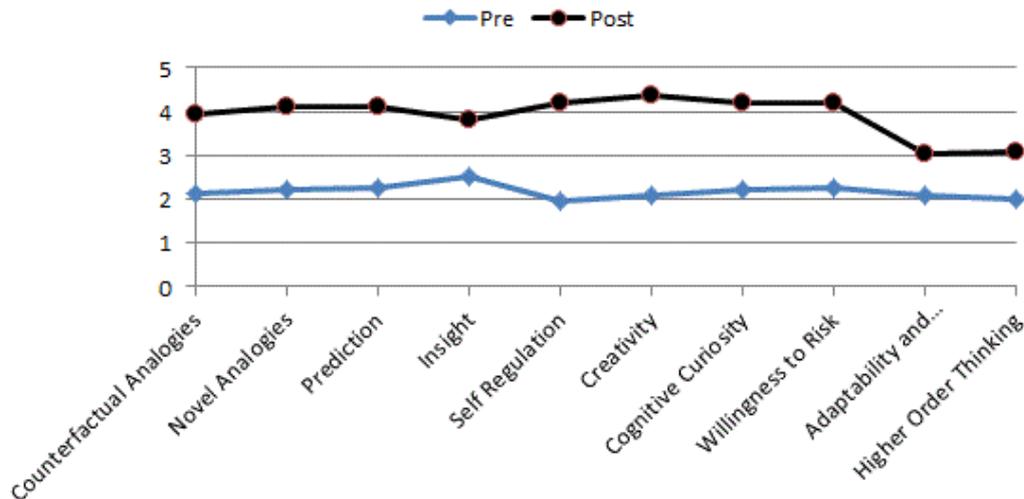
**Table 3: The degree of gain score and the percentage of value added for the performance of students in each of the three groups**

Variables	Cluster_1		Cluster_2		Cluster_3	
	Gain	Value-added (%)	Gain	Value-added (%)	Gain	Value-added (%)

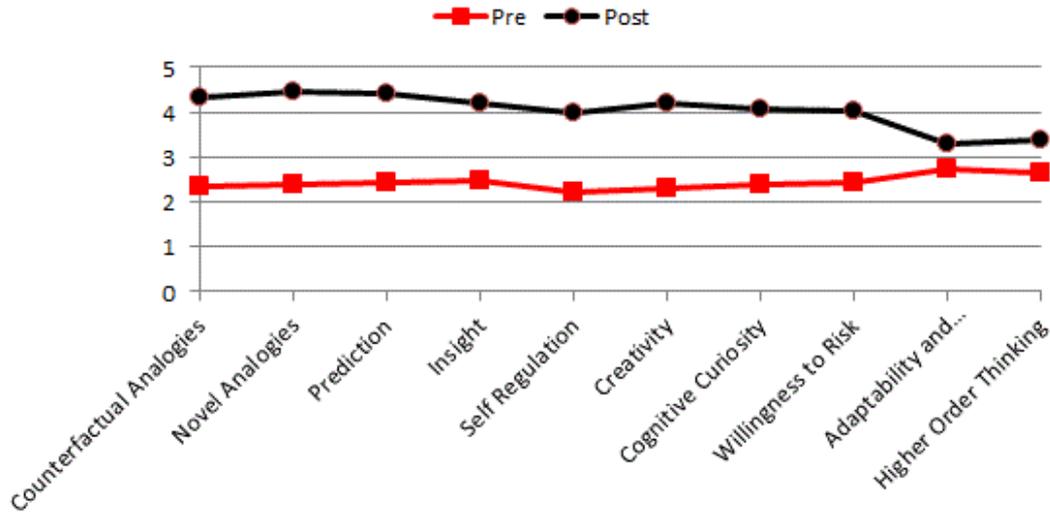
Mental	Counterfactual	18.11	36.22%	18.68	37.36%	18.76	37.52%
Flexibility	Novel Analogies	19.00	38.00%	18.09	36.18%	20.03	40.06%
	Prediction	18.51	37.02%	16.86	33.72%	18.49	36.98%
	Insight	13.68	27.36%	14.32	28.64%	15.52	31.04%
Inventive	Self-Regulation	15.81	45.17%	6.36	18.17%	11.33	32.37%
	Work	Creativity	13.84	46.13%	8.55	28.50%	10.55
Behaviour	Cognitive Curiosity	10.03	40.12%	6.59	26.36%	8.24	32.96%
	Willingness to Risk	9.73	38.92%	6.77	27.08%	7.82	31.28%
	Adaptability	3.54	17.70%	4.36	21.80%	3.47	17.35%
	Higher Order Thinking	3.84	19.20%	4.68	23.40%	3.79	18.95%

The results show that the value added ratios on the dimensions of mental flexibility that were gained by students participating in the summer enrichment programme ranged from: (27.36% - 38.00%) to students with low performance; (28.64% - 37.36%) for students with intermediate performance; and (31.04% - 40.06%) for high-performing students. The value added ratios on the dimensions of inventive work behaviour ranged between: (17.70% - 46.13%) for students with low performance; and (18.17% - 28.50%) for students with intermediate performance; and (17.35% - 35.17%) for high-performing students. These results indicate the effectiveness of the summer enrichment programme in providing programme participants with value added to the dimensions of variables (academic orientation, practical knowledge processes, emotional social characteristics, and ethical sensitivity). Figures 3, 4 and 5 show the value added of the summer enrichment programme on the performance of students with low performance, intermediate performance and high performance, respectively.

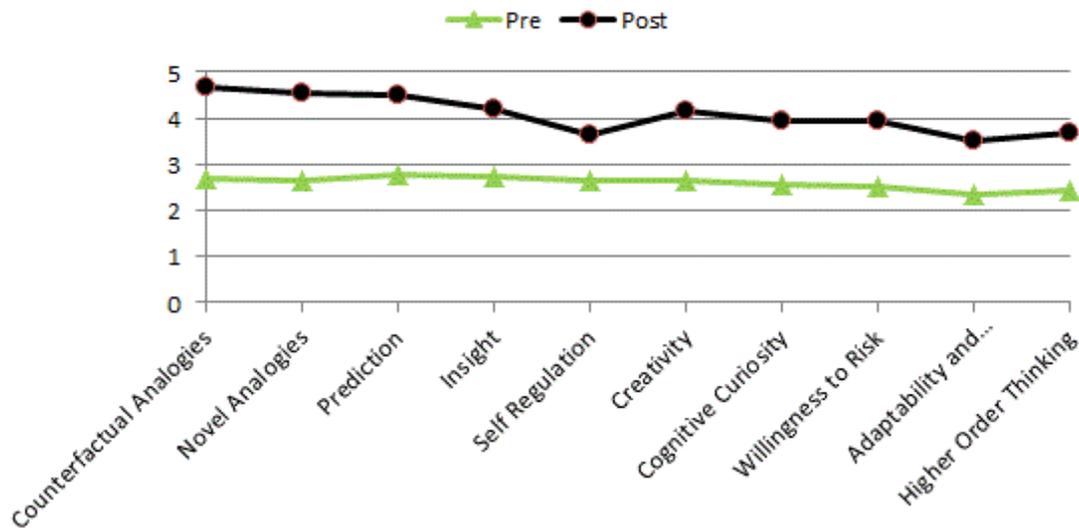
**Figure 3: The value added of summer enrichment programme to the low-performing students**



**Figure 4: The value added of summer enrichment programme to the intermediate-performing students**



**Figure 5: The value added of summer enrichment programme to the high-performing students**



## DISCUSSION

The research goal was to identify the value added that the summer enrichment programme confers to the performance of gifted students in the dimensions of mental flexibility and inventive work behaviour. Three groups of students who were participating in the enrichment programme were identified according to their starting point on the variables of the research (low-performance, intermediate-performance and high-performance). The sizes of the sub-samples of the three groups were 37, 22 and 33 (40.22%, 23.91%, and 35.87%). The results of the ANOVA among the three groups confirms the validity of the three distinct groups of the basic study sample, based on their scores on the sub-measures of the mental flexibility variables and the behaviour of the inventive work. This result can be attributed to the fact that the sample of students were from different schools, and it was possible that some students had enrolled in previous gifted programmes at school or had participated in some enrichment programmes and activities in their schools.

In light of this, Aljughaiman and Ayoub (2017) point out that the performance of students who enrol in gifted programmes is better than that of students who receive special services in heterogeneous classes and of those students who have never received services.

Delcourt et al. (1994) also mention that school principals see that students who participate in gifted programmes have significant positive changes in their personalities several weeks later. These findings support the hypothesis that participation in well-designed programmes with enthusiastic peers and distinguished teachers can have far-reaching effects on the lives of these students.

The statistically significant impact of the programme on the mental flexibility refers to the development of the ability of the students participating in the programme to look at the situations and problems facing them from different angles, and to think about the different ways of solving the problem, taking into account all the available facts and information, and the multiple and diverse choices before making decisions and overcoming the difficulties and problem solving. This result can be explained by the success of the programme in helping participating students to: develop their abilities to gather facts and information, face difficult situations and problems; think in multiple ways to solve the problem; look at difficult situations from different angles; and take into account the different choices before response and decision-making. Students who are characterised with cognitive flexibility are more aware of employing the mental processes in their own experiences, and this is for their cognitive development comparable to others who are characterised by cognitive stagnation (Schraw and Moshman, 1995). The enrichment and training programmes also help students to be aware of the alternatives involved in the situation, the willingness to adapt the situation, and the student's tendency and self-efficacy to demonstrate cognitive flexibility in any situation (Bub, Masson and Deák, 2003; Chevalier and Blaye, 2006; Lalonde, 2006).

The statistically significant impact of the programme on the behaviour of inventive work in light of the activities of the programme, which emphasise the importance of promoting the tendency to read in the preferred field for each student and reading about outstanding scientists in that field, encourages students to generate self-knowledge and mental mobility from multiple angles of new situations. Additionally, the enrichment programme's activities focus on the importance of learners in organising and modifying their own knowledge and experiences, and in encouraging them to change their knowledge-processing system. Many studies (Neihart et al., 2002; Hughes, 2003; Tieso, 2005) agree that enrichment programmes provide real services and opportunities for gifted students to work for some time with others who have similar interests, abilities and incentives in the programme. Teachers benefit from this freedom in developing students' social and emotional characteristics by forming flexible groups within activities.

## CONCLUSION

The results of this study indicate that gifted programmes are effective in helping the students of the first group (low performance) to achieve greater value added than the students of the second group (intermediate performance) and the students of the third group (high performance). Also, it helps the students of the second group (intermediate performance) to achieve greater value added than the students of the third group (high performance). The current outcome can be explained in the light of the activities of the programme that have provided the opportunity for students to collaborate, participate, and benefit from each other's experiences, and from the transfer of learning and experience impact from high-performing to low-performing students. This result should be understood in the light of a recent review by a team of the National Association of Gifted Children (quoted in Neihart et al., 2002). It found that all gifted students needed to have the opportunity to learn with others of similar interests, abilities, motivations, and also needed an appropriate level of challenge within their own programmes (Neihart et al., 2002).

Based on students' achievement files, this study found that a large number of high-performance students have participated in school enrichment programmes. So, the current

result that the programme does not confer high value added to the high-performance students compared to low and intermediate performers can be explained as due to the partial similarity in the objectives and the content of the programmes offered to gifted students in schools or enrichment programmes in special programmes. This result can be understood in light of research that indicates that students who enrol in gifted programmes or receive special services in heterogeneous classes are better than those students who have never received services or enrolled in any gifted programmes (Matthews et al., 2008). It can be concluded that the value added (the difference between the post-measurement which represents the impact of the programme and the pre-measurement represents the prior knowledge) of the programme on the performance of the low-performing students is higher than the value added of the programme to the performance of the high-performing students.

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## **EXPANDING THE EXPLANATORY SPHERE OF RATIONAL CHOICE THEORY: BRIDGING RATIONAL CHOICE THEORY AND SOCIAL IDENTITY THEORY**

JAMAL ABDI

### **ABSTRACT**

The main purpose of this paper is to suggest expansion of rational choice theory's explanatory sphere through bridging of rational choice theory and social identity theory. In terms of interest(s), it is suggested that the clear distinction between the individual "self" and an inescapable social group, e.g. race, is neutralised through bridging of rational choice theory and social identity theory. Hence, it is also argued that by pursuing the collective interest of an inescapable in-group, the individual is indeed pursuing its own interest, as the interests of the individual are inextricably linked to the interests of the whole group. Therefore, the pursuit of private utility maximisation, on the expense of an inescapable in-group, is irrational while pursuing the collective interests of an inescapable in-group is indeed rational. Thus, through bridging of rational choice theory and social identity theory, the explanatory sphere of rational choice is expanded to include action undertaken in the name of a social group.

**Keywords:** Rational choice theory, Social identity theory, Self-interest, Individual mobility.

### **INTRODUCTION**

Due to its fundamental assumption of self-interest, rational choice theory falls short in explaining essentially any behavior that does not wed with the selfish dictates of private utility maximisation. In other words, rational choice theory falls short in explaining any "selfless" action undertaken in the name of an identity group (Aguiar and Francisco, 2009). Any "selfless" action undertaken in the name of an identity group is considered irrational and thus beyond the explanatory sphere of rational choice theory. Thus, social identity poses a rather significant challenge for rational choice theory. Externalist and internalist rational choice constitute the two approaches to social identity from rational choice theory (Yoshimichi, 2010). The former rejects social identity or reduces it to revealed preferences (Aguiar and Francisco, 2009). The latter considers social identity vital in explaining social action (Yoshimichi, 2010). It has been stressed that incorporation of social identity into rational choice theory would broaden the horizon of rational choice theory and enhance its explanatory power e.g. Yoshimichi (2010) and Aguiar and Francisco (2009). Yet a theory that fully incorporates social identity into rational choice theory has yet to be produced. The present paper proposes a rethinking of rational choice theory's explanatory sphere. Its main purpose is to suggest expansion of rational choice theory's explanatory sphere through bridging of rational choice theory and social identity theory. In terms of interest(s), it is suggested that the clear distinction between the individual "self" and an inescapable social group, e.g. race, is neutralised through bridging of rational choice theory and social identity theory. Through bridging of rational choice theory and social identity theory, it appears that an individual's self-interest is inextricably linked to that of the whole group if such group is inescapable i.e. membership is based on unalterable physical characteristics. Given the preceding, members of inescapable groups are indeed pursuing their own self-interest when pursuing the interest of the whole group. They are indeed acting rationally when pursuing the common interest of an inescapable group, through membership of which individual members are evaluated. Hence, provided that the low-status in-group that the individual wish to distance the "self" from, physically and/or psychologically, is escapable, then individual mobility is rational

even on the expense of the former in-group. Provided that the low-status in-group that the individual wish to distance the “self” from, physically and/or psychologically, is inescapable, then individual mobility, on the expense of an inescapable in-group, is irrational.

## **STRUCTURE**

The structure of the present paper is as follows. First, the main tenets of rational choice theory and social identity theory are briefly outlined. There are several versions of rational choice theory. However, each is not discussed in detail. Of prime interest is the fundamental assumption of self-interest. Regarding social identity theory, this paper draws on Tajfel and Turner (1979). The overriding argument, briefly outlined above, is developed and discussed more explicitly after the main tenets of rational choice theory and social identity theory are briefly outlined.

## **RATIONAL CHOICE THEORY**

The main assumption of rational choice theory is that an actor chooses an alternative that he/she believes brings about a social outcome that optimises his/her preference under subjectively conceived constraints (Yoshimichi, 2010). In other words, the individual has subjectively based “self-interest” and concerns itself only with consequences for itself. In a given decision-making situation, an actor considers a finite set of alternatives, ascribes consequences to them, orders these consequences according to their importance and values, and makes an optimal choice among available alternatives. Rational choice theory occupies a key position in relation to the conceptualisation of human action in the social sciences (Burns and Roszkowska, 2016). Yet, rational choice theory has been subjected to much criticism. The foundational implicit assumptions that rational choice theory rest on, constitute the point of departure of the common main criticism of rational choice theory. The first of these is that the decision-making actor is completely informed i.e. he/she is fully aware of all possible alternatives and knows which courses of action that will lead to which alternative. Second, the actor is capable of an objective, logical analysis of all available evidence in relation to the identification of best alternatives and can see the finest differences between choice alternatives. It is also assumed that a decision-making actor is completely rational i.e. he/she is not blurred by emotions and the like and is thus fully capable of ranking alternatives according to their utility relative to the ends the actor finds important (Sydney, 2017). Considering the generally accepted wisdom that people are constrained by institutions, cultural influences and psychological limitations, it becomes evident that the assumptions of rationality are problematic.

