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CONTENTS

Engineering Sciences

N. Kasnon, M.A. Othuman Mydin, A.N. Abdul Ghani Modeling of Flood Water Flow: A Review	116
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Md Azree Othuman Mydin Models for Prediction the Strength and Stiffness of Foamed Concrete at Ambient Temperature	124
---	-----

Economic Sciences

Aleksei V. Kuznetsov Russian Multinationals FDI Outflows Geography: the Emerging Dominance of Greater Europe	130
--	-----

Ensar Mekić, M. Kürşad Özlen Acceptance of Smartphones by Users in BiH Through Extended Technology Acceptance Model	136
---	-----

Seyfaddin Sabir Samandarov The 20-30s of the 20 th Century as a Specific Stage in the History of Development of the Political Economy Science in Azerbaijan	150
--	-----

Philological Sciences

Alexandra A. Vorozhbitova, Gaukhar I. Issina “Linguistic and Rhetorical Picture of the World” of Collective Linguistic Personality as the Basic Discourse-universe of Ethnocultural and Educational Space	156
--	-----

Political Sciences

Andrius R. Malinauskas Turkey-Armenia Relations After 2008	163
---	-----

Cultural Studies

Alexander Fedorov Media Education in Russia: Past and Present	168
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Alexander Fedorov Media Education Literacy in the World: Trends	176
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Engineering Sciences

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Modeling of Flood Water Flow: A Review

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Abstract.

A flood is an overflow of water that submerges or drowns land. In general flooding scenario, water levels rise causing areas neighboring water bodies and some road segments in these areas to be flooded and they said two aspects of flooding interest us first, the water body floods reaches a water level higher than normal causing water to flow to the surrounding areas and second, the flowing water interacts with roads, covering road segments. The primary effects of flooding include loss of life, damage to buildings and other structures roadways, and canals. Damage to roads and transport infrastructure may make it difficult to mobilize aid to those affected or to provide emergency health treatment. One of the methods to reduce the velocity of flood water flow across road is to design obstacle objects as diffuser and places it along beside road shoulder. The velocity of water flow will depends on the diffusion pattern of water. The pattern of diffused water will depends on the design of the obstacle objects. This paper will review the impacts of flooding and modeling to protect road flooding.

Keywords: flood; water bodies; diffuser; velocity; rain.

Introduction

Floods can happen on flat or low-lying areas when the ground is saturated and water either cannot run off or cannot run off quickly enough to stop accumulating. This may be followed by a river flood as water moves away from the floodplain into local rivers and streams. Floods can also occur if water falls on an impermeable surface, such as concrete, paving or frozen ground, and cannot rapidly dissipate into the ground. Flooding and flash flooding pose serious infrastructure hazards to human populations in many parts of the world. During a flood, it is critical to identify

road segments that are flooded so that rescue and response routes can be determined and rescue personnel and supplies can be distributed promptly.

Floods are the second most common and widespread of all natural disasters [1]. One of the most face flooding is North Carolina faces extreme hazards and consequences from flooding, particularly those floods caused by hurricanes. Since 1989, there have been 14 federally declared disasters in North Carolina. Floods are one of the most common natural hazards, causing significant damage, loss of life, and other negative impacts in the United States and around the world. Two aspects of flooding interest us:

1) The water body floods reaches a water level higher than normal causing water to flow to the surrounding areas and

2) The flowing water interacts with roads, covering road segments. A water body lakes, rivers, and streams become a water body only because a part of the land surface area is lower in elevation than surrounding areas.

In the sense of spatial modeling, lakes can be modeled as polygons. However, as with roads, rivers and streams can be modeled as linear objects using polylines. A river that is quite wide, making it unreasonable to model it as a singular polyline, can be modeled as two polylines running roughly parallel to each other. This representation as polylines is consistent with spatial model of the linear state roadway network.

Flooding can cause damage to the infrastructure and repairing is needed. Repairing damage from Hurricane Floyd alone has cost \$3.5 billion, and Floyd destroyed 4,117 uninsured and underinsured homes [2]. The nation's transportation infrastructure plays a critical role in coping with hurricane events by providing rescue routes. To utilize the existing transportation infrastructure system efficiently in rescue, we must identify road segments that are flooded and road segments that are not flooded so that rescue and response routes can be determined and rescue personnel and supplies can be distributed promptly and in a timely manner [3]

Safe roads are the foundation for traffic safety. Studies at home and abroad have shown that a good roadside environment reduces traffic accidents, while poor ones promote accidents. In a studies on traffic accidents and bad weathers in multiple Canadian cities, it showed that rainfall increases the chance of a crash by 75%, and the chance of a personal injury by 45% [4]. Traffic accidents related to bad weather is estimated to be about \$ 100 million per year in Canada. The road accidents account for at least 28%~34% or more, even if the accident are caused by the human factor, in many cases they are also subjected to the impact of the roadside environment [5]. Climate is an important consideration for the traffic environment. For mountain roads, more attention should be paid on the impact of geological disasters induced by abnormal and severe weather. In China, mountainous areas including the plateau, makes up about 2/3 the country's land area. The natural conditions of plateau's are unique, and can easily lead to serious disasters Correspondingly, roads built on plateaus have high incidence of disaster, a wide influence range, various inducing factors, and great artificial destruction [6]

Flood Impacts

There are many impacts from flooding. The Kentucky Transportation Cabinet (KYTC) estimated the June 2011 floods that impacted the state cause 30 million in damage to the state's roadways. Future flooding events will lead to further monetary costs and impair the operational structure integrity of the state's roads. The loss of critical infrastructure produces negative effects over the short-term and long-term. Road segment with several portions of the road under water. Part of the road segment may not be flooded even though it is in the flooded area because the elevation of a road changes along its length so that parts of it may be above flood level. The challenge is to find those portions that are flooded and to determine their depth so that appropriate response actions can be taken [6]

Louisiana Transportation Research Center (LTRC), in response to this concern sent investigative teams into the area shortly after the hurricane floodwaters were pumped down to assess the flooding impact to pavement structures in the area. For this pilot effort, a falling weight deflectometer FWD was used to measure surface deflections. The data collected with the FWD were subsequently used to back-calculate elastic modular of the pavement layers. Another deflection testing device, the Dynaflect, was used to determine the structural number and subgrade resilient modulus of the tested pavements. Coring at different locations was also carried out to verify in situ

pavement thickness and the integrity of pavement structure. Details from these in situ tests can be found elsewhere [5]. In general, higher predicted values, including layer modulus of elasticity, subgrade resilient modulus, and SN value are expected for stronger pavement structures that exhibit better performance under trafficking. Hurricane Katrina devastated New Orleans and southeastern Louisiana on August 29, 2005, leaving hundreds of thousands either displaced or homeless. Nearly 4 weeks later, Hurricane Rita made landfall in the southwestern portion of the state, further damaging Louisiana's infrastructure and, once again, bringing destruction to the New Orleans area. While much of the damage to buildings and bridges was obvious and immediately recognized, the detrimental impact of flooding on roadways would not be so easily determined. There are approximately 3,220 km, 2,000 mi of roadway in the Greater New Orleans area which were submerged in floodwaters for up to 5 weeks. Among them, more than 800 km ,500 mi are part of the federal-aid highway system, and the remaining 2,420 km ,1,500 mi are local routes [7].

LTRC's Dynaflect results for LA 46 collected both before and after flooding. The pre-flood test was conducted in August of 2002 and the post-flood test was conducted in October of 2005. The pavement structure, according to the Dynaflect results, had an average SN of 5.1 before flooding, but an average SN of 4.2 after flooding. A similar decreasing trend also occurred for the subgrade modulus. Before flooding occurred, the subgrade had a resilient modulus of 44 MPa 6, but after flooding, the modulus decreased to 33 MPa. Both the pavement structure and subgrade were weakened by the floodwater, indicative of submergence damage. With these preliminary findings as support, the Louisiana Dept. of Transportation and Development to conduct a full scale pavement testing survey for the federally funded urban highway system in the flooded areas of New Orleans. A summary of the research effort associated with analyzing the field testing data collected in this effort follows [7].

Streams are fed by runoff from rainfall and snowmelt moving as overland or subsurface flow. Floods occur when large volumes of runoff flow quickly into streams and rivers. The peak discharge of a flood is influenced by many factors, including the intensity and duration of storms and snowmelt, the topography and geology of stream basins, vegetation, and the hydrologic conditions preceding storm and snowmelt events. Land use and other human activities also influence the peak discharge of floods by modifying how rainfall and snowmelt are stored on and run off the land surface into streams. In undeveloped areas such as forests and grasslands, rainfall and snowmelt collect and are stored on vegetation, in the soil column, or in surface depressions. When this storage capacity is filled, runoff flows slowly through soil as subsurface flow. In contrast, urban areas, where much of the land surface is covered by roads and buildings, have less capacity to store rainfall and snowmelt. Construction of roads and buildings often involves removing vegetation, soil, and depressions from the land surface. The permeable soil is replaced by impermeable surfaces such as roads, roofs, parking lots, and sidewalks that store little water, reduce infiltration of water into the ground, and accelerate runoff to ditches and streams. Even in suburban areas, where lawns and other permeable landscaping may be common, rainfall and snowmelt can saturate thin soils and produce overland flow, which runs off quickly. Dense networks of ditches and culverts in cities reduce the distance that runoff must travel overland or through subsurface flow paths to reach streams and rivers. Once water enters a drainage network, it flows faster than either overland or subsurface flow.