*A common main criticism is that real decision-makers are not strict rationally calculating and self-interested. They are constrained by institutions, cultural influences, and psychological limitations that make the assumptions of rationality problematic at best, and foolhardy at worst. (Burns and Roszkowska, 2016, p. 196)*

It is, however, not the objective of the present paper to engage in a discussion on the soundness of assumptions implicitly rooted in rational choice theory. As briefly explained in the introduction, the purpose is to suggest expansion of rational choice theory’s explanatory sphere by bridging rational choice theory and social identity theory.

## **SOCIAL IDENTITY THEORY**

Social identity theory is a classical social psychological theory. It departs from the assumption that an individual’s identity is in rather significant ways defined by membership of social groups (Jetten et al., 2008). Put differently, an individual has both a personal and a social identity, which constitutes a source of self-esteem as individuals are evaluated through membership of social groups e.g. class, nation, ethnic group, gender, race etc. Social identity theory grew out of Henri

Tajfel's minimal group study experiments, where individuals were arbitrarily divided into two categories. It appeared from these experiments that even "minimal" group basis led people to form psychological groups, exaggerating the positive qualities of one's own in-group while exaggerating the negative qualities of the out-group (Islam, 2014). An individual's social identity can be defined as those aspects of an individual's self-image that derive from the social categories to which he/she perceives itself as belonging. The general assumptions of social identity theory are as follows:

- Individuals strive to maintain or enhance their self-esteem: they strive for a positive self-concept.
- Social groups or categories and the membership of them are associated with positive or negative value connotations. Hence, social identity may be positive or negative according to the evaluations (which tend to be socially consensual, either within or across groups) of those groups that contribute to an individual's social identity
- The evaluation of one's own group is determined with reference to specific other groups through social comparisons in terms of value-laden attributes and characteristics. Positively discrepant comparisons between in-group and out-group produce high prestige; negatively discrepant comparisons between in-group and out-group result in low prestige (Tajfel and Turner, 1979).

There are mainly three different identity management strategies utilised by disadvantaged social group members: (a) social competition; (b) social creativity; (c) individual mobility. Social competition and social creativity are not discussed thoroughly in this paper (Tajfel and Turner, 1979). Individual mobility on the other hand stands central in relation to the overriding argument of the present paper. The purpose of individual mobility is to maintain a positive personal identity rather than a positive social identity. Hence, individuals that self-categorise at the individual level in a given social context are more prone to adopt individual mobility strategies (Branscombe and Ellemers, 1998). Four different forms which individual mobility attempts can take are briefly delineated in what follows. The first and perhaps also most obvious of these is physical distancing. That is when people physically distance the 'self' from their devalued in-group and formally gain access to another group. The second form, which individual mobility can take does not require that an individual physically leaves its devalued in-group. That is, as individual mobility may also take the form of psychological distancing. This form is usually adopted by members of devalued groups when membership of such groups is based on physical characteristics e.g. gender or race. The third form of individual mobility is one where the individual denies the validity of group-based differences by maintaining that individuals should not be evaluated in terms of their group membership. Thus, this form of individual mobility emphasises the significance of personal rather than social identity. The final form that individual mobility can take is one where the individual embraces the characteristics of its social identity (Ellemers and Van Laar, 2010).

### **CONSEQUENCES OF INDIVIDUAL MOBILITY**

When individual mobility attempts are successful, i.e. the individual leaves its devalued in-group and gains inclusion to a higher standing group, then people may gain a number of benefits e.g. personal prestige and wealth as a result of their individualistic strategy (Branscombe and Ellemers, 1998). It is imperative to stress that the positive outcomes of individual mobility strategies, mentioned above, are far from the inevitable result of individual mobility attempts. First, members of devalued groups who are engaged in individual mobility might only achieve marginal acceptance from a higher-status group who they wish to join, or they might even be completely rejected by such group, particularly when discrimination is prevalent. Another risk associated with the adoption of individual mobility is that actors might end in a situation where they are rejected by the higher status group who they wish to join and simultaneously rejected

and considered a traitor by the former in-group (Branscombe and Ellemers, 1998). Also vital to stress is that people prefer individual mobility strategies over collective strategies whenever possible. Experimental research has shown that members of devalued groups engaged in collective strategies to improve the social position of their in-group only when adoption of individual mobility was not possible (Jetten et al., 2008).

The overriding argument of the present paper, briefly touched upon in the introduction, is now developed and discussed explicitly. First, a discussion on under which conditions individual mobility is rational is provided. The concept of nation and class are used as examples in this context. Subsequently, a discussion on whether and under which conditions individual mobility may be irrational is provided. In this context, the concept of race is used in the development of the argument. A summary of the argument can be put as follows;

- Provided that the low-status in-group that the individual wish to distance the 'self' from, physically and/or psychologically, is escapable, then individual mobility may be rational even on the expense of the former in-group.
- Provided that the low-status in-group that the individual wish to distance the 'self' from, physically and/or psychologically, is inescapable, then individual mobility, on the expense of an inescapable in-group, is irrational.

### **INDIVIDUAL MOBILITY AS THE RATIONAL CHOICE**

It appears difficult to escape the fact that the nation remains a rather significant form of collective identity in the contemporary world. As Anna Triandafyllidou (1998) puts it:

*Not only does the organization of the world in nation-states seem 'natural' but the whole perception by each individual of the surrounding world is based on the distinction between the in-group, namely the nation, and the foreigners, those belonging to other communities, the 'others'. (p. 593)*

In many ways, Anna Triandafyllidou is right in her interpretation of the nation's importance in the contemporary world. Both national and class-based social groups constitute rather significant forms of collective identities i.e. in-groups through membership of which individuals are evaluated. Thus, class-based and national groups are significant sources of social identity and hence self-esteem. Establishment of hierarchy in terms of membership of social groups, that membership of a specific social group is more important than others, is perhaps not appropriate. This is mainly so for two reasons:

- Membership of all social groups is significant in terms of social identity.
- When exactly membership of a specific social group becomes salient or remains latent hinges on specific contexts. In one context, membership of a national group might for instance prove more significant than membership of a class-based group. In a different context, it might be reversed i.e. membership of a class-based group might appear more significant than membership of a national group etc.

Insofar as hierarchy is to be established, it is suggested that inescapable in-groups, i.e. in-groups where membership is based on unalterable physical characteristics e.g. race, are more important than escapable groups. The later refers to social groups where membership is not based on unalterable physical characteristics e.g. national and class-based social groups. Vital to stress is that the preceding should not be interpreted as an attempt to claim that membership of a social group is insignificant merely because such group is escapable. The point being made is that both national and class-based groups are escapable, since neither of them is normally based on unalterable physical characteristics. In other words, members of low-status national and/or class-based groups may leave their low-status group and thus enhance their social identity/self-esteem by adopting individual mobility strategies. For instance, Jetten et al. (2008) propose that when

encountering important life-transitions, such as entering university, students from more disadvantaged backgrounds are engaging in individual mobility strategies, as they are gaining professional skills and higher earning potential than if they were not to attend university. In some societies e.g. the U.S and U.K, university education is rather costly. While students from the poorest segment of society would most likely be prevented from attending university, due to lack of economic resources, students from slightly more privileged backgrounds would be allowed to leave their relatively low-status groups by adopting individual mobility strategy i.e. attending university and thus investing in their 'human capital'. Important here is to stress that the first type of students, those at the bottom of the socio-economic ladder, are not bound to remain in their class-based low-status group. The point is merely that such students are compelled to identify alternative ways to escape their low-status social groups. Central is the fact that class-based low-status groups are theoretically escapable. The concept of nation is in many ways more complicated than that of class. A comprehensive discussion on national and ethnic boundaries would for instance require a whole book. However, as is the case with class-based low-status groups, also national groups are normally not based on unalterable physical characteristics and are thus also escapable. Briefly speaking, members of a low-status national group can, at least theoretically, escape such group through upward individual mobility i.e. by gaining access to a higher standing national group. Thus, individual mobility is rational provided that the low status in-group, from which the individual wish to separate the 'self' from, is not based on unalterable physical characteristics. When group membership is not based on unalterable physical characteristics, an individual can normally escape the negative value connotations associated with a specific social group that contributes to the social identity of the individual. Consequently, enhancement of one's social identity through individual mobility is rational even if it is done on the expense of the low-status group that the individual wish to separate the "self" from. In a nutshell, pursuit of private utility maximization is the rational choice of members of devalued social groups, provided that such groups are not based on unalterable physical characteristics and are thus escapable e.g. class and national groups.

### **INDIVIDUAL MOBILITY AS IRRATIONAL**

Under which conditions individual mobility is rational was discussed in the preceding section. It was argued that pursuit of private utility maximisation through individual mobility is the rational choice of members of low-status social groups, if membership of such groups is not based on unalterable physical characteristics. Whether and under which conditions individual mobility may be irrational is discussed in what follows. Although both class-based and national groups constitute rather significant sources of social identity and thus also significant sources of self-esteem, it remains the case that both are theoretically escapable. A Romanian might for instance enhances his/her social identity through individual mobility e.g. by becoming an American citizen. By gaining access to a higher standing national group, an individual from Somalia is for instance also escaping his/her low-status national group. Important here is to stress the difference between the white Romanian and the Black Somali. While it is theoretically possible for both to escape their low-status national groups, through individual mobility, it appears evident that a Black individual can normally not escape his/her low-status racial identity through individual mobility. The point being made becomes clearer through the difference between class-nation and race. As Alcoff (2006) puts it:

*Class and nationality are also embodied identities, but their relationship to the body is less intimate and more easily alterable than the relationship with one's race or one's gender. Class and nationality profoundly affect the shape and condition of the body, but the physical effects can often be overcome when class and national identities are changed. Class and nationality are primarily manifest as behavior,*

*whereas race and gender affect, and reflect, less easily alterable physiological features.* (p. 86)

In terms of social comparison and hierarchy, it appears evident that being Black is the most devalued and thus least advantageous racial identity in the contemporary world. Since membership of racial social groups is based on unalterable physical characteristics, members of racial social groups can normally not leave such groups through physical distancing. In fact, a Black individual cannot escape his/her racial identity through individual mobility attempts - irrespective of such attempts being physical or psychological. For instance, a Black individual that attempts individual mobility through psychological distancing is not significantly distinguishable from a poor person who imagines that he/she is wealthy and behaves accordingly. Psychological imagining does not alter the socio-economic position of a poor individual. It is equally evident that psychological distancing does not alter the fact that any Black person, irrespective of nationality and class, is evaluated through membership of the most devalued racial category in the contemporary world. Put shortly, members of inescapable social groups cannot evade negative value connotations associated with their respective social groups through individual mobility. Therefore, it is argued that if the low-status social group that the individual wish to distance the "self" form, physically and/or psychologically, is inescapable, then individual mobility, on the expense of an inescapable social group, is irrational. Rather than individual mobility, I suggest that pursuit of collective strategies may constitute the rational choice of members of inescapable low-status social groups.

This point becomes clearer through bridging of social identity theory and rational choice theory. As previously explained, rational choice theory falls short in explaining any selfless action undertaken in the name of an identity group. Social identity theory holds that individuals are evaluated through membership of social groups/categories and that they strive to maintain or enhance their self-esteem: they strive for a positive self-concept. Thus, the self or the individual is incorporated within the group identity. In other words, members of inescapable social groups' self-interest is inextricably linked to that of the collective group. Distinction between members of inescapable social groups' self-interest and the collective interest of the whole group is thus neutralised through bridging of social identity theory and rational choice theory. Individuals being evaluated through membership of social groups, from which they derive their self-esteem, constitutes the greatest evidence in defense of the preceding contention. Thus, it becomes sound to suggest that members of inescapable groups are indeed pursuing their own individual interest when pursuing the collective interest of an inescapable group. In a nutshell, by pursuing the interest of an inescapable group, individual members are indeed pursuing private utility maximisation, since their individual self-interest is inextricably linked to the social position of the collective group.

Thus, it becomes evident - through bridging of rational choice theory and social identity theory - that the explanatory sphere of rational choice theory may be expanded to include action, where the individual is not concerned with consequences only for itself. Consequently, the explanatory power of rational choice theory is expanded through bridging of rational choice theory and social identity theory.

## CONCLUSION

Expansion of rational choice theory's explanatory sphere, through bridging of rational choice theory and social identity theory, has been attempted in this paper. It is concluded that an individual can escape the negative value connotations, associated with a specific social group that contributes to the social identity of the individual - if membership is not based on unalterable physical characteristics. Hence, individual mobility is rational provided that the low-status in-

group, from which the individual wish to separate the 'self' from, is not based on unalterable physical characteristics. In other words, enhancement of one's social identity, through individual mobility, is rational even if it is done on the expense of the low-status group that the individual wish to separate the "self" from. In a nutshell, pursuit of private utility maximisation is the rational choice of members of devalued social groups, provided that membership of such groups is not based on unalterable physical characteristics. If the low-status social group that the individual wish to distance the "self" from, physically and/or psychologically, is inescapable, then individual mobility, on the expense of an inescapable social group, is irrational. When a social group is inescapable, i.e. membership of it is based on unalterable physical characteristics, individual members cannot escape the negative value connotations associated with membership of such group. Rather than individual mobility, it is suggested that pursuit of collective strategies may constitute the rational choice of members of inescapable low-status social groups. That is, as members of inescapable social groups' self-interest is inextricably linked to the social position of the inescapable social group. In a nutshell, by pursuing the interest of an inescapable group, individual members are indeed pursuing private utility maximisation.

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## THE MULTIDIMENSIONAL INDEX OF ECONOMIC WELL-BEING FOR CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

AGNE LAUZADYTE-TUTLIENE<sup>1</sup> AND IGOR DOROSH<sup>2</sup>

### ABSTRACT

This study estimates the index of economic well-being (IEWB) for fifteen Central European countries over the period 1991–2010, comparing this index with GDP at *per capita* level and growth rate. The paper reveals that certain components of the IEWB, which are not included in the measurement of GDP *per capita*, have grown slower and thus hampered the growth of overall economic well-being relative to GDP *per capita* growth. If the economic well-being of citizens is not growing as fast as an increase in GDP *per capita* in a specific country, it could mean there are some problems in social policy and recent changes. IEWB could thus be considered as an indicator of social policy based on consumption, sustainability, equity and security, the main idea of which is to reach the stage where there is a minimal difference between GDP *per capita* growth rate and well-being indicators.

**Keywords:** Index of economic well-being, Alternative measures of human well-being, Quality of life, Sustainable development.

### INTRODUCTION

The world never stands still; it is always moving forwards and making progress, but the direction in which it moves is not always the correct one. The unwavering pursuit of economic growth – represented by the overwhelming focus on Gross Domestic Product (GDP) – has left over a billion people in dire poverty and has not notably improved the well-being of those who were already rich, nor even provided us with economic stability (Abdallah et al., 2009). As the Commission on the Measurement of Economic Performance and Social Progress noted in its 2009 report, “purely economic indicators say nothing about whether material well-being is bought at the expense of environmental and social impacts or at the risk of putting undue stress on natural resources” (Stiglitz, Sen and Fitoussi, 2009).

The main goal of democratic governments is to improve human welfare, promoting economic growth and development. Evaluating the achievements of policy measures from that perspective requires multidimensional indicators that go beyond the GDP. The analysis of alternative measures of human well-being provides an advanced understanding of the level of social and economic development, as do various policy implications concerning changes in aggregative and hierarchical well-being structures in countries.

Explaining such concepts as economic development and the measurement of human well-being has been a key problem raised by scholars for a long time. Such modern economists as Di Tella, MacCulloch and Oswald (2003), Diener and Suh (1997), McGranahan (1995), Helliwell et al. (2010), Osberg (1985), Osberg and Sharpe (1985; 2002a; 2002b; 2003), and many others pay close attention to this issue, while Knight and Rosa (2011) focus on the environmental efficiency of well-being.

The research of Osberg (1985) and Osberg and Sharpe (2002a; 2002b; 2003) reveals that a wider notion of economic well-being should include dimensions of wealth, inequality and

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security. In their studies, the index of economic well-being (IEWB) is proposed as a better measure of well-being than the GDP.

This paper is the first attempt to estimate IEWB for fifteen central European and post-Soviet Union countries for the period 1991–2010, and to compare this index with GDP *per capita* level and growth rate. The main question we aim to answer is whether the usage of IEWB as an alternative indicator shows a difference in the measurement of economic well-being compared to the usage of GDP *per capita* as the most common measure of a country's development.

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The goal of this study is to determine an alternative to the GDP-based metric measurement of economic and human well-being for Central European and post-Soviet Union Countries, based on Osberg and Sharpe's IEWB (2002a; 2002b; 2003).

The IEWB takes a broad view of 'economic well-being' as access to the resources needed for material consumption. The narrow focus of GDP accounting omits consideration of many issues that are important to the command over resources of individuals. The four components of the IEWB used in this paper are made up of a number of variables, as shown in Table 1. A fuller discussion of the rationale for this framework of consumption, accumulation, distribution and insecurity can be found in Osberg (1985).