Streamflow in Mercer Creek, an urban stream in western Washington, increases more quickly, reaches a higher peak discharge, and has a larger volume during a one-day storm on February 1, 2000, than streamflow in Newaukum Creek, a nearby rural stream. Streamflow during the following week, however, was greater in Newaukum Creek. With less storage capacity for water in urban basins and more rapid runoff, urban streams rise more quickly during storms and have higher peak discharge rates than do rural streams. In addition, the total volume of water discharged during a flood tends to be larger for urban streams than for rural streams. For example, streamflow in Mercer Creek, an urban stream in western Washington, increases earlier and more rapidly, has a higher peak discharge and volume during the storm on February 1, 2000, and decreases more rapidly than in Newaukum Creek, a nearby rural stream. As with any comparison between streams, the differences in streamflow cannot be attributed solely to land use, but may also reflect differences in geology, topography, basin size and shape, and storm patterns.

The hydrologic effects of urban development often are greatest in small stream basins where, prior to development, much of the precipitation falling on the basin would have become subsurface

flow, recharging aquifers or discharging to the stream network further downstream. Moreover, urban development can completely transform the landscape in a small stream basin, unlike in larger river basins where areas with natural vegetation and soil are likely to be retained

3. Modeling to protect road flooding

Temporary flood barriers (TFBs) offer a practical and economical solution to prevent the worst effects of flooding on vulnerable roadways. TFBs are physical structure installed along the margins of roadways that prevent water from inundating them during flooding events. They assist in preventing damage to roads, and provide a means of keeping roads open even while flooding is ongoing. The potential exists for TFBs to redirect high waters onto adjacent, unprotected properties, which may cause damage. TFBs are structures installed during periods of flooding to protect roadways and other vulnerable areas from potentially-damaging inundation. TFBs are typically located along one or both sides of a road corridor to preserve infrastructure functionality. Positioning depends on the source of water and the angle at which the water approaches a roadway. TFBs are beneficial in their capacity to suppress hazardous water flows, bolstering the safety of travelers, and ensuring traffic flows are not disrupted which is key during floods that require evacuation. TFBs consequently improve evacuation efficiency while lowering the probability of stranding people in perilous situation where they are exposed to the dangers of rapidly rising flood waters. The main objective of using this is to keep roadways in a safe and operable condition during hazardous flooding events [8].

Three different urban flooding models were applied in Sukhumvit urbanized area in Bangkok. The first model can exchange the surcharged water and surface storage by using virtual reservoir applied with the pipe network model. The second model is the two layers model which is the combination of pipe network and street net work model. The last model is the Digital Elevation Model (DEM) linked with pipe network model. The result of simulation of all models compared with the flood field data showed that the last model provided the best computed result. To examine the extension of application of model A and B capability, it was found that the first model was still can be applied for the light rainfall case. The two-layered model can be applied for the moderate rain and suitable for real time control due to its reasonable performance time. But today it is feasible to model urban flooding with the interaction between the pipe system and surface flooding and this raises new possibilities for managing urban flooding problems [8]. In a general flooding scenario, water levels rise causing areas neighboring water bodies and some road segments in these areas to be flooded. This section describes spatial modeling of water bodies and provides brief descriptions of various flooding scenarios [4, 5].

Due to the increasing demand for habitat protection and ecological connectivity at road crossings, alternatives to traditional culvert designs are being implemented. One alternative is a bottomless arch culvert with a simulated streambed representing the culvert invert. Such culverts are designed to not only mimic the natural streambed, but also to facilitate natural stream processes such as sediment transport, flood routing, and debris conveyance. Such designs can also address the requisite hydraulic conditions of specific aquatic species that must navigate the culvert. In the bottomless culvert test facility, each substrate material was placed upstream, inside, and downstream of the culvert. The elevation of the top of the material was meticulously graded to correspond with the elevation of the top of the steel box/culvert interface (i.e., culvert spring-line). For each substrate material, five entrance configurations were tested featuring three different inlet contraction ratios (0 %, 33 % and 75 %) for both projecting and non-projecting (headwall) entrance conditions. The 0 % contraction configuration was limited to the non-projecting condition. Collected test data included incipient motion velocities, depths of scour, and extent of scour. Each substrate and inlet configuration was tested over a range of headwater depths. Headwater depths were expressed dimensionless as the headwater depth measured relative to the pre-scour invert at the culvert entrance over the pre-scour culvert height, Hw/D . The headwater depth was measured in a corner of the headbox adjacent to the culvert entrance, where the velocity was negligible and the headwater depth, Hw , represented the total energy head at the culvert entrance [7].

A methodology for simulation of urban flooding urban flooding may be due to various causes. The runoff generally starts as overland flow on the street before entering the underground pipe system through catch pits. Its shows that a street system connected to a pipe system through manholes/catch pits. If the intake capacity of the drainage system is limited, only a fraction of the

water can flow into the pipes and a large runoff volume will be transported on the surface during and after a heavy rainfall. This may happen even if the underground pipe system has sufficient capacity [2,3], The water in the pipe system may return to the street system if the capacity of the pipe system is insufficient. In this case the water will flow from the pipe system to the street system, causing surface flooding. The duration of flooding on the street depends on the intake capacity of the catch pits, the drainage capacity of the pipe system, infiltration and evaporation in the catchment area. In the present modeling approach, the urban drainage system consists of two networks, one representing the free surface flow in the streets and one for the pipe network. The drainage system is modeled as two dynamically interconnected networks. The hydrodynamic model is based on an implicit solution of the St Venant equations. The two networks route the rainfall runoff simultaneously in the pipes and on the streets. Manholes (network nodes) function as points of flow exchange between the pipe and the street systems. Water from the street system can enter the pipe system by flowing through catch pits or manholes and vice versa. It shows the modeling approach for urban flooding. Figure 1 shows shapes and orientation of diffuser [6].

Two models are needed, i.e. a hydrological model, which simulates surface runoff from rainfall and a hydraulic model describing flows in pipes, streets and storage of water on the surface. In urban flooding simulation, the hydrological process is separated conceptually from the hydraulics of the drainage system. The computation of the surface runoff from rainfall can be carried out by a standard surface runoff model, e.g. a time/area, kinematic wave or linear reservoir model. A surface runoff hydrograph is computed for each sub-catchment. Runoff hydrographs from each sub-catchment are then used as input for the hydrodynamic model, simulating flows in the pipe and street systems. The runoff from the catchments is entered in the model either on the streets or directly in the sewers depending on the local layout of the drainage systems. Hence, the initial flooding will be generated due to insufficient capacity of either the pipes themselves or of the inlets to the piped system. As the pipe and inlet capacities can differ significantly, it is important to get this part of the schematization right [4, 5].

At the same time, the increasing cost of providing hard engineered flood defenses and the growing emphasis on sustainable development has resulted in greater attention being given to finding more sustainable, 'softer engineering' solutions. This is reflected in the Government's Flood and Coastal Erosion Risk Management Strategy 'Making Space for Water' [9]. A key pillar of the strategy is to adopt a whole catchment approach and make greater use of rural land use solutions, including the creation of wetlands, wash lands and effective land management techniques. Forests and woodland have long been associated with an ability to slow down run-off and reduce downstream flooding [10]. In fact, deforestation has often been cited as a major contributing factor in the apparent rise in flood events in the developing world.

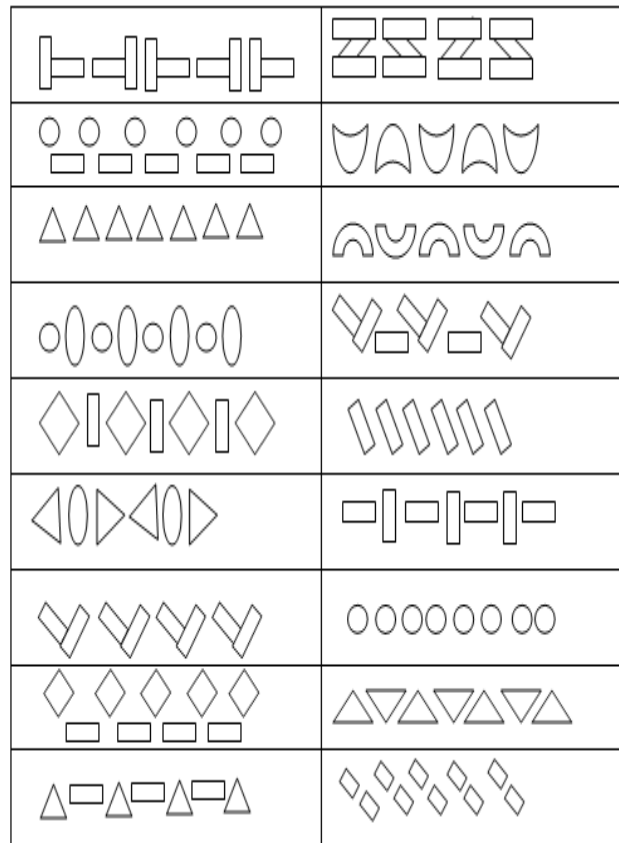


Figure 1. Shapes and orientation of diffuser [4]

Re-planting or creating new forests is increasingly viewed as offering a number of opportunities to help reduce flood risk. The potential to assist flood defense however, is highly dependent on the scale of forest cover and its location within the landscape. Other important factors include the type of forest and how it is managed. This paper examines whether woodland expansion in the UK could make a significant contribution to tackling the predicted rise in flood risk, as part of a whole-catchment approach to sustainable flood management.

To mitigate flooding propensity in Bangladesh, both the government and people will have to adopt watershed-scale best management practices (BMPs) – a series of activities designed to: (a) reduce the run-off, (b) increase the carrying capacity of drainage system, and (c) increase land elevations. Proposed BMPs are: floodplain zoning, planned urbanization, restoration of abundant channels, dredging of rivers and streams, increased elevations of roads and village platforms, building of efficient storm sewer systems, establishment of buffer zones along rivers, conservation tillage, controlled runoff near construction sites, adjustment of life-style and crop patterns, good governance, and improvement in flood warning/preparedness systems.

One of the most obvious ways to protect road embankments from erosion due to overtopping during flood events is to raise the elevation of the road profile above the flood water. Unfortunately, in areas prone to flooding, this is not always an easy or inexpensive task due to floodplain law and the need to mitigate backwater effects. The overtopping flows create a hydraulic jump on the downstream road embankment, causing extreme erosion which often creates failure of the driving surface. Repairing the damage from these overtopping events in northwestern Minnesota has caused the Minnesota Department of Transportation (MnDOT) to keep some routes closed for several weeks after the flood waters recede. One 3.22 km segment of Minnesota highway has experienced flood overtopping each of the past 3 years and 4 out of the last 5 years. Damage created by these floods has exceeded 2 million dollars. In addition, cost to businesses and travelers on these frequently flooded routes gets burdensome. This research is aimed at discovering cost-effective, low maintenance techniques to protect these road embankments from overtopping flow. Main Roads of Western Australia uses riprap and vertical concrete walls, FHWA and the USACE

have done research using articulated concrete blocks. Since road overtopping flow is essentially flow over a broad crested weir, we can use these relationships to estimate velocities. Once the flow velocities over the broad crested weir are known, appropriate erosion protection can be selected and designed.

Two-dimensional modeling of dam failure flooding has been successfully demonstrated through the use of such models as the CCHE2D-Dambreak model. This modeling approach offers a tremendous improvement over traditional one-dimensional solutions in terms of the high degree of spatial and temporal detail in the model results. Detailed output for water depth, flow velocity, timing of flood arrival and duration of flooding is available from the two-dimensional model such that all aspects of the flood may be thoroughly analyzed. A special case in flood modeling from dam failure involves simulation of the flooding that may result in the event that more than one dam fails and the floodwaters from the multiple dams combine into a single flood event. This may occur when two or more dams are located in tandem along the same river, or it may occur when two or more dams are located on separate tributaries that flow into the same river. Failure of a single dam is a rare event, and multiple simultaneous dam failures are certainly even rarer [10].

However, the ability to model such an event and understand the potential flood conditions that may occur under various scenarios involving the timing of each dam failure and the water levels in each dam is important. The CCHE2D-Dambreak model offers such a capability, and this paper presents an application of that multiple dam failure modeling feature. An example is presented in which two dams located in tandem on the same river fail, and several scenarios are modeled to investigate the combined flood event [8,9].

In the rare event of a dam failure, little can typically be done to mitigate the magnitude of the downstream flood that will occur. The volume of water involved is usually so large that it overwhelms existing flood control or river control structures downstream of the dam. The mere presence of floodwaters will certainly cause water related damage in many areas, and the high velocity of flow that will likely accompany such a flood event may also cause structural or erosion related damage. Detailed knowledge, both spatially and temporally, of where the floodwaters may extend, the depths to which the floodwaters may reach, and the flow velocities associated with the flood can be valuable pieces of information that will enhance preparedness planning for such an event. A model that can accurately predict the flood depths and flow velocities with two-dimensional spatial detail, and can also provide temporal detail of such information, is a vital tool in the analysis of dam breach flooding.

The U.S. Army Engineer Research and Development Center (ERDC) Coastal and Hydraulics Laboratory (CHL) has the mission of conducting research and operational support for the U.S. Army in the area of military hydrology, which encompasses many diverse aspects of hydrology and hydraulic engineering related to how rivers, floods, dams and other water resources issues may impact military planning and operations. Among the most common types of analyses that are conducted in this field are studies of the potential effects of dam breach flooding. For the results of these studies to be of greatest benefit, detailed spatial and temporal evaluation of flood depths, flow velocities, timing of flood arrival, and duration of flooding are required. A model that can provide this information, often under severe time constraints and based on limited input data, is essential. Traditional one dimensional dam breach flood models can provide some of this information, but they generally lack sufficient two-dimensional spatial detail in many critical areas.

There are many approaches for reducing flood hazards in basins under development [4]. Areas identified as flood-prone have been used for parks and playgrounds that can tolerate occasional flooding. Buildings and bridges have been elevated, protected with floodwalls and levees, or designed to withstand temporary inundation. Drainage systems have been expanded to increase their capacity for detaining and conveying high stream flows; for example, by using rooftops and parking lots to store water [7,9]. Techniques that promote infiltration and storage of water in the soil column, such as infiltration trenches, permeable pavements, soil amendments, and reducing impermeable surfaces have also been incorporated into new and existing residential and commercial developments to reduce runoff from these areas. Wet-season runoff from a neighborhood in Seattle, Washington, was reduced by 98 percent by reducing the width of the street and incorporating vegetated swales and native plants in the street right-of-way. In response to frequent flooding along the Napa River in California, the local community integrated many of these approaches into a single plan for flood protection that is expected to reduce flood damage

while helping to restore the river ecosystem. The plan involves bridge reconstruction, levee setbacks, a floodwall, moving of vulnerable structures, detention basins, larger storm water conveyances, and a high-flow bypass channel [10].

The U.S. Geological Survey in cooperation with the City of Charlotte and Mecklenburg County, North Carolina, developed a flood information and notification system (FINS) to address the need for prompt notification of flood conditions in urban areas where streams rise and fall rapidly. FINS is based on a large network of streamflow gaging and rainfall stations that broadcast information within minutes of being recorded via radio telemetry. The system automatically notifies the National Weather Service and emergency responders in the region when rainfall and streamflow indicate the likelihood of flooding, giving these agencies additional time to issue warnings and evacuate areas if necessary [10]

Conclusions

Floods are one of the most common natural hazards, causing significant damage, loss of life, and other negative impacts. There are many impacts from flooding such cause 30 in damage to the state's roadways. There are some ways that are done by researcher before to slow the velocity of the flood water flow but there are not use the obstacles object to investigate the flow water pattern as to estimate the velocity of the flood water

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Models for Prediction the Strength and Stiffness of Foamed Concrete at Ambient Temperature

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Abstract.

Since the foamed concrete employed in this study used the same Portland cement as in normal weight concrete for which a number of strength models have been developed, this paper is intended to assess whether any of these models would be suitable for foamed concrete. The aim of this investigation is to propose a model to predict the strength and stiffness of foamed concrete, based on existing mechanical property predictive models. This model is expected to assist manufacturers and future researchers to develop improved products with reduced cost of experimentation. Whilst full-scale tests to regulatory standards will still be necessary for final accreditation purpose, much of this may be avoided by developing a method to predict the strength and stiffness of foamed concrete at ambient and elevated temperatures during the development stage.

Keywords: foamed concrete; lightweight concrete; stiffness; mechanical property; compression strength; porosity model.

Introduction

Foamed concrete is not a new material in the construction industry. It was first patented in 1923 (Valore, 1954) and a limited scale of production was instigated in 1923. The use of foamed concrete was very limited until the late 1970s, when it was started to be consumed in Netherlands for ground engineering applications and voids filling works. In 1987 a full-scale assessment on the application of foamed concrete as a trench reinstatement was carried out in the United Kingdom and the achievement of this trial led to the extensive application of foamed concrete for trench reinstatement and other applications followed. Since then, foamed concrete as a building material has become more widespread with expanding production and range of applications.

Over the past 20 years, foamed concrete has primarily been used around the world for bulk filling, trench reinstatements, backfill to retaining walls and bridge abutments, insulation to foundations and roof tiles, sound insulation, stabilising soils (especially in the construction of embankment slopes), grouting for tunnel works, sandwich fill for precast units and pipeline infill. However, in the last few years, there is developing interest in using foamed concrete as a lightweight non-structural and semi-structural material in buildings to take advantage its lightweight and good insulation properties. foamed concrete can have a wide range of densities and each density is produced for a particular type of application.