It is important to note that the estimates of the IEWB in this study contain fewer variables than IEWB estimates for Canada and OECD because of greater data available for developed countries. This sort of data is not available for the countries included into this study.

The original version of the IEWB for Canada (Osberg and Sharpe, 1998) included unpaid work in the consumption flows component of the index. This was possible because Statistics Canada has produced time series estimates of the value of household production and volunteer work for Canada. Statistic agencies of our selected countries have not produced such an estimate; thus, unpaid work is not discussed or included in this paper.

Two risks in the security domain (single parent poverty and insecurity in old age) and two components of stocks of the wealth domain (real stock of natural resources and real net foreign debt) are also not included because of the lack of data.

**Table 1. Components of the IEWB**

Basic component	Sub-components
Consumption flows (0.25)	Real actual total household consumption (in 2005 US dollars <i>per capita</i> ) Real current government spending on goods and services excluding debt service (in 2005 US dollars <i>per capita</i> ) Value of leisure (in 2005 US dollars <i>per capita</i> )
Stocks of wealth (0.25)	Real capital stock, including housing (in 2005 US dollars <i>per capita</i> ) Real R&D stock (in 2005 US dollars <i>per capita</i> ) Real stock of human capital (in 2005 US dollars <i>per capita</i> ) Real social cost of environmental degradation (CO <sub>2</sub> emissions, paternal emission; in 2005 US dollars <i>per capita</i> )
Equality (0.25)	Poverty intensity (Poverty headcount at US \$2.5 per day * poverty gap at US \$2.5 per day) Income inequality (Gini coefficient)
Security (0.25)	Risk from unemployment Risk to financial security from illness

*Source: authors, based on Osberg and Sharpe (2002a).*

The formula for the overall index is:

$$IEWB = 0.25*(C+G+VL) + 0.25*(K+R\&D+HC-ED) + \\ + 0.25*(0.25*LIM+0.75*GINI) + 0.25*(UR+ILL)$$

C = real *per capita* adjusted equivalent personal consumption

G = real *per capita* current government spending excluding debt charges

VL = value of leisure

K = real *per capita* capital stock (including housing)

R&D = real *per capita* stock of research and development

HC = real *per capita* stock of human capital

ED = real *per capita* social costs of environmental degradation (CO2 emissions)

LIM = poverty intensity

GINI = Gini coefficient for post-fisc (after tax and transfers) money income

UR = risk from unemployment

ILL = risk to financial security from illness

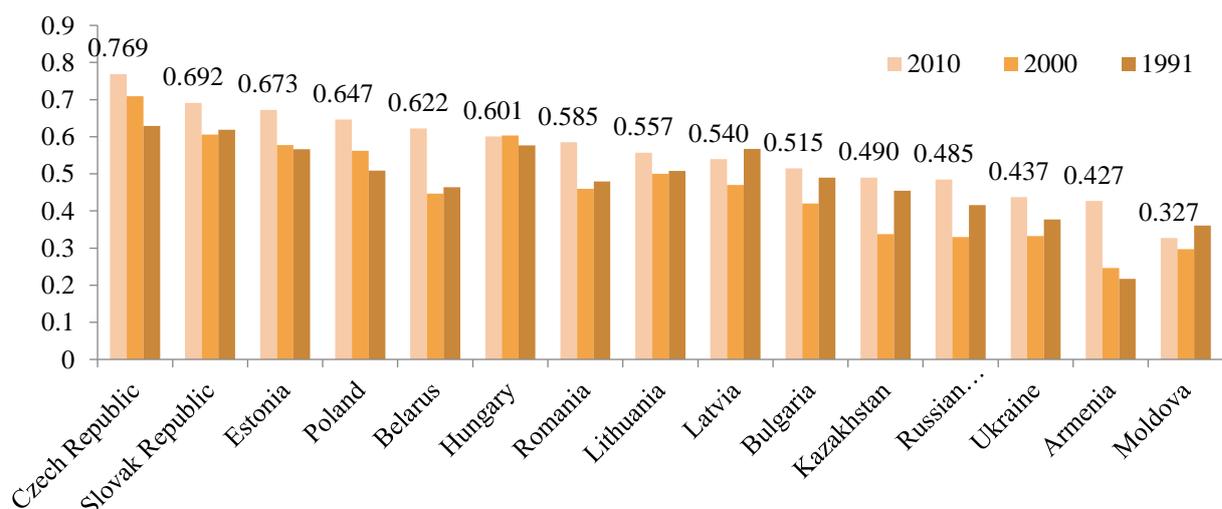
In the IEWB estimation, the linear scaling was used to standardise the range of variables to the 0–1 interval. Each of the four components of economic well-being is assigned an indexed value equal to  $(\text{Value}-\text{Min})/(\text{Max}-\text{Min})$ , which represents the relative position of that country, in that year, on the range from Maximum (feasible value) to Minimum (feasible value), where both maximum and minimum are set at the actual extremes of the values observed in all countries and all years of the present study, plus (or minus) 10% of the actual observed range (Osberg and Sharpe, 2003).

We chose fifteen Central European and post-Soviet Union countries for estimating the IEWB: Armenia, Belarus, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Kazakhstan, Latvia, Lithuania, Moldova, Poland, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovak Republic and Ukraine.

## FINDINGS

This section examines the level and the dynamics of the IEWB and its components for 2010 and 2000, and for 1991 in the selected CIS and Central European countries, and compares the annual growth of the IEWB and the GDP *per capita* over 1995–2010.

**Figure 1. IEWB, selected CIS and Central European Countries, 1991, 2000 and 2010**



Source: authors.

Based on the ranking in 2010, the Czech Republic had the highest level of economic well-being among the fifteen selected countries, with a scaled index value of 0.769 (Figure 1).

The Slovak Republic and Estonia followed with the values of 0.692 and 0.673 correspondingly, while Moldova (index value 0.327) and Armenia (index value 0.427) were the countries with the lowest level of economic well-being.

It should be noted that most post-Soviet Union countries experienced a lower level of well-being in 2000 compared to 1991, while countries like Moldova and Latvia had not even reached their 1991 level by 2010.

Osberg and Sharpe (2011) proposed two ways of measuring progress using the IEWB: either by examining the absolute change, or by examining the percentage change (either the total change or the compound annual rate of change), in the scaled value of the index. In general, however, we consider the proportional growth to be a better measure of changes in well-being, as it takes into account the initial positions of the countries. If a country improves its index score from 0.1 to 0.2, it has doubled its well-being, and this is a much bigger achievement than another country improving its score from 0.8 to 0.9. The proportional growth captures that difference, whereas absolute changes do not.

In this study, we choose to measure the magnitude of the growth in both absolute and proportional terms, but the measuring approach does not make a huge difference in the ranking of countries in general. Table 2 provides the ranking of the selected countries based on both measurement approaches during the period of our research. The table reveals the changes in the rank of some of the countries between 1995 and 2010. For example, Belarus significantly improved its well-being and was in fifth position in the ranking right after Poland in 2010, while Hungary lost its position over time.

**Table 2. Ranking of selected Central European and post-Soviet Union Countries based on values and growth of IEWB**

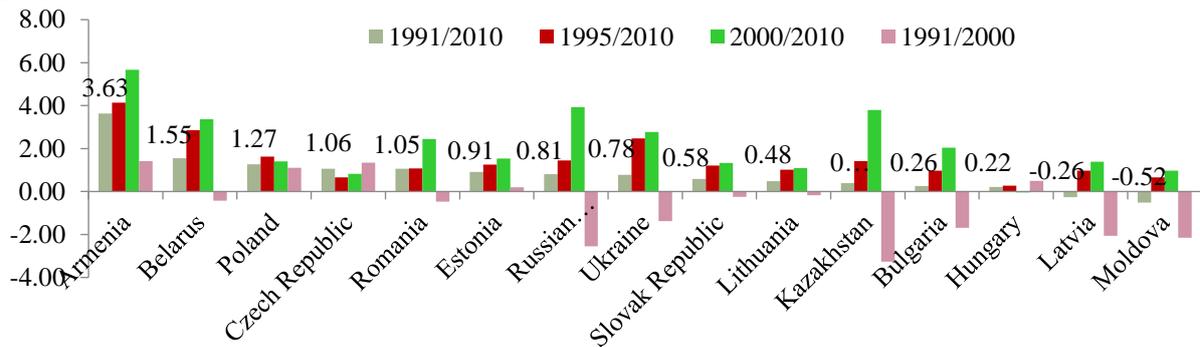
Level (points)		IEWB growth (1991–2010)	
2010	1995	Absolute (points)	Proportional (% per year)
Czech Republic	Czech Republic	Armenia	Armenia
Slovak Republic	Hungary	Belarus	Belarus
Estonia	Slovak Republic	Czech Republic	Poland
Poland	Estonia	Poland	Czech Republic
Belarus	Poland	Estonia	Romania
Hungary	Romania	Romania	Estonia
Romania	Lithuania	Slovak Republic	Russian Federation
Lithuania	Latvia	Russian Federation	Ukraine
Latvia	Bulgaria	Ukraine	Slovak Republic
Bulgaria	Belarus	Lithuania	Lithuania
Kazakhstan	Kazakhstan	Kazakhstan	Kazakhstan
Russian Federation	Russian Federation	Bulgaria	Bulgaria
Ukraine	Ukraine	Hungary	Hungary
Armenia	Moldova	Latvia	Latvia
Moldova	Armenia	Moldova	Moldova

*Source: authors.*

In proportional terms of IEWB growth, Armenia was far ahead over 1991-2010 with a 3.63% annual growth rate (Figure 2.). Belarus was in second place with 1.53% per year growth, followed by Poland and the Czech Republic, with 1.27% and 1.06% annual growth respectively. In absolute terms, the greatest growth was experienced by Armenia, with a 0.210 point change between 1991 and 2010, while the lowest growth was observed in Moldova (-0.034 points in absolute terms and -0.516% in proportional terms).

The growth rates of IEWB varied across countries and time. From 1991 to 2000, all post-Soviet Union countries except Armenia and Estonia experienced regression in their well-being (Figure 2). The largest annual decline in the index between 1991 and 2000 – by 3.26% and 2.55% respectively – was observed in Kazakhstan and Russian Federation, while Moldova (with a 2.55% annual decline) was in third place. Remarkable results were demonstrated by Armenia and the Czech Republic, where the IEWB increased by 1.41% and 1.34% a year during the first decade under consideration.

**Figure 2. Average annual growth of IEWB in selected CIS and Central European Countries.**



Source: authors.

Over the next decade (2000-2010), all countries experienced progress; some experienced a notable increase in IEWB. A considerable growth rate of almost 5.7% a year was demonstrated by Armenia, followed by 3.93% annual growth in the Russian Federation and 3.79% in Kazakhstan. The lowest development of well-being at that time was in Hungary, almost equalling zero.

### The components of the IEWB

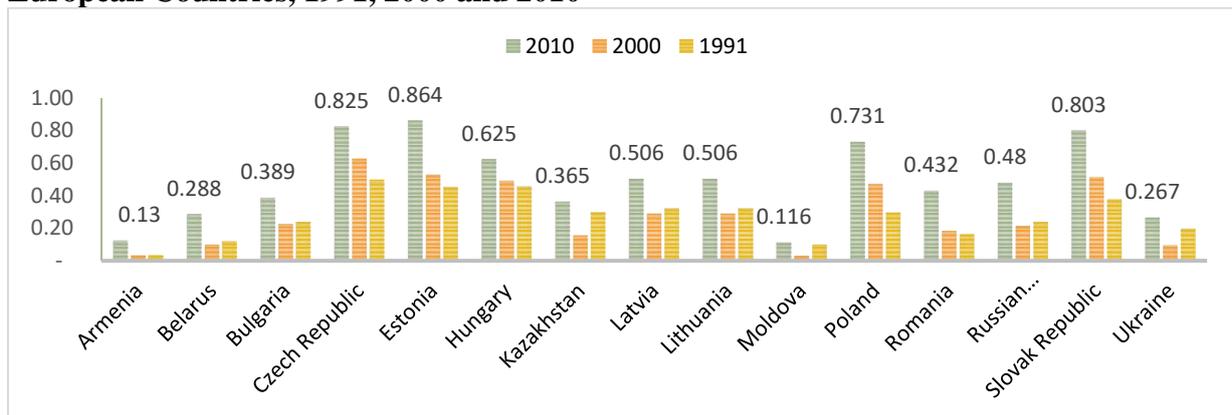
The IEWB is constructed from four domains: the average current consumption flows; the aggregate accumulation for future consumption (presented by *per capita* wealth stock); income distribution; and economic security. The four components are equally weighted; all components equally influence the general level of IEWB.

Private consumption expenditure, the government expenditure on goods, and services consumed (either directly or indirectly) by households and the adjusted relative cost (benefits) of leisure are the three components of the consumption domain of IEWB.

Based on Osberg's idea, if a person takes an additional hour of leisure time, he or she values that leisure time at least as much as the next best alternative use of the time (Osberg, 1985). We assume that the next best alternative use of leisure time is paid work in the labour force, the value of which is the total labour compensation, i.e., after-tax wages and benefits that could have been earned during that time (Osberg and Sharpe, 2002a). Trends in the value of leisure are determined by a number of factors: average hours worked per employed person, the employment rate and average hours of unemployment per working-age person.

The total adjusted consumption is computed by summing the family size-adjusted private consumption, the government expenditures and the value of leisure, and then multiplying the total value by the life expectancy index.

The largest consumption flows *per capita* in 2010 were observed in Estonia and the Czech Republic. Their consumption *per capita* flows were US \$27,498 and US \$26,820 (in 2005 US dollars) respectively, while Armenia and Moldova experienced the lowest *per capita* consumption flows (US \$5,050 and US \$4,739 *per capita*). Figure 3 depicts the values of the scaled index of the total consumption flows *per capita*.

**Figure 3. Scaled index of total consumption flows *per capita*, selected CIS and Central European Countries, 1991, 2000 and 2010**

Source: authors.

Society's stock of wealth – both man-made and naturally occurring – determines how sustainable its current level of consumption is. The sustainability domain includes environmental and human resources and the physical capital stock left to the next generation, which will determine whether a society is on a long-run sustainable trajectory of aggregate consumption, irrespective of the distribution of those consumption flows at the individual level (Osberg and Sharpe, 2002a).

The physical capital stock includes residential and non-residential structures, machinery and equipment in both the business and government sectors. The greater the capital stock, the greater the future productive capacity, future potential consumption flows and economic well-being. The capital stock data was supposed to be based on the perpetual inventory method where investment flows accumulate over time (with depreciation rates applied to the different assets), but the paucity of data for the 1990s and the absence of data for the 1980s forced us to use the nominal values of national wealth.

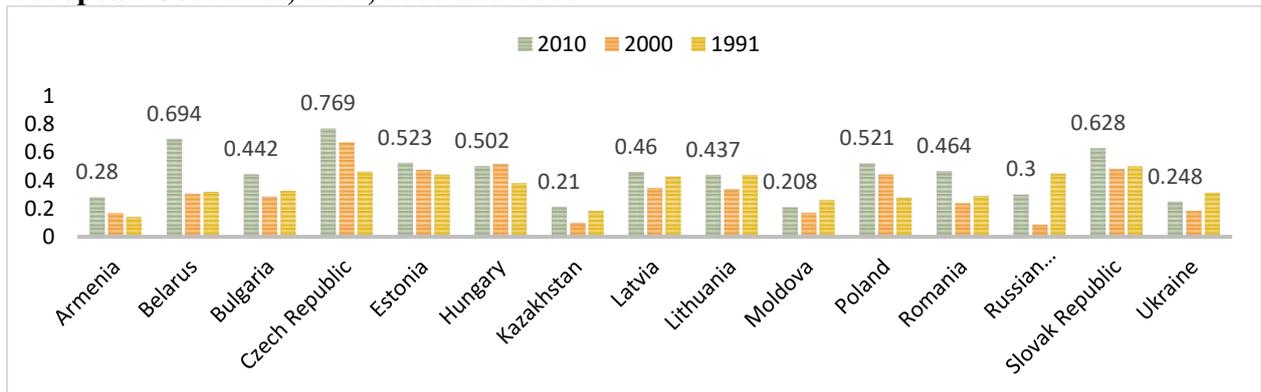
The measure used in this study contains, as explained earlier, four components: physical capital, R&D capital, human capital, and the social costs of environmental degradation

The physical capital stock presented by the gross fixed capital formation indicator from world development indicators includes land improvements (fences, ditches, drains and so on); plant, machinery and equipment purchases; and the construction of roads, railways and the like, including schools, offices, hospitals, private residential dwellings and commercial and industrial buildings.

The total wealth stocks are computed by summing the physical capital, the human capital, R&D stock and net international investment position, and then subtracting the social costs of GHG emissions.