For foamed concrete at ambient temperature, porosity represents the most important factor in affecting its strength. Hoff (1972) proposed a single strength-porosity model for cellular concrete with cement paste by combining the space taken by evaporable water and air-voids. Tam et al. (1987) reported a model for strength of foamed concrete based on Feret's equations for a limited set of operating conditions. This equation was enhanced by integrating the degree of hydration

through Power's gel-space ratio concept. Balshin proposed an equation which provided a good fit to the plot of compressive strength against porosity for slate based autoclaved aerated concretes (Watson, 1980), at all ages of foamed concrete made of cement paste containing high percentage of ash (Kearsley and Wainwright, 2002) and foamed concrete containing high amount of fly ash as replacement to sand (Nambiar and Ramamurthy, 2008)

Strength-porosity model

Balshin (1949) strength-porosity relationship will be considered to assess the effects of porosity on compressive strength of foamed concrete, which may be expressed using the following form:

$$f_c = f_{c,0}(1-\varepsilon)^n \quad \dots(1)$$

where f_c is the compressive strength of foamed concrete with porosity ε , $f_{c,0}$ is the compressive strength at zero porosity and n is a coefficient to be determined.

Figure 6.1 plots the recorded foamed concrete compressive strength-porosity relationship for different foamed concrete densities at ambient temperature. Using Balshin's strength-porosity relationship, the best correlation is obtained with $n=2.4$, which was represented by the solid curve in Figure 1. A correlation coefficient of 0.914 indicates a good correlation between this model and the test results. Thus, the compressive strength of foamed concrete at ambient temperature can be expressed as a power function of porosity as follow:

$$f_c = 39.2(1-\varepsilon)^{2.4} \quad \dots(2)$$

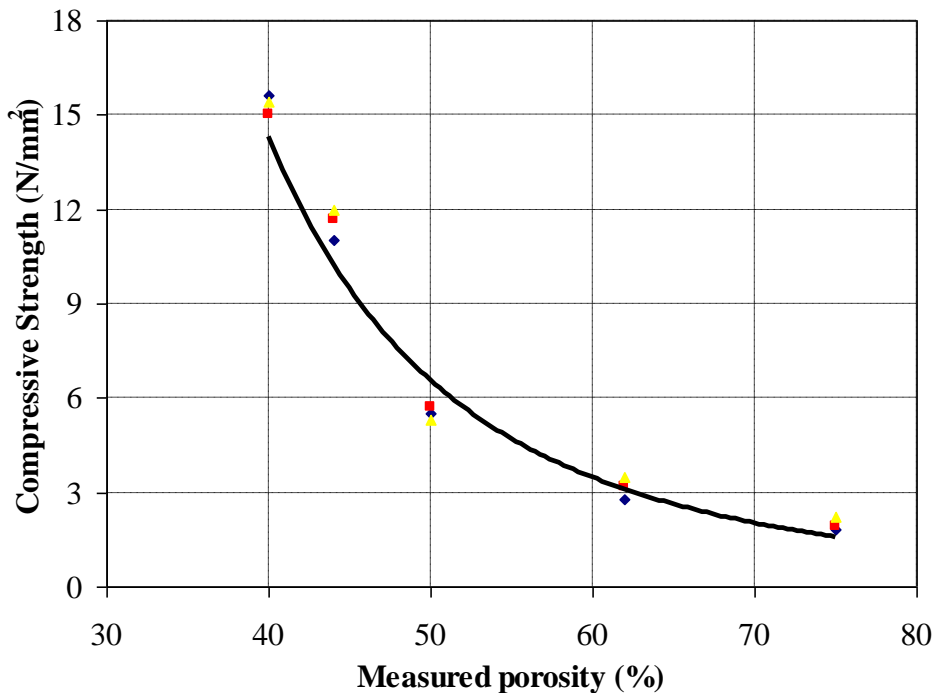


Figure 1. Compressive strength-porosity relation for foamed concrete at ambient temperature

For interest, a similar study was carried out by others for foamed concrete of different densities at ambient temperature. From the experimental results of this study for foamed concrete at different temperatures, the same exercise was undertaken. The results are summarised in Table 1 and compared with results by others for other types of concrete. The n values of foamed concrete obtained in this study show some consistency, but are different from other researchers. The n values of this study are much lower than from other studies, indicating that the foamed concrete of this study suffered less void induced loss of strength.

Table 1. Comparison of *n*-values in strength-porosity model for different concretes

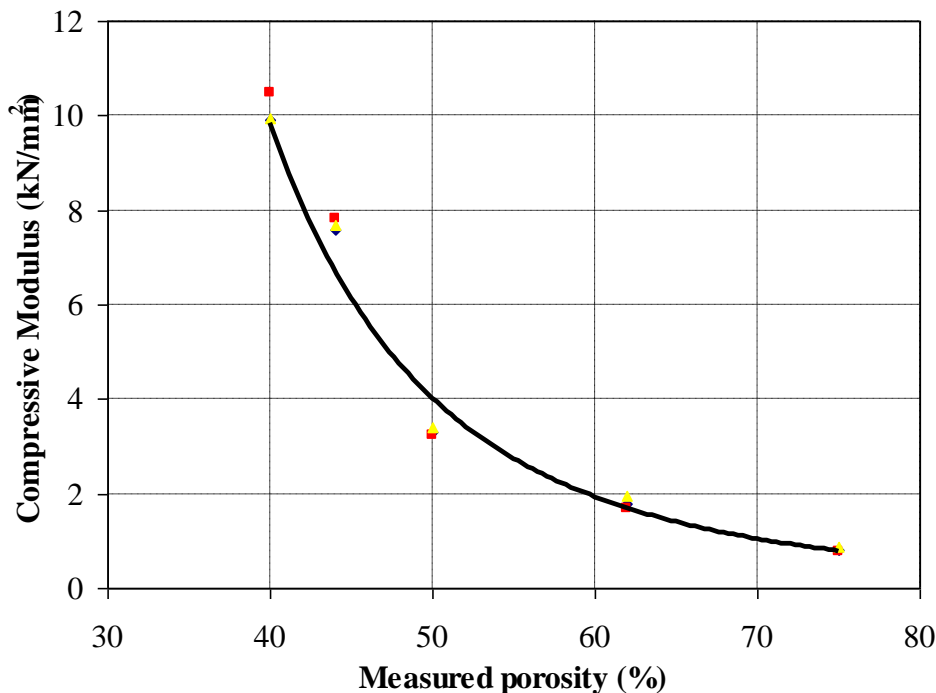
Researchers	Concrete type	Mix composition	Constants	
			$f_{c.o}$ (N/mm ²)	<i>n</i>
Hoff (1972)	Foamed concrete (FC)	Cement paste	115-290	2.7-3.0
Narayanan and Ramamurthy (2000)	Aerated concrete (non autoclaved)	Cement-sand	26.6	3.2
Kearsley and Wainwright (2002)	Foamed concrete	Cement with and without fly ash	188	3.1
Present work	FC (ambient)	Cement-sand	39.2	2.4
	FC (200°C)		38.5	2.4
	FC (400°C)		28.1	2.4
	FC (600°C)		19.5	2.6

Modulus of elasticity-porosity relationship

As acknowledged by the author, the strength-porosity relationship proposed by Balshin (Equation 1) has so far only been used to determine the compressive strength of porous material. This section will explore whether this equation (Equation 1) is also appropriate to establish the modulus of elasticity-porosity relationship for foamed concrete. In order to do so, the experimental results of modulus of elasticity for all densities will be plotted as a function of porosity. Figure 2 shows the recorded foamed concrete modulus of elasticity-porosity relationship for different foamed concrete densities at ambient temperature. Surprisingly, the same relationship can be used. The best correlation was found by using $n=2.8$, shown by the solid curve in Figure 2. A correlation coefficient of 0.936 indicates strong relationship between the model and the test results. Thus, the following modulus of elasticity-porosity relationship of foamed concrete at ambient temperature is obtained:

$$E_c = 32.9(1 - \varepsilon)^{2.8} \dots(3)$$

where E_c is the compressive modulus of foamed concrete at ambient temperature and ε is porosity.

**Figure 2.** Modulus of elasticity-porosity relation for foamed concrete at ambient temperature

From the experimental results of this study for foamed concrete at different temperatures, the same exercise was undertaken to obtain the modulus of elasticity-porosity relationships. The results were summarised in Table 2 which shows a constant n value at different temperatures.

Table 2. Summary of $E_{c.o}$ and n values for modulus of elasticity-porosity relationship at different temperatures according to Balshin's model

Temperature (°C)	Constants	
	$E_{c.o}$ (kN/mm ²)	n
Ambient	32.9	2.8
200	24.7	2.8
400	15.0	2.8
600	8.2	2.8

4. Modulus of elasticity-compressive strength relationship

Jones and McCarthy (2005) proposed a relationship linking the modulus of elasticity with the compressive strength of foamed concrete (Equation 3) at ambient temperature.

$$E_c = 0.42f_c^{1.18} \dots (4)$$

where E_c is the modulus of elasticity (kN/mm²) and f_c is the compressive strength (N/mm²).

Although Equation 4 is considered applicable only for a minimum compressive strength of 5 N/mm², Figure 3 showed that the same modulus of elasticity-compressive strength relationship exists for foamed concrete across the entire strength range.

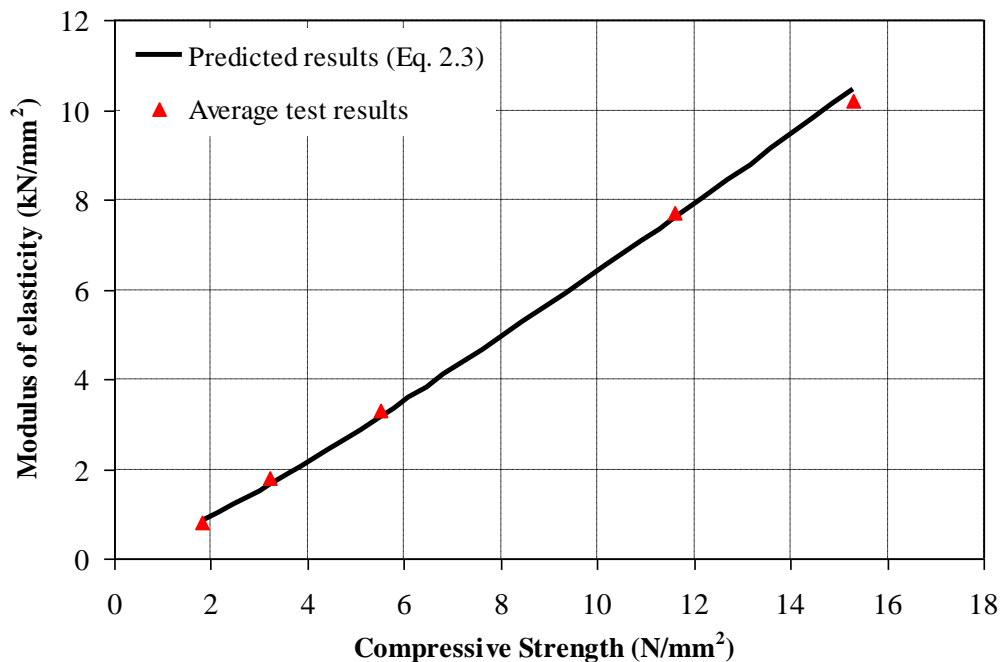


Figure 3. Modulus of elasticity-compressive strength relation for foamed concrete at ambient temperature

Porosity-density relationship

Through using Equation 2 and Equation 3, it was possible to obtain an accurate assessment of the compressive strength and modulus of elasticity of foamed concrete. Nevertheless, these models require input of the porosity value. Unfortunately, porosity was a property not frequently measured outside the laboratory, and therefore it is necessary to provide a model to obtain the porosity. The simplest method to calculate the porosity value was to relate it to foamed concrete density. Since the pores inside foamed concrete were created due to addition of foams, by knowing the solid density of cement paste (without foam), one can easily predict the porosity of foamed concrete of any other density using the following equation:

$$\varepsilon = \frac{\rho_{sc} - \rho_{dry}}{\rho_{sc}} \dots (5)$$

where ε is the porosity, ρ_{sc} is the solid density of cement paste (without foam) and ρ_{dry} is the dry density of foamed concrete.

The accuracy of Equation 5 was checked by comparing the porosity values calculated using Equation 5 and the measured porosity values using the Vacuum Saturation Apparatus for different foamed concrete densities, as shown in Figure 4. It should be noted that an average solid density of cement paste (ρ_{sc}) of 2100 kg/m³ was established through the experiment. The agreement is excellent.

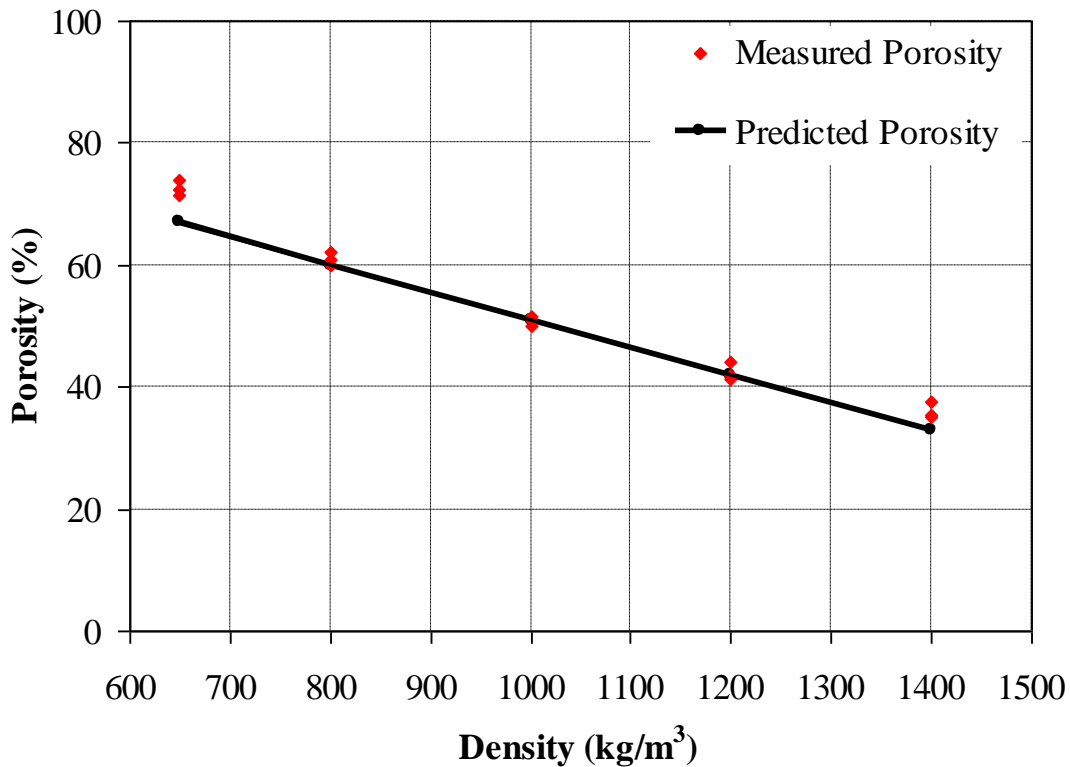


Figure 4. Comparison of predicted porosity with measured porosity as a function of density

Conclusions

This paper has presented a number of predictive models for strength of foamed concrete at ambient and elevated temperature. The experimental results were compared with predictive models based on normal weight concrete. Since the mechanical properties of foamed concrete come from Ordinary Portland Cement, thus the change in mechanical properties of foamed concrete may be predicted using the mechanical property models for normal weight concrete. Balshin equation (Equation 1) may be used to calculate both the ambient temperature compressive strength and compressive modulus of elasticity, as a function of porosity of foamed concrete. Nevertheless, for improved accuracy, ambient temperature mechanical property tests were still recommended.

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ЭКОНОМИЧЕСКИЕ НАУКИ

Russian Multinationals FDI Outflows Geography: the Emerging Dominance of Greater Europe

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Abstract.

Moderation of Russian MNEs capital outflows has recently become a severe problem for the Russian economic policy regulatory, which are now in a great need of the real picture of the Russian outward foreign direct investment (FDI) geography without distortions by official statistics with its data on indirect FDI via offshores. This datum clearly depicts the dominance of European vector in the Russian outward FDI geography. At the end of the article, some measures for regulation of FDI outflows are offered for diversification of the Russian outward FDI orientation. Bilateral investment and double taxation treaties are main measures of institutional support and state insurance of investments discussed as a key element of support for mature projects abroad.

Keywords: Russian FDI; de-offshorisation; multinationals; MNEs; capital outflows supervising; regional distribution of foreign investments.

Introduction

In Russia, in the last couple of years again has been reinvigorated the debate over the regulation of the outflows of the capital by Russian multinationals. On the one hand, more and more experts appalled with an excessive and uncontrolled offshorisation [18] of the Russian economy. [11] In the field of foreign direct investment (FDI), it manifests itself in an extremely high share in the geographical structure of offshore companies and other countries, used as a staging base for the capital, moving in a circle back to Russia or sent to a third country. Such “indirect” FDI often allow Russian businesses to hide the final beneficiaries and to evade taxes [8, pp. 544-545]. On the other hand, the authorities in Russia have finally realized that there is a great need to endorse those domestic multinationals (MNEs), which are using the export of capital in order to contribute the growth of the international competitiveness of the Russian economy. In particular, in 2013 the Agency for Insurance of Export Credit and Investment (EXIAR) launched insurance scheme for Russian investors abroad protect them against non-commercial risks. [6]

However, reasonable fiscal policy aimed at competent restrictions of one flows and simultaneous stimulation of other Russian FDI flows is unthinkable without knowledge of their real structure. So, this article is partly dedicated to clarification of this issue and is based on the newly collected empirical base. First, we have shown the way in which the official statistics on the geographical expansion of FDI is related to the actual distribution of long-term foreign assets of

Russian multinationals. Then author provide a detailed explanations for the dominance of Greater Europe and Russian investors motivation. Finally, in the last part of the article we propose some exact measures to diversify the geography of the Russian FDI aimed at strengthening the international competitiveness of the Russian economy.