In 2010, the greatest *per capita* stock of wealth was in the Czech Republic (US \$6,903 in 2005 US dollars) and Belarus (US \$6,099 in 2005 US dollars). Third place was maintained by the Slovak Republic with US \$5,398 in wealth. The lowest total wealth stock *per capita* belonged to Moldova, Kazakhstan and Ukraine, with US \$886, US \$908 and US \$1,321 *per capita*, respectively. In 2000, some countries (such as Kazakhstan and the Russian Federation) had negative values of capital domain due to high levels of mineral depletion and a respectively low level of investment. Figure 4 presents the values of the scaled index of the total stocks of wealth *per capita*.

**Figure 4. Scaled index of total stocks of wealth *per capita*, selected CIS and Central European Countries, 1991, 2000 and 2010**



Source: authors.

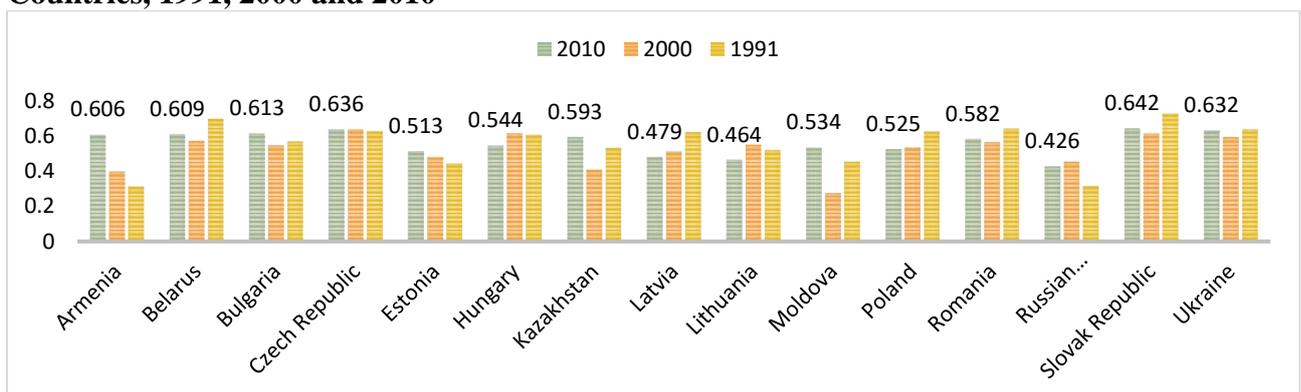
The third domain of the IEWB is economic equality. At current levels, a fall in equality, or a rise in inequality, is considered to decrease the economic well-being and *vice versa*. The equality domain consists in two components: income inequality and poverty.

We measure income inequality using the Gini index, which measures the extent to which the distribution of income or consumption expenditure among individuals or households within an economy deviates from a perfectly equal distribution. Over country data was taken from the World Development Indicators (World Bank, 2012).

To measure poverty, we use poverty intensity, which is the product of the poverty rate and the poverty gap. The poverty rate here is defined as the percentage of the population living on less than US \$2.50 a day at 2005 international prices. The poverty gap is the average percentage difference from the poverty line of US \$2.50 a day at 2005 international prices (counting the non-poor as having zero shortfall); that measure reflects the depth of poverty as well as its incidence.

The index of the economic equality domain is the weighted sum of the scaled Gini coefficient and the scaled poverty intensity, with Gini receiving three quarters of the weight.

**Figure 5. Scaled index of equality measures, selected CIS and Central European Countries, 1991, 2000 and 2010**



Source: authors.

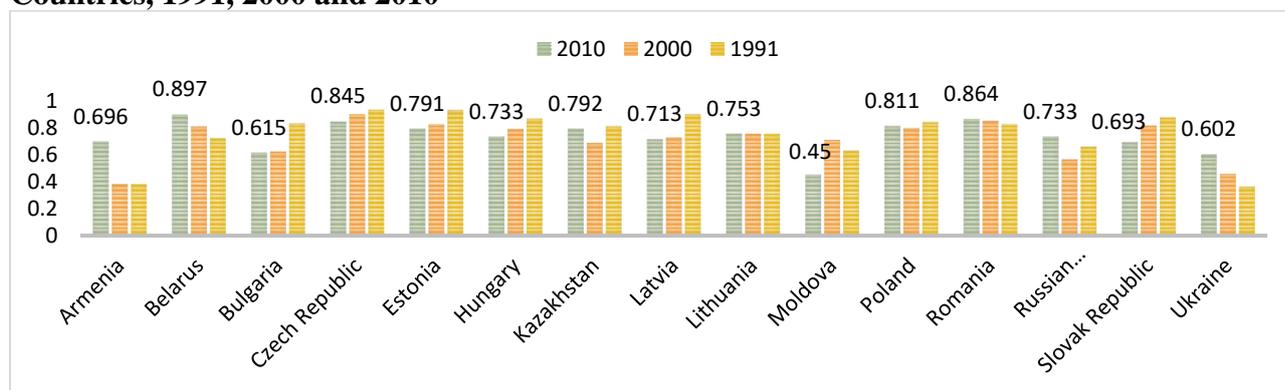
Figure 5 depicts the values of the scaled index of equality measures. In 2010, the Slovak Republic had the highest economic equality score at 0.642, followed by Ukraine (0.632) and the Czech Republic (0.636). The Russian Federation was the country with the least equality; its index score of 0.426 was not far from the next lowest score in Lithuania, at 0.464.

The economic security domain consists of two components: the risk imposed by unemployment and the financial risk from illness.

The scaled values of the two components of the economic security domain are aggregated to obtain an overall scaled index for the domain. The weights used for this aggregation procedure are constructed from the relative sizes of the populations subject to each risk. In terms of the risk of unemployment, it is assumed that the entire population aged 15–64 is subject to this risk. In 2010, this ranged between 34.1% in Moldova, to 58.7% in Kazakhstan.

The total population (i.e., 100%) is assumed to be subject to financial risk associated with illness. The component-specific weights are generated by summing the proportions of the population subject to the risks and then standardizing to unity by dividing each proportion by that sum.

**Figure 6. Scaled Index of Economic Security, selected CIS and Central European Countries, 1991, 2000 and 2010**



Source: authors.

Economic security (Figure 6) varies between the countries. Belarus had the highest economic security index value in 2010, which was 0.897, followed by Romania (0.864) and the Czech Republic (0.845), while Moldova was the country with the least economic security so far; its index score of 0.450 was 26% lower than next lowest score of Bulgaria (0.615).

### Comparing the IEWB to GDP *per capita*

Comparison of the IEWB with the GDP *per capita* in 2010 and 1991 is presented in Table 3. In 1991, country ranking by GDP *per capita* in constant 2005 international US and by the IEWB did not show a big difference for such countries as Czech Republic, Armenia and Moldova. Some post-Soviet Union countries, such as the Russian Federation, Ukraine and Lithuania in the first years of independence, still had a better GDP *per capita* position than their well-being position. The opposite was true for Estonia, Kazakhstan and Belarus. The 2010 rankings show that the Czech Republic was first and Moldova last in both rankings.

**Table 3. Ranking by level of *per capita* GDP and the IEWB, selected CIS and Central European Countries, 1995 and 2010**

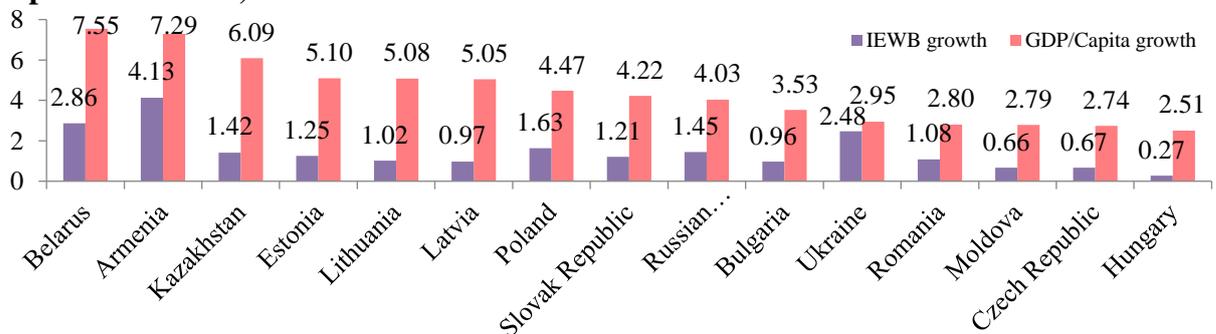
2010		1991	
IEWB	GDP	IEWB	GDP
Czech Republic	Czech Republic	Czech Republic	Czech Republic
Slovak Republic	Slovak Republic	Slovak Republic	Russian Federation
Estonia	Poland	Hungary	Lithuania
Poland	Hungary	Latvia	Hungary
Belarus	Estonia	Estonia	Slovak Republic

Hungary	Lithuania	Poland	Latvia
Romania	Russian Federation	Lithuania	Poland
Lithuania	Latvia	Bulgaria	Ukraine
Latvia	Belarus	Romania	Bulgaria
Bulgaria	Bulgaria	Belarus	Romania
Kazakhstan	Romania	Kazakhstan	Estonia
Russian Federation	Kazakhstan	Russian Federation	Belarus
Ukraine	Ukraine	Ukraine	Kazakhstan
Armenia	Armenia	Moldova	Moldova
Moldova	Moldova	Armenia	Armenia

Source: authors.

However, with the exceptions of the Czech Republic, Moldova and Armenia, there are differences in the ranking positions for all the countries based on the two indicators. Such countries as the Russian Federation, Lithuania and Latvia had a better GDP *per capita* position than the level of well-being, and Estonia, Belarus and Ukraine had a better well-being ranking than GDP *per capita*. Belarus was ninth in terms of the GDP *per capita* level in 2010, while it was fifth in terms of the level of IEWB. The biggest difference between the rankings was in the resource-based economies of the Russian Federation, which ranked seventh based on per-capita GDP and fourth-to-last in IEWB based ranking.

**Figure 7. Annual growth of the IEWB and the GDP *per capita*, selected CIS and Central European Countries, 1995–2010**



Source: authors.

The IEWB growth was much lower than the growth of GDP *per capita* in all countries over 1995–2010 (Figure 7). The period of 1995–2010 was chosen for comparison of the annual growth rates due to the huge economic stagnation in 1991–1995 and poor economic data, which makes the difference between GDP and IEWB even bigger. Between 1991 and 2010, there was a decline in GDP in Ukraine and Moldova, while Moldova and Latvia experienced a decline in IEWB. The period 1995–2010 is more reliable because of the recovery of post-Soviet Union countries and a positive annual growth for both GDP *per capita* and IEWB.

The fastest annual GDP *per capita* growth was observed in Belarus, which grew by 7.75% a year, but at the same time the country had only 3.1% annual growth in terms of economic well-being. Armenia was second by the growth of GDP *per capita* and first by the growth of IEWB.

It should be noted that most of the countries under consideration experienced huge gaps between the GDP and IEWB growth rates. For example, GDP *per capita* growth of 7.55% and 6.09% was observed in Belarus and Kazakhstan, but the growth of economic well-being in these countries came to only 2.86% and 1.42% correspondingly. While in such countries as Romania, Moldova, the Czech Republic and Hungary, where GDP *per capita* growth reached 2.5%–2.8% a year, the well-being situation did not change over the 15-year period by more than 1% annually.

The research above reveals that it was not the case over the 1991–2010 period that the countries with fast *per capita* GDP growth also experienced rapid growth in well-being and *vice versa*. It should also be noted that certain components of the IEWB, which are not included in the measurement of GDP *per capita*, have grown slower and thus hampered the growth of the overall economic well-being relative to GDP *per capita* growth.

## CONCLUSIONS

This study aimed to determine an alternative for a GDP-based metric measurement of economic and human well-being for Central European and post-Soviet Union Countries, based on Osberg and Sharpe's IEWB (2002a). The main question we asked was whether the usage of IEWB as an alternative indicator showed a difference in the measurement of economic well-being compared to the usage of GDP *per capita* as the most common measure of a country's development.

The results of the study showed that, in 2010, the Czech Republic had the highest level of economic well-being among the fifteen selected countries with a scaled index value of 0.769. The Slovak Republic and Estonia followed. The country with the lowest level of economic well-being was Moldova, with an index value of 0.327 points. In all CIS countries, rising economic well-being was based on a rapid growth in consumption and stocks of wealth. The growth of economic security was a determinant almost for all countries investigated.

The study reached its goal, as the IEWB captured more aspects of economic well-being than the real GDP. Despite the fact that trend comparison showed a correlation between GDP *per capita* and IEWB over the 1991–2010 period, it should be noticed that certain components of the IEWB, which are not included in the measurement of GDP *per capita*, have grown slower and thus hampered the growth of overall economic well-being relative to GDP *per capita* growth.

If the economic well-being of citizens is not growing as fast as the increase in GDP *per capita* in a specific country, this could imply some problems in social policy and recent changes. Thus, the IEWB could be considered as an indicator of social policy based on consumption, sustainability, equity and security, the main idea of which is to reach a minimal difference between GDP *per capita* growth rate and the well-being indicators.

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## THE PSYCHO-PEDAGOGICAL CONDITIONS FOR KINDERGARTEN CHILDREN'S ADJUSTMENT TO ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

ZADA BADARNE<sup>1</sup>

### ABSTRACT

The present study examines kindergarten children's transition and adjustment to elementary school, by looking into the broad range of inter-related psycho-pedagogical conditions that determine children's social, emotional and educational maturity and preparedness. Specifically, this study focuses on the comparative level of maturity and adjustment among children in the same class, born in the last three or first three months of the year (October, November, December and January, February, March), so as to determine the extent to which children's chronological age upon beginning school influences their overall maturity and preparedness for learning. Research was conducted on an experimental group of younger children and a control group of older children from the same class. It analyzed psychological and pedagogical conditions such as children's social, emotional and intellectual development, in respect of the children's chronological age.

**Keywords:** Transition, School age, Preparedness, Personality, Preschool experience.

### INTRODUCTION

The transition from kindergarten to elementary school is of relevance both in the educational arena and the political one. The educational arena aims to achieve academic success through the formulation of academic programs, by referring to the quality of teaching, the formation of relationships between staff, the environment, parents and children. The political arena deals with the development of educational policy and legislation, providing a support network for students, maintaining accountability and ensuring equal opportunities and resource allocation.

The transition from kindergarten and adjustment to elementary school is an extremely important event in a child's life, involving crucial physiological, psychological and social changes which have a direct effect on a child's personality and the formation of positive attitudes towards school. Moreover, this transition plays a part in the separation from gaming activity and the shift to learning activity. In this context, a child is required to attain a certain level of maturity and socio-emotional learning skills in preparation for school, while a lack of social and emotional capacities adversely impacts adjustment to school life.

Although, internationally, school age varies depending on the educational program and on school and environmental considerations, international research literature indicates that in 33 countries, including Israel, children are admitted to school at the age of six, based on the assumption that, at this age, children reach the physical, emotional, social and sensory-motor levels and the degree of cognitive maturity that should allow them to begin formal studies. In Israel, the rights to schooling apply to children born January 1<sup>st</sup> to December 31<sup>st</sup> 2015. However, in her observations at kindergartens of the Arab sectors in Israel, the author has noted differences between children born in the first three months of the year (January to March) and children born in the last three months of the year (October to December). These observations have further generated a series of questions, such as: Are there differences in the adjustment of children born in the first quarter of the year and those born in the last quarter of the year? Are children born in the last quarter indeed adequately prepared for formal education? Which are the optimal pedagogical conditions for adjustment to school? So far, these important questions

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have not been sufficiently addressed in the academic literature. Therefore, it is a necessary action to carry out studies which would provide answers to these questions. This study focuses on school age as important for success in school, following recent literature which has attempted to disentangle the effects of age at school entry from absolute age, finding that the small positive effects of starting school younger are dominated by larger positive effects of greater age (Black, Devereux, and Salvanes, 2011; Carlsson et al., 2015).

## **LITERATURE REVIEW AND STATEMENT OF PROBLEM**

The transition from kindergarten to elementary school is often depicted as the first, critical, step in a continuous and dynamic process of adjustment that children experience throughout the course of their education (Rous, Myers and Stricklin, 2007; Oliver, 2008; Margetts, 2007; Smart et al. 2008). The consequential significance of the transition from kindergarten to elementary school, not only for children but for their families as well, and its long-term impact on children's progress throughout their schooling, has also been expressed in an international declaration that guides governments, policy makers, educators, schools and institutions across the world (ETCRG, 2011).

Unfortunately, overall empirical as well as theoretical research of the subject in Israel is lacking. Specifically, the consequences of children's age at the time of their transition from kindergarten to elementary school has received insufficient treatment in educational theory and practice in Israel and calls for further attention. As a result, this study's research problem aims primarily to identify how the psycho-pedagogical conditions of adjustment to formal education differ for children born in the first and last quarters of the year, and to discern whether younger children may experience more difficulties in adjustment. Delaying entry to school is one option for young children's parents. Over time, more and more parents have chosen to delay their child's entry to school to give him or her time to have more skills and readiness (Black, Devereux and Salvanes, 2011; Carlsson et al., 2015; Bassok and Reardon, 2013).