Geography of the Russian direct investments abroad

According to the official data on the geography of Russian FDI published by the Central Bank of the Russian Federation, the key recipient of Russian capital is the EU and as a whole Greater Europe, whose boundaries encompass the East post-Soviet space and Turkey, in early 2012, had accumulated 78 % of Russian FDI (See Table 1.) However, the Central Bank of Russia fixes only country where capital entered directly from the Russian not its final beneficiaries. As a result, 11 out of the main 40 recipients of Russian FDI can be depicted in the "black list" of offshore zones which Russian Ministry of Finance considered inappropriate and include in the list of states and territories providing preferential tax treatment and (or) do not provide disclosure and provision of information about external financial transactions. While Cyprus (which, however, has been removed from the list since 2013) at the beginning of 2012 was accounted [4] as one third of accumulated Russian FDI and 43% of their network flows for the first three quarters of 2012.

The grand total share of all offshore jurisdictions markedly exceeds 50%. At the same time part of that capital of is eventually returned to Russia so that we have so called "fake FDI". But also, very often such jurisdiction is used as staging bases for investment in third countries. For example, leading foreign assets holder, Russian oil and gas multinational "LUKOIL" exercises all its international projects for exploration and extraction of raw materials through Limited Liability Company "LUKOIL Overseas Holding", registered in the British Virgin Islands (BVI).

Many foreign companies, especially those working in the oil-gas and metal sectors, the Russian multinationals acquired by setting formal control over holdings in the UK, the Netherlands, Luxembourg, Ireland, Switzerland, and even Canada. Thus, "ARMZ" invested more than \$ 2 billion in uranium mines in Kazakhstan, USA, Australia and Tanzania through the Canadian firm "Uranium One". Another thing is that a significant portion of Russian FDI in Canada's ferrous metal industries is formally percept as investments in the U.S., where the headquarters of North American subsidiaries of Russian multinationals are based.

Table 1

Geographical distribution of Russian FDI

Regions and countries	Russian FDI accumulated to the beginning of 2012		Russian FDI for three quarters of 2012	
	Million USD	%	Million USD	%
Countries in total	361 738	100	37 499	100
Wider Europe as whole	282 684	78.1	32 107	85.6
Former USSR without Baltic states	15 516	4.3	1 946	5.2
Belarus	4 633	1.3	436	1.2
Ukraine	4 395	1.2	554	1.5
Kazakhstan	2 514	0.7	684	1.8
Armenia	1 417	0.4	62	1.2
Uzbekistan	947	0.3	7	0.0
Tajikistan	626	0.2	21	0.1
EU countries	232 110	64.2	25 057	66.8
Cyprus *	121 596	33.6	16 110	43.0
Netherlands	57 291	15.8	1 388	3.7
Luxembourg	11 599	3.2	1 550	4.1

United Kingdom	10 662	2.9	354	0.9
Germany	6 692	1.8	781	2.1
Austria	4 229	1.2	1 171	3.1
Spain	3 535	1.0	651	1.7
Bulgaria	2 748	0.8	621	1.7
France	1 989	0.5	280	0.7
Ireland	1 849	0.5	264	0.7
Lithuania	1 464	0.4	32	0.1
Czech Republic	1 463	0.4	193	0.5
Italy	1 435	0.4	279	0.7
Sweden	1 414	0.4	632	1.7
Finland	1 038	0.3	5	0.0
Latvia	750	0.2	182	0.5
Other Europe	35 058	9.7	5 104	13.6
Switzerland	12 679	3.5	208	0.6
Jersey isle (British) *	7 035	1.9	634	1.7
Gibraltar (British) *	5 701	1.6	93	0.2
Turkey	3 654	1.0	3 667	9.8
Maine isle (British) *	1 546	0.4	4	0.0
Serbia	1 496	0.4	59	0.2
Montenegro	1 072	0.3	132	0.4
Monaco *	626	0.2	76	0.2
Other regions	79 054	21.9	5 392	14.4
Virgin (British) Islands *	46 137	12.8	2 646	7.1
U.S.	9 501	2.6	540	1.4
Bahamas *	5 481	1.5	327	0.9
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines *	4 421	1.2	0.0	0.0
St. Kitts and Nevis *	2 681	0.7	655	1.7
Bermuda (British) *	2 497	0.7	926	2.5
Beliz*	1 211	0.3	-948	Red.
Vietnam	1 078	0.3	67	0.2
India	982	0.3	45	0.1
Canada	850	0.2	224	0.6

Source: Statistics of the Central Bank of the Russian Federation (<http://www.cbr.ru>)

Eventually, the official statistics on the volume of real Russian FDI is strongly overestimated some countries and underestimated by others. Moreover, if we consider only the multinational corporations, excluding investments of individuals in real estate, we will have significantly reduced figures for such countries as Spain or the Czech Republic.

The project, initiated by the Eurasian Development Bank, has carried out detailed monitoring of Russian FDI in the CIS and Georgia. Accounting of created or acquired foreign assets and investment based on its actual location showed that the accumulated Russian FDI in post-Soviet space is understated by the Central Bank official statistics at about three times [10, pp.18-28].

Unfortunately, similar studies have not yet been conducted for other regions, therefore currently that is not possible to accurately determine the share of Greater Europe (especially taking into consideration the significant contribution of mendacious FDI, a round trip or traveling in a circle capital). However, in the framework of an international research program almost all leading multinationals from emerging and post-socialist countries has been studied including the geography of the Russia's top 20 non-financial MNEs foreign assets. At the beginning of 2012 the total foreign assets of these companies were amounted as to 111.2 billion dollars, and their non-current outward assets are estimated at 83.3 billion dollars, allowing us to appraise the general extent of FDI. Meanwhile, the share of Greater Europe exceeded 2/3 of grand total or more. For instance, some large multinationals, such as "GAZPROM" or "INTER RAO UES", share is striving

to be approached at 100%. However, the two steel companies (“SEVERSTAL” and “MMK”) share of Greater Europe did not reach even 10% [9, pp. 14-15].

The regional nature of the majority of Russian multinationals

Phenomenon, conventionally referred as “regional multinational corporations” (RMC) is a typical and widespread for many countries [14, pp.3-18]. However, the reasons for the dominance of FDI in the geography of the surrounding countries vary greatly. In our opinion, in case of Russian multinationals it is possible to identify three basic explanations for the concentration of their investments in Greater Europe, mainly in the main areas of EU - Russia - CIS integration reference points. In this association, for example, European and Central Asian countries could be merged and considered as one region for the sake of conventional analysis of the impact of Russian multinationals. Such generalization is justified due to the powerful influence of “neighborhood effect”, which is critical for regional MNEs.

Widely acknowledged that neighboring countries are the most comfortable environment for most companies - beginners in the process of internationalization, thus vast majority of Russian multinationals is not an exception. Strongly marked “neighborhood effect” in the geography of FDI is stipulated by fine familiarity of multinationals only with nearby regions, plus low language and cultural barriers matters (in the case of Russian MNEs are manifested not only in the CIS case but also in South-East Europe). Another thing is that this effect cannot be taken literally as it is; great variety of different individual exceptions and derivations are present [7, pp.83-101].

In addition, Russian multinationals’ dominating FDI motives related to sales support, whereas the other three main groups of motives - cost reduction, development of resources and technological access [5, p.50] occur less frequently in comparison with the other G20 economies. Perhaps, among significant recipients of Russian FDI in Greater Europe orientation to raw materials is strongly expressed only in Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan. Marketing orientation is accepted by even the leading Russian oil and gas multinationals investing abroad mainly in the *processing* of raw materials or sales infrastructure, rather than mining companies. Thus, according to the Federal Customs Service of Russia (FCS), in 2012, the EU countries accounted for 53% of Russia's commodity exports, the post-Soviet space without the Baltic States - another 15%, and in general on Wider Europe (mainly due to the addition of Turkey and Switzerland) were accumulated more than 3 / 4 [17].

Finally, it is worth mentioning that Russia's leading multinationals are largely controlled by oligarchs who became its major owners (often close to monopoly in the industry) after dubious privatization of the late 1990s. [1, pp. 139-143] In the context of proclaimed strengthening of the vertical of power in Russia in the early 2000s’ tycoons ability to extract economic benefits from obtained in property assets has been limited, consequently in 1990s’ some Russian businessmen endeavored their power to use foreign subsidiaries in Europe to “insure” at least some of their assets from encroachment by both competitors and the state [3, pp.77-81]. In the late 2000s’ such a trend has been accelerated, although the influence of above mentioned “normal” FDI motives grew faster. Owners of the leading Russian companies have realized that getting into “the world's business elite” could significantly increase their bargaining power. However, while the leading western MNEs use (though not always successfully) their negotiation power in order to create a comfortable system of international business regulation or preferential conditions in the recipient country for themselves [2, pp. 119-143], Russian multinationals having extended branched merchandising chains begin to behave themselves more independently in the dialogue with the Russian authorities. Indeed, the lobbying activity of Russian multinationals, for instance, in the EU is still weak [15, pp. 49-63], but inside Russia for some of them state regulation is severally weakened (e.g. in the case of monopoly pricing expertise) under the threat of reorientation supplies flows from Russian to overseas refineries.

At the same time, Russian multinationals activity in EU - CIS countries does not correspond to upcoming trend towards diversification of Russian foreign relations. In these circumstances, the state support of investment expansion beyond neighboring countries could accelerate the output of domestic multinationals on the global level.

Ways of encouraging the expansion of Russian multinationals outside Europe

State support for domestic multinationals abroad on the early stages of internationalization allows medium-sized businesses to use their limited competitive advantage to procreate. In fact, such a trend mainly accomplishes in the disclosure of multinationals' overseas expansion potential in emerging world [13, pp.41-47]. In our opinion, state support should be carried out both at the preliminary stages of preparation of FDI and during investment projects fulfillment. In the preliminary stages the state support consists of three elements.

First, Russian multinationals have a great need in information support through using both, resources of public institutions (such as trade missions) and specialized research organizations (including the use of public-private partnership schemes). On the one hand, the Russian business may not be aware of the possibilities that are now opening up in various countries in Asia, Africa and Latin America. On the other hand, each emerging country has its own specific business environment. However, representatives of domestic business often confidently rely on their own analytical units, seeking state after making series of fatal mistakes.

Secondly, the government should expand and diversify institutional support tools. In particular, Russia so far do not have a significant number of countries with signed ratified bilateral agreement on mutual protection of investments, so that some of that agreements is superficial with no ability for providing real mechanisms for defending the interests of Russian multinationals. Moreover, Russia markedly inferior to many leading states by number of double taxation avoidance agreements. In 2013, such agreements were acted with 81 countries, including all CIS and EU Member States (excluding Malta and Estonia). However, outside of Greater Europe Russia agreed on avoidance of double taxation with only 37 countries, and has only recently with six those states in Latin America - (with Mexico in 2009, Brazil and Venezuela in 2010, Cuba in 2011, Argentina and Chile in 2013).

Thirdly, diplomatic assistance is inevitable when it comes to using formal measures (non-issuance of visas to the Russian top management, unexpected renegotiation of privatization, etc.) as a tool for investment protectionism against Russian multinationals. Often, the courts cannot formally prove the fact of targeted actions against Russian investors, although there was a series of "random" coincidences. On the stages of investment projects implementation the main instrument of state support should be investment insurance against non-commercial risks. This will create an incentive for the "second tier" of Russian multinationals more often implement FDI in developing countries with relatively high political risk, but less competitive pressure from multinationals from leading Western countries. Furthermore, state support should be destined exclusively for officially registered Russian projects abroad, the insurance system should be transparent and accessible, though have specific priorities. For instance, it can be completely closed for companies who thanks to confusing offshore schemes hide the ultimate beneficiaries.

In summary, we must not forget at the same time about the purposeful creation of a positive and attractive image of Russian business abroad. Still we have to deal with the extendedly created politicized typologies of Russian multinationals. For instance, companies are placing on the coordinate system, not only on the basis of transparent / opaque business environment, but also on the principle of one's belonging to "patriots" (percept in the negative sense as Kremlin's foreign policy agents) / "independent" [12, pp. 117-144]. However, it is inevitable to start to work on the image of Russian companies at home [16, pp.57-66], and that noble goal requires not only the state propaganda conducted thorough newly formed INA "Russia Today", but the real positive changes in the business practices of local entrepreneurs. The state needs to work on the business through the introduction of real economic incentives for transparency, social responsibility and innovation activity.

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Acceptance of Smartphones by Users in BiH Through Extended Technology Acceptance Model

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Abstract.

The main objective of this research paper is to measure acceptance of Smartphones and empirically identify factors which are crucial influencers for Smartphone acceptance. Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) is extended by adding two additional variables, "Perceived enjoyment" (PE) and "Security and privacy" (SP). Survey has been prepared based on variables and measuring items retrieved from literature review, and one hundred and forty nine Smartphone users were surveyed. According to results, users of Bosnia and Herzegovina are slightly agreeable when it comes to all variables except security and privacy. This study is important insight not only for companies operating in market of Bosnia and Herzegovina when it comes to factors that influence people to use Smartphones, but also for mobile oriented companies outside of country with potential to enter Bosnian market. Limitations of this work are too general sample with no specific target group of people, and small sample size. Therefore, this work could serve as stimuli for new researchers to do similar research but with improved sample aspects.

Keywords: Smartphone; TAM; Bosnia and Herzegovina; Adoption.

Introduction.

Importance of communication and maintaining the relationships within businesses resulted in extreme significance of mobile phones. Moreover, mobile phone is a device many consumers cannot seem to do without. They use mobile phone as a personal device to stay connected with friends and family and as an extension of their personality and individuality (Grant & O'Donohoe, 2007).

As technology continues to evolve, mobile phones are more and more developed. According to Ting et al (2011), the mobile phone has evolved from essentially an interpersonal communication device to a multimedia machine known as Smartphone (Ting, Lim, Patanmacia, Low, & Ker, 2011). According to Persaud and Azhar (2012), the current literature is more about mobile marketing practices using the classic mobile phone, with its very limited capability, compared to today's Smartphones, which have almost unlimited potential. Therefore, there is a gap in the literature when it comes to Smartphones.

In a rapidly changing environment, because of time scarcity, consumers need to use Smartphone at any time and any place (Genova, 2010). Smartphones provide users checking e-mails, communication on social networking web sites, and using online chat regardless of time and

place which create certain level of dependence on Smartphone (Hudson, 2010). Beside this, Smartphone has the capability to transform consumers' shopping experiences and the value of marketing since consumers can now easily and quickly shop across multiple channels (physical store, web-based, and mobile) with greater level of convenience, flexibility, efficiency, and personalization (Persaud & Azhar, 2012).

Also, the rapid growth of Smartphones has led to a renaissance for mobile services. Go-anywhere applications support a wide array of social, financial, and enterprise services for any user with a cellular data plan. Application markets such as Apple's App Store and Google's Android Market provide point and click access to hundreds of thousands of paid and free applications (Enck, Octeau, McDaniel, & Chaudhuri, 2011).

Bosnia and Herzegovina was in a war from 1992 to 1995, and it is still in process of development. Even though unemployment rate is still high, many customers of Bosnia and Herzegovina are not late when it comes to consumption of innovative technological devices such as Smartphones, tablets etc. Even though the mobile market is quite redefined, and it became quite difficult to buy simple mobile phone instead of Smartphone, there is still no empirical evidence about factors that stimulate users to use Smartphones in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Reason for conducting this study is the fact that there is shortage of literature about this issue in area of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Therefore, this research is not only important for companies, retailers of mobile phones, licensed distributors and servicers of various mobile brands located in Bosnia and Herzegovina, but also outside of its boundaries, this paper will provide insights for potential new companies into Bosnian market of Smartphones in order to satisfy users. This work will empirically identify factors that influence users to use Smartphones which is important information for potential new entrants of Bosnian mobile market.

In order to conduct this research, extended model of Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) is going to be used. Smartphone users of different ages, genders, education levels and professions are targeted for conducting the survey which is prepared based on the variables retrieved from literature review. Descriptive analyses are employed and the results have been discussed. This work is suggested to be a potential stimulant for new researchers in both geographic and scientific area.

Main aim of this study can be defined as the identification of the strength of determined factors that influence the use of those devices. In the following section of paper, theoretical background provides all necessary definitions and other information which is important for better understanding of this study. After theoretical background, literature review has been prepared to present earlier research in this area. Fourth section provides the characteristics of data and respondents. The fifth part is dedicated for the results, and the article is completed with conclusion.

Theoretical Background

The term Smartphone can be defined as programmable mobile phone that offers advanced capabilities and features in order to enhance the performance of individuals by providing the services such as instant messaging, downloading applications, utilizing information services such as WiFi, global positioning system (GPS) and entertainment (Ting, Lim, Patanmacia, Low, & Ker, (Euromonitor, 2010a), 2011). The Smartphone is accepted to be one of the fundamental steps in the evolution of mobile marketing technology and practices because of its Bluetooth integration, location-based marketing, and other integrated technologies with web-based and physical store marketing (Persaud & Azhar, 2012). Today, there are three operating systems for Smartphones: Apple iOS, Android, Symbian, Windows Mobile etc.