In academic literature, much focus has been placed on the identification of the right age to begin school. The issue has evoked hypotheses, evidence and disputes regarding the extent of influence the variable of age has on a child's preparedness for schooling at the beginning of formal education. Diverse findings have demonstrated the various levels of importance age exerts as one variable impacting children's first steps in school. The main dispute revolves around the varying relative weight internal variables such as a child's personality traits, heredity, and developmental stage, carry, versus external variables such as the extent of familial support a child receives. In most studies, the impact of age at the beginning of schooling is considered evident in learning measurements and achievements (Black, Devereux and Salvanes, 2011; Cascio and Schanzenbach, 2015; Datar, 2006; Fredriksson and Ockert, 2005; Leuven et al., 2010; McEwan and Shapiro, 2007; Hámori and Köllö, 2011).

## **THEORETICAL APPROACHES TO KINDERGARTEN-TO-PRIMARY SCHOOL TRANSITION IN CONTEMPORARY PSYCHO-PEDAGOGY**

In this study, a comprehensive analysis of the subject of adjustment to school in several countries, including Israel, was conducted, looking into individual, familial, organisational and policy factors, and the various constrictions involved in the process. The examination of these factors has revealed the nature of a psychological, educational and sociological phenomenon that calls for the engagement of all its stakeholders: educators, teachers and parents. Scientific literature agrees that transition is influenced by multiple players: children, families, parents and educators, the community, professional staff in school and kindergarten and the educational system, and that ongoing coordination, collaboration and partnership among the

relevant parties is essential for ensuring a positive, successful process of adjustment (Dockett and Perry, 2009; Fabian and Dunlop, 2006).

Different approaches to transition are presented in several analytical frameworks: the *natural development approach* emphasises the interconnectedness between the stages of child development and transition. The *environmental approach* focuses on followers of the learning process that is influenced by organisational factors, and the structural, institutional, and individual differences between children. The *constructivist approach* represented by the theory of Vygotsky's zone of proximal development, refers to the distance between the level of development action; and in the *rationalist approach*, significance is given to the child's interaction, environment, society and community.

Children's mental and physical development must attain a certain degree of maturity for them to benefit from school learning. Otherwise, the learning process becomes ineffective or, in cases of overloading immature children, even harmful. This does not mean, of course, that the mental development of children - the rhythm of this development - cannot be accelerated or checked.

## RESEARCH GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

This study seeks to establish and valorise the pedagogical conditions for kindergarten children's adjustment to primary school. It sets out to:

1. Analyse the conceptual approaches to transition and adjustment to school.
2. Identify the pedagogical conditions for adjustment to school.
3. Investigate the conditions for children's adjustment to primary school according to age, preparedness, gender and parental education.
4. Establish the pedagogical peculiarities of children's adjustment to primary school.
5. Raise awareness to the importance of pedagogical assessment of children, at the beginning of their schooling.

## RESEARCH DESIGN AND STRUCTURE

This research adopts a quantitative and qualitative methodology. In order to expose as many aspects of the learning process as possible, the main method of collecting data was through teacher questionnaires and parent interviews. The experiment conducted involved two groups: the experimental group comprised the younger children in class, born in the last quarter of the year; the control group comprised the older children in class, born in the first quarter of the year. The study compares the experimental and control groups and presented empirical evidence regarding the impact of age on children's adjustment to school.

### Research tools

A questionnaire was distributed to preschool kindergarten teachers. They completed a general questionnaire for each child. The questionnaire contained six items checking three adjustment indexes: academic, social and emotional. The six items contained three dimensions:

1. Academic maturity index: language skills, arithmetic skills, overall success in learning in school.
2. Indexes of social integration in school.
3. Indexes of emotional maturity and self-control appropriate to this period of childhood.

### Research Questions

The research questions of this study are as follows:

1. Does the age of entering school have a significant and relevant influence on a child's readiness and adjustment to elementary school?

2. Is there a functional gap between the younger children and the older children in the same class?
3. Is there a gender-based difference in readiness for learning?
4. Are differences in the level of preparedness for elementary school related to familial status?

### **The scientific novelty and originality of the research**

Based on the theoretical foundations of the psycho-pedagogical conditions for children's adjustment to primary school, this study comprises a unique empirical research of the conditions for children's adjustment to primary school according to age (children born in the first quarter of the year versus children born in the last quarter of the year); degree of preparedness for school (emotional, social, academic) and parents' education level (low, medium, high). It establishes the influence of chronological age on children's preparedness for school and it identifies and measures the psycho-pedagogical peculiarities of children's adjustment to primary school. Seeking to establish the effective psycho-pedagogical conditions and methods that support kindergarten children's adjustment to primary school, and which may be implemented in the Israeli educational system, the study also provides foundations for the development, implementation and evaluation of an "optimisation program" which would support this transition process, thereby determining the role of teachers, parents and educational institutions in children's adjustment to primary school.

The theoretical significance of this study lies in an approach which views the psycho-pedagogical conditions for adjustment to formal education as an integrated, multi-dimensional complex that comprises variables such as age, gender and parental education. By seeking to attain a more complete understanding of the conditions of children's adjustment to the educational system and to concretise the prediction for children's success in school at the initial stages of formal education, this study forms the basis for future studies on school adjustment.

The applied value of the study lies in the elaboration and implementation of an "optimisation program" that supports the transition between kindergarten and school within the Israeli educational system through: the identification and measurement of the psycho-pedagogical peculiarities of children's adjustment to primary school; and the development and implementation of practical recommendations for educators, teachers and parents, which would contribute to the promotion of positive experiences among children transitioning from kindergarten to school.

The "optimisation program" should therefore be made available to kindergarten and primary teachers, psychologists and other school staff who are directly engaged with this stage of children's schooling. The results of the study may also be of use to parents experiencing difficulties in preparing their children for schooling. The experimental data is appropriate for use as teaching material for professional training.

## Identifying the conditions for kindergarten children's adjustment to primary school

**Figure 1: Psychological and pedagogical conditions for children's adjustment to primary school**

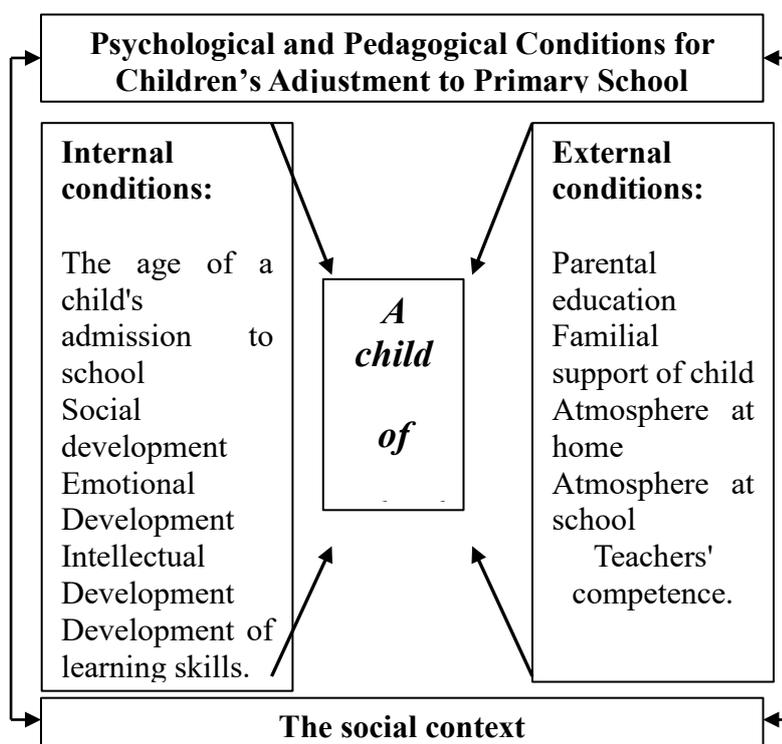


Figure 1 illustrates the dimensions that ensure optimal pedagogical conditions for children's adjustment to primary school, on which our research focuses. "The age of children's admission to school" refers to older children who were born in the first quarter of the year (January, February, March) and younger children who were born the last quarter of the year (October, November, December). "Emotional development" refers to emotional stability, mood, external appearance, honesty, and acceptance of the child by the teacher. "Social development" reflects sociability, aggressiveness, leadership qualities, activism, energy and independence of the child. "Intellectual development" refers to the degree to which cognitive and psychological processes have been developed. "Learning skills" reflect the perseverance, concentration, perception, ambition, interest and self-confidence of the child. "Parental education" is classified as "high", "middle" or "low" levels of education. "Family and school atmosphere" refers to the psycho-emotional and moral atmosphere which the child experiences among family and in the school. "The teacher's competence" refers to the communication skills and relationship between the teacher and child and teacher and family.

## RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The findings of this research were as follows:

1. The psycho-pedagogical conditions of transition function as a complex system that integrates internal conditions (the child's age of admission to school, social development, emotional development, learning skills development) with external conditions (parental education, the family and school climate, and the child's familial support ) which can together result in the effective adjustment of children to primary school.

2. Age differences between pre-schoolers generate differences in their socio-emotional functioning: children born in the first quarter of the year demonstrate a higher degree of preparedness for school than children born in the last quarter of the year.
3. Gender differences are marked both at class level and at age-group level within the class. At class level boys exhibit a higher degree of emotional development and learning skills than girls. Within the class, last-quarter boys are more emotionally developed than last-quarter girls, and boast more developed learning skills; first-quarter boys are more developed than first-quarter girls in all the investigated components.
4. The social and emotional adjustment of children born in the last quarter of the year calls for further intervention strategies and pedagogical assistance in order to: promote collaboration between key stakeholders (teachers, parents and children); provide support for children in carrying out their activities; provide support and stimulation for communication and friendly relations between children; and to promote the supervision of children at an earlier stage of schooling.
5. Pedagogical assistance programs involving all stakeholders (educators, teachers and parents) ensure the efficiency of the adjustment process. Therefore, the implementation of this study's scientific results should be conducted at the institutional level within the Israeli education system.

The experiment took place in mainstream kindergartens in Israel's Arab sector. The sample included 276 children from 31 preschool classes, distributed as described in Table 1.

**Table 1: Distribution of experimental subjects**

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Values</i>	<i>N=276</i>	<i>%</i>
Age	Young	170	61.6%
	Old	106	38.4%
Gender	Boys	166	60.1%
	Girls	110	39.9%
Parental education	Low	68	24.6%
	Middle	143	51.8%
	High	65	23.6%

The quantitative research examined three hypotheses. These results are presented in turn.

### **Hypothesis 1: Age differences**

This study assumed that there are statistically significant differences between older children and younger children of the same class in terms of emotional, social and learning skills. The results are presented in Table 2.

**Table 2: The impact of age on differences in emotional and social development and learning skills**

Variables	Age				Values
	Younger children (n=170)		Older children (n=106)		
	M	AS	M	AS	t (274)

Emotional development	1.87	0.482	4.64	0.226	-55.30**
Social development	2.55	0.654	4.66	0.275	-31.65**
Learning abilities	4.78	0.318	4.84	0.275	-1.500

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ .

Significant differences were found between a child's age and degree of emotional development, social development and learning skills. Older children demonstrated higher levels of development than infants of the same class: [ $t(274) = -55.30, p < 0.01$  \*\*]. Namely, older children ( $M = 4.64, SD = 0.226$ ) were found to be more emotionally developed than younger children ( $M = 1.87, SD = 0.482$ ) in the same class. At the same time, the data show insignificant differences between age and learning skills [ $t(274) = -1.500, n.s.$ ].

### Hypothesis 2: Gender differences

This study assumed that there are statistically significant differences between girls and boys in their emotional development, social development and learning abilities regardless of age. The data obtained are shown in Table 3.

**Table 3: Gender differences in emotional development**

Variables	Gender				t(274)
	Boys (n=166)		Girls (n=110)		
	M	SD	M	SD	
Emotional development	3.17	1.385	2.57	1.364	3.553**
Social development	3.41	1.235	3.28	1.050	0.892
Learning abilities	4.75	0.325	4.88	0.248	-3.573**

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$

The data shows significant statistical gender differences in emotional development: [ $t(104) = 4.886, p < 0.01$  \*\*] so boys ( $M = 4.70, SD = 0.220$ ) are more developed emotionally compared to girls ( $M = 4.50, SD = 0.169$ ). Similarly, the data shows significant statistical gender differences in social development [ $t(104) = -2.372, p < 0.05$  \*]. Boys ( $M = 4.62, SD = 0.325$ ) are more socially developed than girls ( $M = 4.75, SD = 0.085$ ). Moreover, the data show significant statistical gender differences in learning ability: [ $t(104) = 3.730, p < 0.01$  \*\*], so girls ( $M = 4.97, SD = 0.125$ ) are more developed in their learning ability compared to boys ( $M = 4.77, SD = 0.306$ ).

### Hypothesis 3: The relation between children' preparedness and parents' education level

This study examined the hypothesis that the differences between of children's degrees of adjustment are related to the education level of parents. The results shown in the Table 3.

**Table 4: The relation between adjustment level and parental education**

Variables	Level of parents' education	
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	Without education (n=68)		Secondary education (n=143)		Higher education (n=65)		F(2,273)
	M	AS	M	AS	M	AS	
Emotional development	2.75	1.238	2.78	1.456	3.36	1.392	4.060*
Social development	3.25	1.225	3.38	1.201	3.44	1.019	0.491
Learning skills	4.80	0.306	4.83	0.307	4.85	0.287	1.333

\*p<.05, \*\*p<0.01

Significant differences were noted between the children's emotional development, depending on the education level of their parents: Children of parents with higher levels of education demonstrated higher degrees of emotional development ( $F(2, 273) = 4.060, p < 0.05$  \*). However, the case was not such for the social development and learning abilities of children ( $F(2, 273) = 0.491, n.s$ ) ( $F(2, 273) = 1.333, n.s$ ).

### **The results of the qualitative research**

Interviews with parents focused on the analysis of various aspects of adjustment to school principles: the experience of parents whose children were born in last quarter of the year; the role of age as a component of school preparedness; prolonging, if necessary, the children's time in kindergarten by another year; and offering recommendations for parents. The obtained results revealed some unexpected and interesting findings. These findings clearly demonstrate the importance of age in the transition from kindergarten to primary school. When we regard the key elements (psychological, social and educational) in the process of preparing a child for formal education, we can say that the transition carries considerable significance for children's development and the formation of their personality, and that age is a crucially important component of preparedness for school.

Many parents interviewed described their experience regarding their children's primary school experience as difficult and frustrating. Most parent indicated that several special age-related needs of young children were ignored in school. Parents commented that the curriculum was more complicated than in previous years, and that their children needed constant guidance in their learning tasks. Parents highlighted individual differences between children and as a result the need for a flexible curriculum suitable for each child. Parents increasingly considered the possibility of extending their children's time in kindergarten as a solution to these issues. The results revealed the limited capacity of small children to take responsibility for their learning experience and communication skills in their new, different, environment. Among other things, parents noted their concerns and interest in the changes that took place in both institutional networks, kindergartens and schools.

### **The valorisation of psycho-pedagogical conditions and methods for kindergarten children's adjustment to primary school**

The results of the research were found to be in agreement with the results of other studies on the same subject, which stressed the importance of pre-schooling diagnosis in making this transition easier and more successful for children and their families (ETCRG, 2011; Fabian

and Dunlop, 2006; Margetts, 2007). The relation between children's age and their school performance and learning process throughout their school years is attested to in many studies, including Hámori and Köllö (2011).

An experimental program for optimising the conditions for children's adjustment to primary school was formulated, including practical implications and recommendations. As only a joint effort of parents and educational staff at both the kindergarten and school may ensure the success of a child's emotional and social development, this program also comprised guidance and advice to parents of young children. The program comprised diverse guided educational activities and training, to be implemented in the course of ten meetings, 2.5 hours each. The intervention program is aimed at reducing the socio-emotional gap between the two age groups of children.

## CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This research concerns one of the most relevant and complex problems challenging the educational system: the pedagogical adjustment of children to educational process. For the first time, this issue is examined from another perspective, one that seeks to identify the particularities and specificities of two preschool age categories: children born in the first quarter of the year and children born in the last quarter of the year. In this context, the obtained results led us to formulate the following conclusions:

1. The study has demonstrated that the psycho-pedagogical conditions for children's adjustment to primary school act as a coherent system comprising *internal conditions*: age of admission to school, social development, emotional development and development of learning skills; and *external conditions*: parents' education level, a familial support, family and school climate and the teacher's competence.
2. It has been determined that age significantly influences children's readiness for school. Children born in the first quarter of the year show a significantly higher degree of socio-emotional development in comparison to children born in the last quarter of the year.
3. The research results have confirmed the presence of gender differences at both the class level and in relation to age group.
4. It has been demonstrated that the level of parents' education affects children's adjustment to school. With the ascendance of parental education grows a child's degree of emotional development. However, the level of parental education does not have a significant impact on the social development and learning abilities of children.
5. Another year in kindergarten: the study's results attest to the value of examining the possibility of extending a child's time in kindergarten by another year, which may, in certain cases, improve many of the aspects that impact a child's transition to school and overall school experience.
6. It was established that preparatory programs designed to assist children in the transition to school may promote a positive experience that may assist children in successfully overcoming the difficulties associated with the transition period. The present study did not ascertain whether a child underwent such a program before transitioning between institutions. Taking such a variable into consideration may comparatively influence the data of any further study.
7. At this stage, teachers, parents and the educational climate in the institution, share a crucial and decisive role in supporting and supervising children during their first lessons in elementary school.

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## LEARNING FROM THE MUD TALK: CONTINUUM UNDERSTANDING OF SEASONAL MIGRATION IN SOUTHWEST COASTAL BANGLADESH

MD MOSTAFIZUR RAHMAN<sup>1</sup> AND MAHMUD UZ ZAMAN<sup>2</sup>

### ABSTRACT

To explain the theoretical link between migration and development, this paper conceptualises that seasonal migration offers compartmental development, which is a series of 'priority accomplishing activities', ranging from the fulfilment of primary needs to the uplifting of social status. This research adopts a qualitative research design to explore seasonal migration linked with the three zones, namely i) zone of influence-questioning the 'why' aspects, ii) zone of involvement-questioning the 'how' aspects, and iii) zone of investment-questioning the 'what' aspects. The thematic analysis based on fifteen in-depth interviews with brickfield workers shows that, due to limited working opportunities in rural areas of southwest Bangladesh, seasonal migration holds opportunities to earn an 'extra' amount of money that it is impossible to earn at the place of origin. Furthermore, seasonal migrants invest the economic gain immediately at the place of origin, and social gain in the next season to find more profitable and consistent working opportunities.

**Keywords:** Seasonal migration, Brickfield workers, '3 Is', Thematic analysis, Southwest coastal Bangladesh.

### SEASONAL MIGRATION: THE OVERALL SITUATION

Due to rapid urbanisation and improvements using modern technology in the transport and communication sectors, migration research has become exceedingly challenging. With the development of modern technology, people can move easily from rural to urban areas to organise low-cost accommodation facilities using their social capital/kinship relationships and to explore both short-term and long-term job opportunities, mostly in the informal sector. Generally speaking, migration is a movement that involves permanent or semi-permanent change in residence from one settlement to another (Chandana, 1998). Migration is associated with two major issues: economic reasons or income opportunities dominated by pull factors of migration; and environmental change driven by push factors of migration (Afsar, 2000; Martin, 2009). Many researchers (Todaro, 1969; Afsar, 2000; Thet, 2009; Kainth, 2010) have highlighted that both push and pull factors play an influential role in moving from rural to urban contexts, although the boundaries of pull and push migration are not clearly articulated in the conceptual understanding of overall migration literature. Moreover, the diversity in conceptualising migration, in particular the seasonal migration that occurs regularly on a seasonal basis, aligning with semi-permanent migration which is a temporary change in residence leaving some of the family members at the place of origin to maintain a strong connection between place of destination and origin, have challenged the overall understanding about the movement pattern of people from rural to urban (Dolgova, 2002). The trade theory entails that rural workers are attracted to higher income in urban areas and are keen to sell their labour from the traditional rural agricultural sector to the modern urban manufacturing sector (Lewis, 1954; Ranis and Fei, 1961). Surprisingly, employment levels in the informal sector characterised by unskilled labour fluctuates in every year which also creates instability and

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uncertainty in the availability of work in urban areas. Also, sometimes employment in the informal sector is considered unattractive to native labourers, and this can create a potential market for seasonal migrants (Piore, 1979).

In contrast to the pull factor in seasonal migration, the push factor also dominates seasonal migration. Now, the question arises of which aspects of seasonal migration are influenced by push factors. In addressing that question, the aspects of productivity associated with seasonality and environmental degradation due to climate change can act as major factors of push migration. During a lean period, people tend to temporarily migrate to the nearby and/or distant urban areas for employment as because of the unavailability of minimum livelihood opportunities at the place of origin (Breman, 1994). The period of adversity at the place of origin can also become periodic and can create seasonal unemployment, resulting in push migration. In that case, migration becomes a survival strategy of life (Konseiga, 2002). Besides this, the climate change demonstrated by frequent disasters has displaced many people especially from coastal areas (Brindal, 2007; Martin, 2009). This displacement has caused large numbers of people to migrate to adjacent urban areas either temporarily or permanently to find safer places (Boncour and Burson, 2010).

Migration seems to be a natural process for many cities around the world, and Khulna, the 3<sup>rd</sup> largest city in Bangladesh, is no exception because it also holds economic potential and smooth connectivity with its adjacent small cities and satellite towns (Haider, 2010). One of the key features of Khulna is the dominance of brickfield sites located in the fringe areas, which lie immediately outside the main city (McManus and Ethington, 2007). Brickfield sites are one of the key locations to offer seasonal employability with a large level of occupancy. Furthermore, seasonal migrants do not require any particular technical skills to take these working opportunities except for physical fitness for performing activities like soil digging, soil cutting, carrying with a pushcart, and organising bricks for firing. Therefore, in every year, the brickfield sites attract large numbers of seasonal migrants for a particular time. This study is conducted in Rupsha Upazila under Khulna District ('Upazila' is in the second administrative tier, performing as a sub-unit the district and maintains communication between the district level and union level). Out of 86 brick kiln factories in Khulna District, around 50% are located in Rupsha Upazila; the highest number when compared with the other Upazilas of Khulna District (Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics, 2013). Referring to the empirical evidence, this research explores the three zones associated with seasonal migration, namely i) the zone of influence-questioning the 'why' aspects of seasonal migration, ii) the zone of involvement-questioning the 'how' aspects of seasonal migration, and iii) the zone of investment-questioning the 'what' aspects of seasonal migration. Furthermore, this study establishes a connection between migration and development understanding that seasonal migration offers compartmental development, which is a series of 'priority accomplishing activities' ranging from the fulfilment of primary needs to the uplifting of social status.

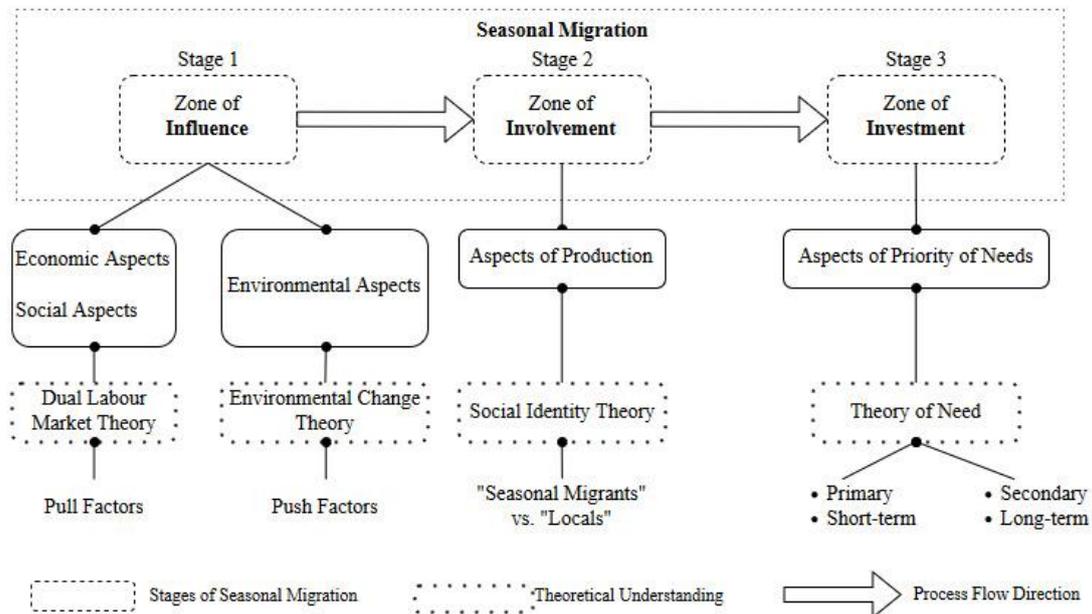
### **CONCEPTUAL COMPLEXITIES: UNDERSTANDING THE '3 IS' (INFLUENCE-INVOLVEMENT-INVESTMENT) IN SEASONAL MIGRATION**

Within the overall discourse of migration, seasonal migration can be depicted as a multi-stage process. In exploring the multi-stages of seasonal migration, this study postulates that seasonal migration is associated with the '3 Is' (influence, involvement, and investment). Considering the '3 Is', the first stage of seasonal migration dictates the zone of influence that is pertained with the three aspects, namely economic, social, and environmental. This research conceptualises that the zone of influence deals with the 'why' aspects of seasonal migration, mainly questioning the reasons of seasonal migration, and the migratory status of the families, and their factors of migration. This research recognises the zone of influence as a primary proponent of seasonal migration. In explaining this stage, the factors of migration such as pull

factor and push factors can be further examined with the two major theoretical perspectives, namely dual labour market theory and environmental change theory respectively. Dual labour market theory explains migration with focus on supply and demand. According to Piore (1979), wages for migrants are not only a reflection of the condition of supply and demand, but are also a matter of status and prestige. In contrast, environmental change theory highlights that there is a connection between income inequality and the increased consumption of status-oriented goods and fossil fuel which can be further reflected through global environmental degradation and that can influence decisions on migration (Chao and Schor, 1998; Ostrom, 2008; Wilkinson and Pickett, 2009).

Understanding the theoretical perspectives, we agree that seasonal migration takes place due to both push and pull factors. In pull seasonal migration, issues like the presence of strong kinship at the destination, differential wage pattern, consistent working opportunities along with the seasonal variability, and, sometimes, the overall quality of living close to urban areas exemplify the relationship between theoretical perspectives and empirical perspectives. In establishing a connection between the pull-factors and the economic and social aspects of seasonal migration, this research has adopted the dual labour market theory. Again, while examining the push-factors of seasonal migration linked with the extreme climatic events such as cyclone, flood, and river erosion, this research has applied the environmental change theory. Based on the theoretical understanding, we recognise that the zone of influence is associated with issues of the place of origin and the deciding reasons of seasonal migration (see Figure 1).

**Figure 1. Conceptual understanding of the ‘3 Is’ in seasonal migration**



Source: Authors, 2018.

The second stage of seasonal migration, the zone of involvement deals with the ‘how’ aspects of seasonal migration, incorporating the issues like period and duration of migration, process of finding work/chances of employability, types of work, and payment structure. This stage incorporates the activities performed by the seasonal migrants at their place of destination. Primarily, the zone of involvement indicates the internal mobility pattern of seasonal migration. This stage also establishes the interconnection between the classification of labour followed by the different wage structure and the period of engagement to understand the dynamics of

seasonal migration. The interconnection clearly indicates the production perspective of seasonal migrants characterising the possibility of selling labour in parallel with the amount of financial gain. In contrast to financial gain, tension dynamics between seasonal migrants and the local workers are also common, especially when it comes to finding jobs at the place of destination. By using the social identity theory perspective, we can recognise the socio-psychological behaviour between these two groups because social identity theory apprehends how the identities are negotiated in a context of migration (Tajfel and Turner, 1986; Weber, 2014). It also exerts inter-group identity forms and links to group membership (Burke and Tully, 1977; McAreavey, 2017).

The third and final stage of seasonal migration, the zone of investment incorporates the ‘what’ aspects of seasonal migration, featuring the after-effects of seasonal migration. The final stage of seasonal migration exemplifies the types of benefits (classified as economic and social) received by the migrants. The zone of investment explains how seasonal migrants use their income and social gain at the place of origin. We have anticipated that economic benefits coupled with social benefits affect migrants in multifaceted ways. This research accepts that the benefits received by seasonal migrants are used according to their priorities, ranging from the fulfilment of primary needs to the upliftment of social status. The benefits offer a step-by-step and/or a section-by-section (and, generally speaking, a gradual) development that can be likened to a compartmental development establishing a strong reference between migration and development.

### **METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH: EXPLORING THE VOICES (‘MUD TALK’) OF THE BRICKFIELD WORKERS**

The understanding of seasonal migration is continually changing because it is associated with multiple aspects such as economic, social, and environmental aspects. Also, the indistinguishable boundaries between pull and push factors of seasonal migration have made this understanding even more complex. Recognising that, this research is primarily grounded on the experiences of the seasonal migrants, particularly those working in the brickfields of Rupsha Upazila. We have adopted a qualitative research approach because it provides detailed understanding of the seasonal migration by talking directly with people, going to their places of work, and allowing them to tell their stories (Creswell, 2007). At the outset, we had limited understanding about the experiences of seasonal migrants who work at the brickfields of Rupsha Upazila, and the use of qualitative methods enabled us to capture the broader perspectives of seasonal migration and development because qualitative methods are soft, flexible, subjective, and grounded in data (Halfpenny, 1979). Although qualitative research requires a broader and less restrictive design, it also demands the combination of empirical evidence and theoretical claims to produce an argument (Schwandt, 2007). Recognising that, whenever we have collected data, we have attempted to continually relate the data with the theoretical understanding of seasonal migration. Furthermore, we have used a case study approach because it offers an in-depth exploration from multiple perspectives (why people migrate from rural to urban areas; how seasonal migrants get employment at their place of destination; what seasonal migrants receive from migration) within the real-life context (Simons, 2009).

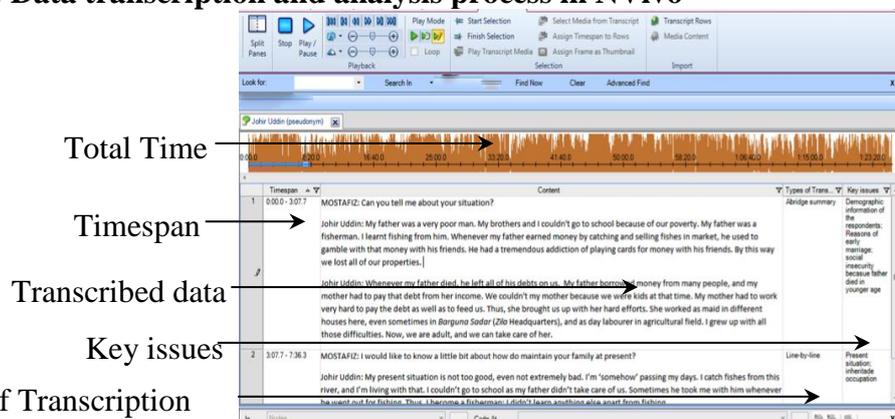
This research focuses on the making sense of the complex issues related to seasonal migration, and in doing so, we have purposely selected fifteen seasonal migrants working in the brickfields of Rupsha Upazila for face-to-face in-depth interviews. We have adopted purposeful sampling because it has allowed us to choose research participants that we were particularly interested in (Silverman and Marvasti, 2008). Aligning with the purposeful sampling, we have also used the ‘problem sampling’ that offers a much looser and more general

theoretical role, and which contains an opening to the possibility of conceptual and analytic discovery (Layder, 2012, p.121).

We developed an interview guide with quite specific topics related to seasonal migration prior to interview. However, we kept the interview process flexible so as to ask further questions in response to important replies from the research participants. The in-depth interviews were conducted between February and May. Due to the seasonal variation followed by the availability of migrants, we collected data at the initial stage of the working season, just after winter. We adopted a qualitative perspective of data analysis that is not concerned with statistical representativeness, but rather with a selection of units of investigation that can generate a theory (Kardorff, 2004). We used both note taking and audio recording as data collection tools during the interviews because using those tools can establish greater trustworthiness, and conformability in interpretation (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005).

From the beginning of this research, we have used NVivo, a qualitative data storing and analysis software, to store and organise the collected information from the brickfield workers. Typically, software like NVivo has provided the opportunity to store textual documents in reference to a coding system by tagging or indexing parts of those documents (Gregorio and Davidson, 2008). Along with many researchers such as Miles and Huberman (1994), Maxwell (2009) and Saldana (2011), we also recognise that it is impossible to separate the data gathering and data analysis steps in qualitative inquiry; therefore, we have collected the data and have analysed the data simultaneously. During the data analysis, we have undertaken the translation and transcription by ourselves because the real value of doing our own transcription is building intimate knowledge of the data (Bazeley, 2013). The use of NVivo software has provided us with the opportunity to link the audio data with the transcripts. In this way, the contextual information has been kept embedded in each transcribed document. One of the main advantages of using NVivo software is to link the specific information along with the time frame (see Figure 2).

**Figure 2: Data transcription and analysis process in NVivo**



Source: Authors, generated in NVivo, 2018.

While analysing the data, we have given our priorities in exploring the meaning from the text because the proper analysis involves developing the meanings of the interviews, bringing the research participants' perspectives to light and providing new perspectives from the researchers (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009). Due to the high flexibility features of interviews, we have used thematic analysis to identify and to interpret the patterns (themes) within the data (Bazeley, 2013). During the thematic analysis, we have explored 'codes' like the economic aspects of migration, push and pull factors of migration, payment types (fixed and/or flexible), and the social benefits of migration from the interview data (see Table 1). Coding is one way of analysing the qualitative data, where codes are generated from language-based data, which are

the most often words or short phrases that symbolically assigns a summative, salient, and essence-capturing attribute (Saldana, 2013).

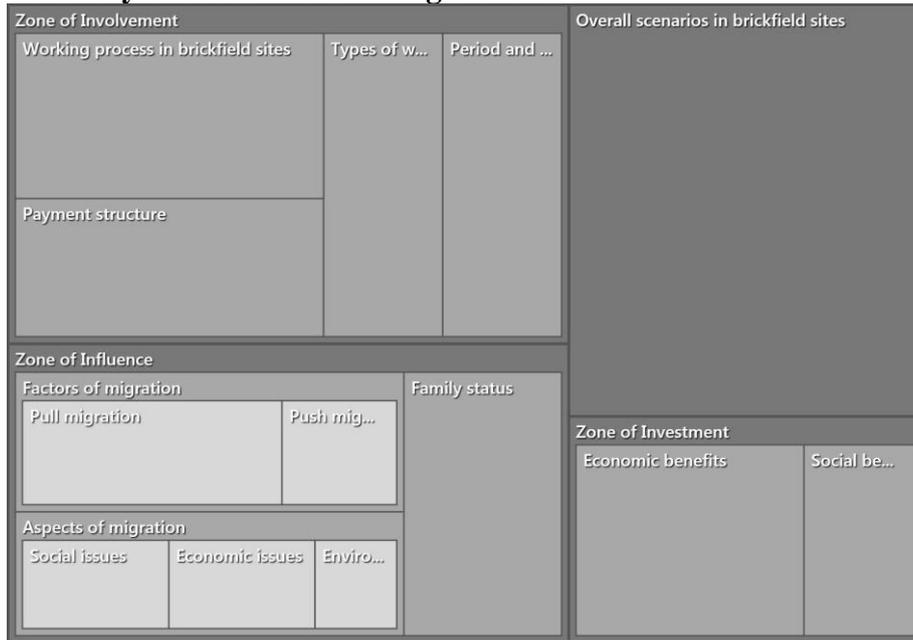
**Table 1: Exploration of codes from interview data during thematic analysis**

Name of the Codes	Sources	References
1.0 Overall scenarios in brickfield sites	15	60
2.0 Zone of Influence	15	69
2.1 Aspects of migration	9	23
2.1.1 Economic issues	6	9
2.1.2 Environmental issues	5	5
2.1.3 Social issues	4	9
2.2 Factors of migration	14	26
2.2.1 Pull migration	12	18
2.2.2 Push migration	7	8
2.3 Family status	15	20
3.0 Zone of Involvement	15	78
3.1 Payment structure	15	20
3.2 Period and duration of seasonal migration	14	17
3.3 Types of works	14	17
3.4 Working process in brickfield sites	11	24
4.0 Zone of Investment	12	33
4.1 Economic benefits	12	22
4.2 Social benefits	7	11

Source: Authors, generated in NVivo, 2018.

The preliminary analysis from the aggregated data shows that the fifteen in-depth interviews are categorised into three codes, namely the zone of influence, the zone of involvement, and the zone of investment. The zone of influence contains three sub-categories: aspects of migration, factors of migration, and family status of the migrants. The analysis also indicates that both pull and push factors are present in seasonal migration. The zone of involvement has four sub-categories: payment structure, duration of seasonal migration, types of work, and working process. The value in the 'references' column in relation to the zone of influence indicates that the seasonal migrants have mentioned, for example, 78 times the sub-categories in the zone of influence either directly or indirectly in their interviews. Lastly, the zone of investment holds two sub-categories: economic benefits and social benefits. These are coded from twelve interviews instead of fifteen interviews (see Table 1). This is because three of the respondents did not mention anything regarding the benefits or outcomes of migration either positively or negatively. The rest of the respondents stated that the economic benefits play a crucial role at their place of destination. The study also suggests that the notion of economic benefits commensurate with upliftment in the personal and family sphere of seasonal migrants act as a tool to break the persistent debt cycle and achieve some increase in social status.

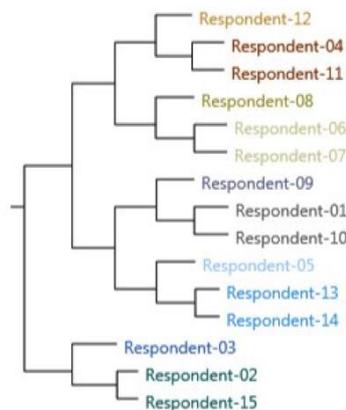
**Figure 3: Hierarchy of codes in examining the ‘3 Is’**



Source: Authors, generated in NVivo, 2018.

Hierarchy of codes have assisted us to assimilate the common factors regarding seasonal migration into four themes: zone of influence, zone of involvement, zone of investment, and the overall scenarios in brickfield sites. Learning from the voices of the brickfield workers, we could establish that both zone of influence and zone of involvement have an equal share in explaining seasonal migration in the brickfield sites (see Figure 3). However, the zone of influence occupies more versatile factors than the zone of involvement. The zone of investment has an emphasis on both social and economic benefits where economic benefits hold the leading characteristics. The crosscutting issues have been discussed under the overall scenarios in brickfield sites, indicating that seasonal migrants mostly focus on repaying their debt and fulfil their personal and family needs rather engaging in long-term activities in brickfield sites.

**Figure 4: Interviews of brickfield workers clustered by word similarity**



Source: Authors, generated in NVivo, 2018.

The cluster analysis of the source data (interview data) shows that some similarities and dissimilarities exist in responses to the questions related to seasonal migration given by the migrants. Figure 4 shows that respondent 4 and respondent 11 have addressed similar topics and have identified similar issues related to seasonal migration; therefore, these two

respondents are located in the same cluster on the basis of their interviews (see Figure 4). Also, respondent 2 and respondent 15 are identified in the same cluster, but they are different from the rest of the cluster. This exactly matches with the initial findings of the data, indicating that the respondent 2, respondent 3, and respondent 15 are contractors of the seasonal migrants who also work as seasonal migrants in the brickfield sites (see Figure 4).

The preliminary analysis of the source data shows that seasonal migrants are coming to the transition zones to tap the benefits of their newly developed social connections, which also act as a tool for social capital for recurring seasonal migration. This issue has made seasonal migrants more susceptible to frequent migration from the rural to the urban context. These underlying dynamics are explored and discussed in detail in accordance with the ‘3 Is’ (influence-involvement-investment).

### UNDERSTANDING THE ZONE OF INFLUENCE: THE ‘WHY’ ASPECTS

To explore the zone of influence, we started our analysis by producing a ‘word cloud’ to analyse critically the voices of the brickfield workers. The ‘word cloud’ is a common tool used to explore and visualise textual data (McNaught and Lam, 2010; Filatova, 2016). The more frequently a word appears within the written transcripts, the larger and bolder it appears in the word cloud. In this research, we have used this tool in NVivo to get a quick visual response from the source data, the interviews with the brickfield workers.

The word cloud of zone of influence depicts that this stage of seasonal migration is linked with the place of origin because its strong presence: 87 times within the aggregated codes of zone of influence (see Table 2). The data from Table 2 also shows that family holds an important role for migration that can be further influenced by the role of contractors who offer either working opportunities or income opportunities that can be further associated with monthly engagement in order to support their family and relatives and to pay the loans of destination.

**Table 2: Fifteen most frequent words of the aggregated codes of ‘zone of influence’**

Word	Length	Count	Weighted Percentage	Similar Words
working	7	203	6.83	work, worked, working, works
brick	5	124	4.17	brick
village	7	121	4.07	village, villagers, villages
family	6	87	2.93	family
origin	6	87	2.93	origin, original
contractor	10	63	2.12	contractor
place	5	62	2.09	place, places
household	9	60	2.02	household
income	6	48	1.62	income
workers	7	41	1.38	worker, workers
months	6	39	1.31	month, monthly, months
opportunity	11	38	1.28	opportunity
relative	8	34	1.14	related, relative
debt	4	30	1.01	debt
money	5	30	1.01	money

*Source: Authors, generated in NVivo, 2018.*

A complete illustration of words of the aggregated codes of ‘zone of influence’ is shown in Figure 5 where words like ‘family,’ ‘village,’ ‘origin,’ ‘household,’ ‘relative,’ and ‘problem’



**Figure 6: Visual appearance of the aggregated codes of ‘zone of involvement’**

Source: Authors, generated in NVivo, 2018.

The thematic analysis of interview data shows that within the same brickfield site, the payment structure also varies greatly such as fixed, flexible, and mixture of both payment systems, and this is often associated with the classification of labour as well as the level of engagement in each activity. The payment structure along with the types of activities are highlighted through the voice of one of the seasonal migrants in brickfield (Pseudonym: Sabur Shaikh; Sex: Male; Age: 55; Activity type: Carry soil for making bricks; Payment type: Mixture of fixed and flexible, and daily; Migratory status: Individual but with a group of people from the same village):

*I have been working in brickfields for the last seven seasons. I have done many activities here, but I like the soil cutting and carrying activities because it pays much. At first, I came here by a contractor who was from the same village where I lived in. We are coming from different villages, performing different activities for different time. Therefore, our earnings are also different and that's all I can tell you now!*

Most of the workers are paid on daily basis, but a portion of the advanced payment, which was paid at the beginning of season, is also deducted from the daily income. All of the workers have highlighted that the contractors arrange their jobs, and most of the workers take loans from their contractors before their first-time migration. This research recognises that the relationship between workers and contractors holds a positive connotation and plays a significant role in the seasonal migration to brickfield sites in southwest coastal Bangladesh.

### **UNDERSTANDING THE ZONE OF INVESTMENT: THE ‘WHAT’ ASPECTS**

We postulate that zone of investment is related with the after-effects of seasonal migration. We have used the term ‘investment,’ as the seasonal migrants are investing their achievements, both economical and social, in the place of origin. However, they also benefit from their newly acquired skills from the zone of involvement and may or may not immediately use this in the place of destination. An aggregated visual representation of the word cloud of zone of involvement shows that words like ‘money,’ ‘family,’ ‘origin,’ ‘month,’ ‘season,’ and ‘village’ have emerged frequently (see Figure 7). However, responses like ‘repay,’ ‘debt,’ ‘loan,’ ‘problem’ are also coming forward but in lesser intensity. The commonly-used words in the zone of investment indicate that migrants are prone to use their achievement in those sectors but are reluctant to specify their usage, either in economic or social aspects.



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## SIGNIFICANCE OF RESOURCES OF SOCIAL CAPITAL IN MANAGEMENT OF AN ENTERPRISE IN POLAND

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### ABSTRACT

This paper concentrates on the illustration of the significance of the resources of social capital in the management of an enterprise. The authors present the results of empirical research in terms of the significance of the resources of social capital, namely: participation, cooperation, solidarity, loyalty, norms and values, as well as social networks and trust in the management of enterprises. They have formulated three questions as follows: What is the scope of the occurrence of social capital in enterprises in Poland? Do differences exist in the level of social capital with regard to the magnitude of enterprises? In which area does social capital improve the ability of enterprises to develop economic activity, while simultaneously increasing their economic efficiency? In the search for answers to these questions the survey research method was applied. As a result of the research, the most significant resources of social capital in enterprises have been identified. Significant statistical relations between the attributes of the resources of social capital and the indicators of the effectiveness of enterprises have been indicated.

**Keywords:** Social capital, Social network, Organizational trust, Social capital resources, Enterprises.

### INTRODUCTION

In the contemporary economy, the success of an enterprise in the market is increasingly decided by intangible values. One of these is the skill of cooperation within employee groups and organisations with the aim of realising common interests. The aforesaid skill depends on the degree to which the particular organisation acknowledges and shares the same set of social norms and values. Sharing is to the benefit of building social capital which is of significant cultural value and economic value. The advantage of social capital is the faster flow of information and knowledge which results in the reduction of costs associated with the coordination of the aims executed. It results in the greater integration of employees and strengthens the ties with the enterprise as an institution and with its employees. Social capital has a positive impact on the growth of the effectiveness of enterprises. With relation to this fact, it is worth undertaking action in the area of building social capital. Its formation may be defined as the management of social capital which encompasses the sequence of the specified values and instruments that are availed of in building its elements, namely social networks, its attributes, e.g. involvement, solidarity, co-action and trust. The most important subject of this management is the manager who undertakes specified action in order to shape the resources of social capital.

By assuming that social capital has an impact on the effectiveness of an enterprise and therefore also on its market position, three research questions have been formulated as follows:

- What is the scope of the occurrence of social capital in enterprises in Poland?

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- Do differences exist in the level of social capital with regard to the magnitude of enterprises?
- In which area does social capital improve the ability of enterprises to develop economic activity, while simultaneously increasing their economic efficiency?

In the search for answers to these questions the survey method and questionnaire technique were applied.

### **SOCIAL CAPITAL IN AN ENTERPRISE - THEORETICAL BACKGROUND**

The concepts of social capital are varied at the level of both conceptualisation and operationalisation. Numerous interpretations of this term result from various research perspectives. In analysing its definitions, it is possible to distinguish several ways to perceive it:

- firstly, as a set of actual and potential resources that are associated with the possession of a long-lasting network with greater or lesser institutionalised ties based on mutual familiarity and acknowledgement (Bourdieu, 1986);
- secondly, as the properties of collectivity: networks, norms and trust which facilitate coordination and cooperation in the name of mutual benefits (Putman, 1994);
- thirdly, as the norms and social relations embedded in the social structure that facilitate the cooperation of people with the aim of executing designated aims (Grootaert, 1998);
- fourthly, as institutions, relations and norms that have an impact on the quality and amount of social interactions (Halpern, 2005);
- fifthly, relating to the resources of other actors from whom an individual actor may benefit in terms of his/her own aims basing on the obligation or willingness of the associated actors to provide other actors with access to their resources (Iseke, 2007);
- sixthly, as a type of bond connecting society which involves trust, cooperation and networks (Yaghoubi, Salehi and Moloudi, 2011).

In all of these definitions, the focal points are held by networks, trust, norms and values constituting the basis of the functioning of society, including organisations. To conclude, social capital signifies a component of the skills of co-action and cooperation of individuals within the framework of social groups, organisations and social institutions of various types for the realisation of common goals (Fuchs, 2006).

In analysing social capital in an organisation, it is possible to distinguish internal and external approaches (Leana and Frits, 2006). The external approach places emphasis on the connections of the organisation with its external stakeholders. An organisation creates a network with external entities through which it avails itself of knowledge capital created by the network participants (Burt, 2000). In the internal approach, social capital is perceived as the form and nature of the social relations connecting the employees of a particular enterprise who have an impact on the creation of the vibe of cooperation. The ability to compete with other organisations is the function of both forms of social capital (Adler and Kwon, 2002).

Social capital may be perceived as a resource or a process. In the former approach, social capital is a set of existing or potential resources of a productive nature that exist in the structure of an organisation. In the latter approach, social capital is activity and interaction between entities of an intangible nature (Skawińska, 2012). It is possible to divide this up into individual capital which is perceived to be the ability of individuals to acquire valuable tangible or symbolic goods by means of social relations (Prendergast, 2005) and collective capital as cooperation based on mutual trust, loyalty, solidarity, fair distribution of duties and gratification (Sztompka, 2015). Both of these variations of capital overlap into each other.

In an organisation, social capital may take on various dimensions. Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) describe three of its dimensions, namely: structural (ties between the members of the organisation); cognitive, or a common language (signs, symbols); and the relational dimension (norms of mutuality, trust). The structural dimension of social capital encompasses social networks, groups, structures and social institutions within which numerous configurations of ties between their participants exist. The cognitive dimension of social capital facilitates the building of a common cognitive perspective. Its elements, namely language and common values, define the ability to share explicit and tacit knowledge. The relational dimension of social capital relates to the resources that accompany the relations of two or more people. This facilitates cooperation between the team members that leads to increasing the amount of dialogue and joint communication (Schipper et al., 2007).

Social capital brings a multitude of benefits to an organisation. It may have a positive impact on the position of the firm in the market thanks to the transfer of knowledge acquired by means of participation in external networks and the spread of knowledge between the internal entities of the firm (Liu, Ghauri and Sinkovics, 2010). Organisational-knowledge sharing is facilitated by a social network, social trust and shared goals in a culture of trust, cooperation and participation (Bautista, May and Bayang, 2015). Social capital favours the sharing of knowledge via the provision of tacit and explicit knowledge, the exchange of knowledge and innovation in the team (Hu and Randel, 2014). Likewise, social capital also stimulates innovations, education, while also having an impact on work efficiency (Sztaudynger, 2007).

Social capital also brings benefits to employees in the form of building ties with the enterprise as an institution and with other employees. It also guarantees employees access to attractive resources, namely new knowledge and information, new competences, skills, support in difficult situations, and prestige.

## **SOCIAL CAPITAL IN ENTERPRISES IN LIGHT OF RESEARCH**

The problematic issues of social capital in enterprises is not a frequent subject of research on the management of enterprises in Poland. The authors of this paper have the intention of filling this gap by presenting the results of empirical research on the significance of the resources of social capital, e.g. participation, cooperation, solidarity, loyalty, norms and values, and also trust in the management of enterprises. The research was conducted in 2018 and was participated in by 149 enterprises, including 28 micro-sized enterprises (0-9 people), 38 small enterprises (10-49 employees) and 46 medium-sized enterprises (50-249 employees) and 40 large enterprises (250 workers and more). The selection of enterprises for research was based on the quota-purposive sampling method.

The concept of social capital in an organisation is still poorly prepared in a theoretical and empirical sense. There is a gap in terms of knowledge on the issue of specific indicators defining the level of social capital in an organisation. The authors of the herein paper have proposed a set of indicators that enable the identification of the attributes of the resources of social capital in enterprises. On the basis of the classification of Theiss (2005), the dimensions of social capital have been distinguished as structural, regulative and behavioural, within which resources have been identified. In Table 1 the results of research on the attributes of the resources of social capital have been presented. One of the most important points in the opinion of the researchers is cooperation, which is an element of behavioural social capital. Coleman (1988) indicated that the skill of interpersonal cooperation within the framework of groups and organisations facilitates the realisation of common goals. The research conducted by the authors of this paper indicates that the micro-sized enterprises evaluate this resource at the highest level (4.01), particularly sharing information, knowledge and learning from each other (4.30), as well as the frequent contact with managers in the search for new solutions to the tasks

commissioned for execution (4.03). The resource of co-action and cooperation was evaluated as relatively lower by the representatives of the remaining companies, albeit the differences between them are slight. In small firms, the frequency of contact with managers in the search for new solutions to the tasks commissioned for execution was evaluated at the highest level, whereas in medium-sized enterprises the use of knowledge from one area to resolve problems which emerge in another area of the firm was rated at the highest level, and in large companies sharing information, knowledge and learning from others are deemed to be at the highest level.

The skill of cooperation depends on the extent in which the particular organisation acknowledges and shares the set of norms and social values. Values constitute a significant resource of social capital as sharing by the members of the group facilitates cooperation between them. This resource was highly rated by the representatives of micro-sized firms (4.02) and large companies (3.85) by indicating that employees adhere to copyright laws and have respect for norms and values.

Loyalty belongs to the cognitive element of social capital which encompasses social norms and values. This is shown by being loyal towards the firm and co-workers, willingness to provide help to work colleagues and in keeping their word. In the analysed enterprises the most highly-rated attributes are associated with this resource in micro-sized and small enterprises, particularly in terms of loyalty towards the firm in which they work.

The regulative component of social capital is solidarity. In the analysed enterprises this is relatively lower in terms of evaluation than the remaining resources. This particularly relates to the attribute of placing the general good over one's own which is assessed at a low level. The degree of occurrence of the resource of solidarity is varied, depending on the size of the enterprises. Solidarity exists to the greatest extent among the employees of micro-sized firms, whereas to the lowest extent among large enterprises.

The lowest rated resource of social capital is that of participation which belongs to the structural element of social capital. On the one hand, it encompasses the sense of belonging of employees to informal groups, mutual informal contacts at the workplace, as well as participating in integration events, whereas on the other hand, membership of trade unions. In this sphere, significant differences occur in terms of the degree of their evaluation due to the magnitude of the enterprise. The attributes of this resource are rated at the highest level in large enterprises but at the lowest level in micro-sized enterprises.

**Table 1. Evaluation of attributes of social capital of cooperation, participation, solidarity, loyalty and value of employees in enterprises**

Attributes of resource	Total	Micro-sized firms	Small firms	Medium-sized firms	Large firms
Resource of cooperation	3.81	4.01	3.77	3.71	3.75
Employees share information, knowledge and learn from each other	3.93	4.30	3.78	3.77	4.00
Employees apply knowledge from one area for resolving problems which emerge in another area of the company	3.67	3.96	3.51	3.78	3.51
Employees make frequent contact with managers in the search for new solutions to the tasks commissioned for execution	3.82	4.03	3.86	3.75	3.72
Majority of employees possess skill of cooperation	3.82	3.92	3.84	3.74	3.85
Employees are creative in resolving problems at work	3.71	3.93	3.83	3.51	3.65

Resource of solidarity	3.31	3.66	3.34	3.27	3.07
Employees show solidarity with other colleagues at work	3.54	3.89	3.48	3.49	3.38
Employees place common good over their own	3.05	3.41	3.13	2.98	2.79
Employees are ready to take risks in activities	3.18	3.40	3.21	3.27	2.89
Employees are featured by ethicality in terms of relations with other employees	3.46	3.92	3.51	3.36	3.20
Resource of participation	3.17	3.02	3.20	3.15	3.25
Employees participate in integration events willingly	3.70	3.63	3.78	3.64	3.74
Employees create informal groups based on cooperation	3.26	3.00	3.19	3.27	3.49
Employees are in the majority of cases members of trade unions	2.54	2.44	2.62	2.55	2.54
Resource of loyalty	3.65	3.94	3.69	3.54	3.52
Employees are loyal to each other	3.50	3.85	3.51	3.34	3.43
Employees are loyal to the company where they work	3.57	4.00	3.79	3.56	3.38
Employees are ready to help other employees	3.78	3.96	3.78	3.73	3.72
Employees are amiable and cordial to each other	3.73	3.96	3.79	3.73	3.58
Resource of value	3.78	4.02	3.67	3.67	3.85
Majority of employees have respect for norms and values	3.74	4.01	3.62	3.67	3.77
Majority of employees accept dissimilarity of co-workers	3.67	3.95	3.59	3.51	3.74
Employees adhere to copyright	3.92	4.11	3.78	3.84	4.02

\*Scale between 1 and 5. Source: authors.

Multiple researchers perceive social networks as the most important resource of an organisation. Lin (2001) embedded resources in social relations that improve the results of activities. The authors of the research adopted a resource-based approach for the analysis of social networks. With the aim of the identification of the degree of occurrence of social networks in the analysed enterprises, indicators were created on the basis of the frequency of mutual formal and informal relations between employees and between managers and employees (Table 2). The general indicator of networking for the enterprises under analysis amounted to 5.73 on a scale of 1 to 10 (in which 1 signifies a lack, whereas 10 signifies great frequency or closeness of ties). Analysis of this type of indicator with regard to the magnitude of the enterprise indicates that significant differences are prevalent. Social networks exist in micro-sized enterprises (6.17) to the greatest extent, while also in large enterprises (5.91), albeit to the lowest degree in small firms (5.31). This results from the specifics of enterprises, in micro-sized firms with regard to the low number of people employed, employees enter into direct relations while conducting tasks, thus creating a type of social network. In turn, in large firms, employee teams are created which are focused on conducting specific tasks whose realisation requires cooperation and co-action. A social network favours the realisation of tasks in employee teams.

A detailed analysis of the indicators of networks in the analysed enterprises illustrates the differences in the degree of occurrence of formal and informal ties. Indicators of formal ties achieved a relatively higher value, i.e., the frequency of contact of an employee with other employees with whom (s)he has worked in the past year (7.59) and the frequency of contact of an employee with other employees with relation to business matters (7.17) rather than the indicators of informal ties, namely the frequency of contact of an employee with other employees after work, e.g. going out to a restaurant or pub together (4.49) and the closeness of ties between employees (4.91).

A significant role is played by the manager in social networks. In accordance with the models of networks prepared by Burt (2000), managers are becoming important elements of social networks. In the research, the authors indicate the significance of the function fulfilled by the manager in social networks composed of employees and managers, namely the frequency of contact with managers, to whom they may turn for assistance or advice (7.15) and the closeness of ties of employees with the manager (6.37).

**Table 2. Indicators of social networks in analysed enterprises**

Indicators of social networks	Total	Micro-sized firms	Small firms	Medium-sized firms	Large firms
Frequency of contact of an employee with other employees with whom he/she cooperated over the past year	7.59	7.67	7.05	7.75	7.87
Frequency of contact of an employee with other employees with relation to professional issues	7.17	7.81	6.24	7.17	7.59
Frequency of contact of an employee with other employees after work (get-togethers for dinner in a restaurant, supper or in a pub)	4.49	4.85	4.16	4.4	4.68
Closeness of ties of employees with other employees	4.91	5.70	4.43	4.47	5.35
Frequency of contact with managers to whom they can refer to for assistance or advice	6.49	7.15	6.12	6.78	6.02
Closeness of ties of employees with the manager	5.08	5.92	5.08	4.73	4.89

*Scale of values from 1 to 10, in which 1 signifies a lack, while 10 signifies high frequency or close relations. Source: authors.*

Another resource of social capital is that of trust which is perceived to be the conviction that a partner will take our interests into consideration only when we have taken his/her interests into account prior to this in the form of our activities. In the research of the authors, an identification of the level of trust towards co-workers and managers has been conducted (Table 2). Analysis of the research results indicate that the general level of trust in the analysed enterprises attained the value of 3.61 on a scale of 1 to 5, whereby 1 signified very low trust and 5 very high trust. Simultaneously, significant differences exist between the sizes of enterprises. The highest level of trust occurred in micro-sized firms (3.88), while the lowest in large firms (3.40). Detailed analysis of the general indicators of trust illustrates the prevalence of differences in their scale. Employees place greater trust in their managers (3.60) than in their co-workers (3.40). Relatively speaking, employees place their highest level of trust in the enterprises where they

work (3.76). Hence, institutional trust is at a higher level than horizontal trust (towards other employees). Similar results were gained in other research projects of trust in enterprises in Poland, whereby institutional trust was at the level of 3.80 and horizontal trust at the level of 3.57 (Krot and Lewicka, 2016, p. 107). A variable indicating differentiation for the analysed population of the enterprises with regard to the level of trust in employees was that of the magnitude of the enterprises (Table 2). The Gamma correlation coefficient between the level of trust in managers and the majority of employees and the size of enterprises amounted to  $\Gamma = -0,190$   $p = 0,013$ . A high level of trust was illustrated in micro-sized enterprises and in medium-sized enterprises, while the lowest in large enterprises. Hence, the greater the enterprise, the lower the level of trust in managers. Likewise, the level of trust in employees is associated with the magnitude of the enterprises ( $\Gamma = -0,240$ ,  $p = 0,002$ ). In this case, great differences were shown in terms of the level of trust between micro-sized enterprises and large enterprises.

**Table 3. Evaluation of level of trust of employees in analysed enterprises**

Specification	Total	Micro-sized firms	Small firms	Medium-sized firms	Large firms
Trust in other employees	3.40	3.81	3.40	3.29	3.23
Trust in managers	3.60	3.82	3.64	3.69	3.33
Trust in company	3.76	3.96	3.76	3.78	3.61
Trust in owner of company	3.65	3.92	3.54	3.80	3.41
General trust	3.61	3.88	3.58	3.64	3.40

*\*Scale between 1 and 5. Source: self-analysis*

Analysis of the impact of the resources of social capital, namely, cooperation, participation, solidarity, loyalty and values on the effectiveness of the analysed enterprises indicates the occurrence of ties that are statistically significant (Table 4). The resources of values and loyalty have the greatest impact on the positive financial performance. In turn, the resources of values and cooperation have an impact on the growth of revenues. Growth in the value of equity capital is dependent on the resources of participation and cooperation. The resources of values and participation have first and foremost an impact on the growth in value of assets. The resources of cooperation and values have an impact on the growth in market value of an enterprise. The resources of values and solidarity have first and foremost impact on higher profits. The increase in productivity is influenced by the resources of cooperation, values and solidarity. By way of conclusion, the greatest impact on the effectiveness of enterprises is exerted by the resources of cooperation and values. However, the lowest impact was noted in the case of the resource of loyalty.

**Table 4. Gamma correlation between indicators of resources of social capital and indicators of effectiveness of enterprise**

	Positive financial performance	Growth in revenue	Growth in value of equity capital	Growth in value of assets	Growth in market value	Greater net profit	Growth in productivity
Sharing information, knowledge	0.395	0.398	0.363	0.326	0.405	0.354	0.447

Application of knowledge from one area for resolving problems in another area	0.255	0.203	0.200	0.200	0.285	0.285	0.372
Frequent contact with managers in resolving tasks	0.327	0.371	0.276	0.250	0.404	0.280	0.443
Possession of skills of cooperation	0.228	0.267		0.201	0.196	0.351	0.351
Being creative in resolving problems	0.229	0.201		0.189	0.199	0.278	0.224
Solidarity with work colleagues	0.294	0.315	0.289	0.289	0.353	0.441	0.427
Placing general good over one's own	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.237	0.216	0.271	0.321
Readiness to undertake risk in operations	0.168	0.243	0.248	0.339	0.283	0.295	0.321
Ethicality in relations with other opponents	0.335	0.276	0.196	0.299	0.382	0.382	0.399
Participation in integration events	0.2778	0.361	0.327	0.359	0.356	0.391	0.332
Participation in informal groups	0.00	0.152	0.301	0.310	0.195	0.183	0.214
Loyalty with regard to others	0.264	0.232	0.176	0.205	0.209	0.278	0.294
Loyalty with regard to company	0.262	0.242		0.217	0.191	0.331	0.317
Readiness to help others	0.413	0.333	0.245	0.289	0.334	0.369	0.396

Goodwill and cordiality with regard to others	0.439	0.365	0.251	0.285	0.387	0.389	0.380
Respect for values and norms	0.389	0.319	0.176	0.338	0.318	0.374	0.410
Acceptance of dissimilarity of co-workers	0.408	0.422	0.344	0.347	0.434	0.444	0.464
Adherence to copyright	0.439	0.446	0.298	0.321	0.395	0.433	0.357

$p < 0,01$ . Source: authors.

## DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The results of the research conducted have facilitated the definition of the scope of occurrence of the attributes of the resources of social capital in the analysed enterprises. Analysis of the results of empirical research indicates that the attributes of the resources of social capital appeared in the analysed enterprises to a greater or lesser extent. One of the important elements of structural social capital is that of social networks composed of only employees or employees with managers. The network of employees was featured by a relatively intense closeness of ties between employees resulting from the frequent professional contact at the workplace. Employees more seldom entered into informal relations with other employees. However, networks composed of employees and managers were based on formal relations between employees and managers, while there was frequent contact with managers who were approachable for assistance and advice, while also relatively great closeness of ties between the employees and the manager. The participation of an employee in social networks with other members of an organisation creates the situation in which cooperative ties are formed on the basis of mutual trust and cooperation (Bylok et al., 2017). Social networks more often occurred in micro-sized enterprises and in large enterprises than in small and medium-sized enterprises.

The resource which is associated with social networks to a significant extent is that of trust. It has an impact on the scope of access to the tangible and intangible resources and the possibility of availing of them. In the analysed enterprises, the highest level of trust was noted in the case of vertical trust, namely towards enterprises and their owners, albeit, horizontal trust, namely towards employees, was significantly lower. Simultaneously, the general level of trust achieved the highest value in micro-sized enterprises. This may result from the fact of the small number of people employed, direct communication and the necessity to cooperate in the execution of tasks.

In analysing the impact of the attributes of the resource of social capital on the effectiveness of enterprises, it was indicated that the resource of values is a significant factor in its growth. In the analysed enterprises, the following values are rated the highest: honesty, responsibility, loyalty with relation to other employees, loyalty with relation to the firm and solidarity with other employees. However, the least valued is placing the general good over one's own. On the basis of the research results, it is possible to come to the conclusion that values have a substantial impact on the positive financial performance, growth of productivity and growth in the value of the enterprise.

As illustrated in the research, the level of resources of social capital is varying, depending on the magnitude of the enterprise. The results of the analysis indicate that the highest level occurred in the micro-sized and large enterprises.

The authors of this paper wish to indicate the restrictions in terms of the use of the research results on social capital in enterprises resulting from the magnitude of the sample and research methods applied. The research was conducted with the use of the survey method with a questionnaire technique that was aimed at outlining the intricate problematic issues of social capital in organisations and shall constitute a starting point for further research on its function in contemporary enterprises.

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