Mobile phones have evolved from their roots as analog walkie-talkies to full-scale Internet-enabled computers (Dagon, Martin, & Starner, 2004). In 2004, mobile phone handsets were arguably the dominant computer form for consumer's purchase. These devices were powerful and sophisticated—many are even more powerful than desktop computers of the late 1990s. Mobile phones were also moving toward an “always on” form of networking (Dagon, Martin, & Starner, 2004).

The latest generations of Smartphones are more than miniature versions of personal computers by providing more services. Since the introduction of Apple's iOS1 and the Android operating systems, Smartphone sales have significantly increased. The introduction of market

places for apps (such as Apple's App Store, or Google's Google Play) has provided a strong economic driving force, and many applications have been developed for iOS and Android (Egele, Kruegel, Kirda, & Vigna, 2011).

According to Baron et al (2006), technology acceptance has become a central issue in IS research since the TAM was first introduced by Davis in 1989. They stated that over the following 15 years, the TAM has been tested, re-examined, refined and expanded in order to reflect the range of technological developments over that period (Baron, Patterson, & Harris, 2006).

Davis (1989) proposed the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) in order to explain the adoption and use of information technology. According to TAM, perceived usefulness (PU) and perceived ease of use (PEOU) are the two key determinants of technology adoption. There are six components of Technology Acceptance Model proposed by Davis in 1989. Those components are as follows (Figure 1): Perceived Usefulness (PU); Perceived Ease of Use (PEOU); External Variables (EV); Attitude (A); Behavioral Intention (BI); Actual Behavior (AB).

According to Davis (1989), PU is the level up to which individual users expect that the adoption of a specific technology could enhance their job performance. On the other hand, he referred that PEOU is the degree to which individual users believed that using the considered technology would be simple to use. Additionally, both PU and PEOU influence the attitude of individuals towards the use of a specific technology, while attitude and PU influence the individual's behavioral intention (BI) to use the technology. PU is influenced by PEOU as well, because PEOU can indirectly influence the acceptance of technology through PU, while BI is also considered to have influence on subsequent adoption behavior (Davis, 1989).

Behavioral Intention (BI) refers to conscious plans in order or not to perform some specified future behavior (Warshaw & Davis, 1985).

External Variables (EV) are used to determine undefined externally controllable factors (Davis, 1989).

According to Davis, beliefs influence behavior only via their indirect influence on attitudes, and he found that attitudes do not fully mediate the impact of perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use on behavior (Davis, 1989).

Actual Behavior (AB) refers to final actions of user guided by behavioral intention. In other words, when it comes to technology acceptance model, actual behavior refers to usage, non-usage of particular technology, and ways of using it.

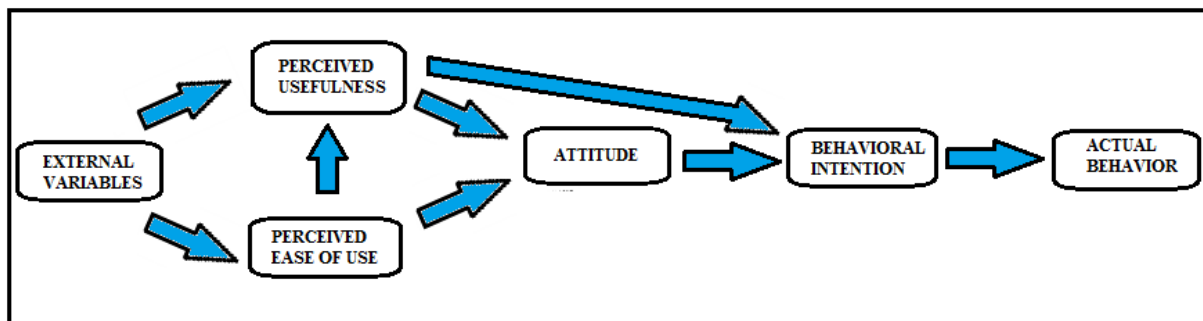


Figure 1 – Original TAM proposed by Davis

Later Davis (1993) defined TAM comprehensively as specification of causal relationships between system design features, perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, attitude toward using, and actual usage behavior (Davis, 1993).

Many researchers modified and used TAM for their own research's characteristics. Accordingly, Chtourou and Souiden (2010) used the same model but by introducing new "fun" variable. Their study intended to examine the effect of the fun aspect on consumers' adoption of technological products (Chtourou & Souiden, 2010). The model they tested is presented in Figure 2.

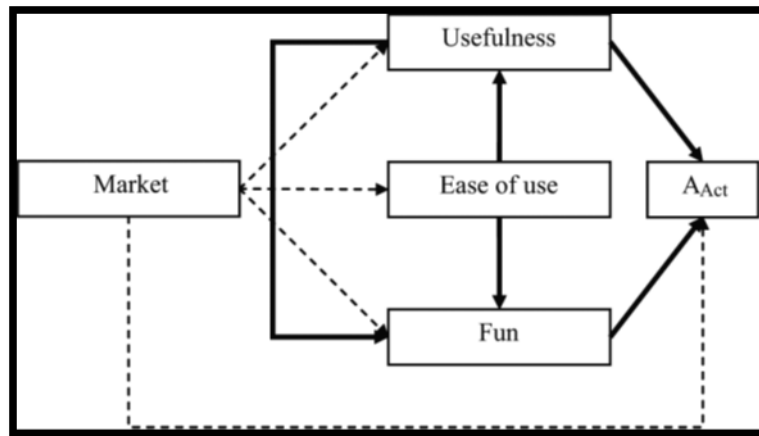


Figure 2 - Model tested by Mohamed Saber Chtourou and Nizar Souiden (2010)

They concluded that fun is an important antecedent of the attitude toward the act (use of mobile devices for surfing the internet). Additionally, fun was also found to mediate the effect of usefulness on attitude. Therefore, TAM model used in this research will have the construct “fun” as an important element in the adoption process.

TeroPikkarainen et al (2004) extended TAM by adding four additional elements and tested the acceptance of online banking (Pikkarainen, Pikkarainen, Karjaluoto, & Pahnla, 2004). Their model is presented in Figure 3.

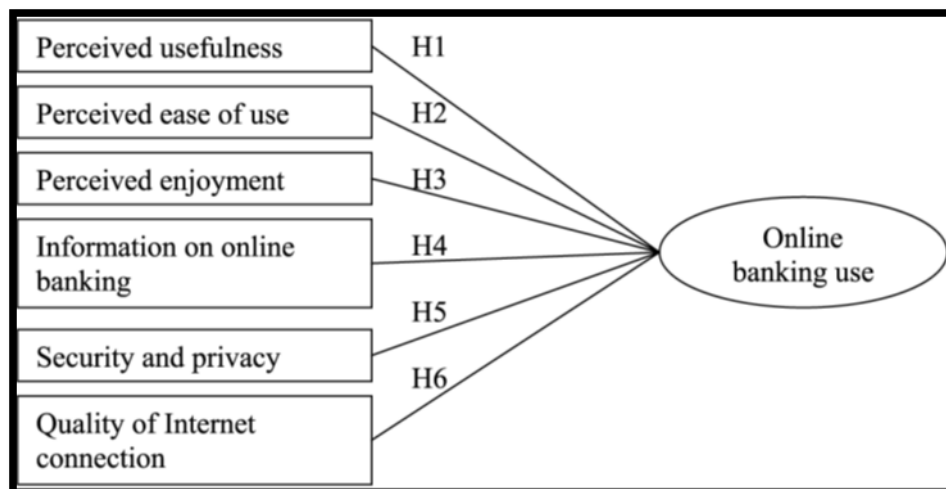


Figure 3 - Extended TAM by Tero Pikkarainen et al (2004)

They found that perceived usefulness and information on online banking on the Web site were the main factors influencing online-banking acceptance (Pikkarainen et al., 2004).

Since Smartphones are generally known as mobiles with interface that is more user-friendly compared to simple mobile phone, this research prefers inserting “Perceived enjoyment” as an important variable to extended TAM. Also, since authors perceive “Perceived enjoyment” as same as variable “fun”, this study choses “Perceived Enjoyment” (Pikkarainen et al., 2004).

Beside this variable, in our extended TAM model, we decided to use variable “security and privacy” as well. Even though according to Pikkarainen et al (2004), this variable refers to security of online banking, Smartphones as powerful devices with ability to connect to internet are vulnerable.

Given the increased sophistication, features, and convenience of these smartphones, users increasingly rely on them to store and process personal information. For example, inside the

phone, it is possible to find phone call log with information about placed and received calls, an address book that connects to the user's friends or family members, browsing history about visited URLs, as well as cached emails and photos taken with the built-in camera. Since they are all private information, the safety of these data is the natural concern (Zhou, Zhang, Jiang, & Freeh, 2011).

All Smartphones have some level of risk. Generally, more time spent connected to internet, brings higher possibilities of risk for Smartphone users compared to simple phone users. Accordingly, "security and privacy" dimension is important to consider while measuring Smartphone acceptance and stimuli for doing it. In the end, after extending TAM through addition of the above variables, proposed model developed for this research is presented in Figure 4.

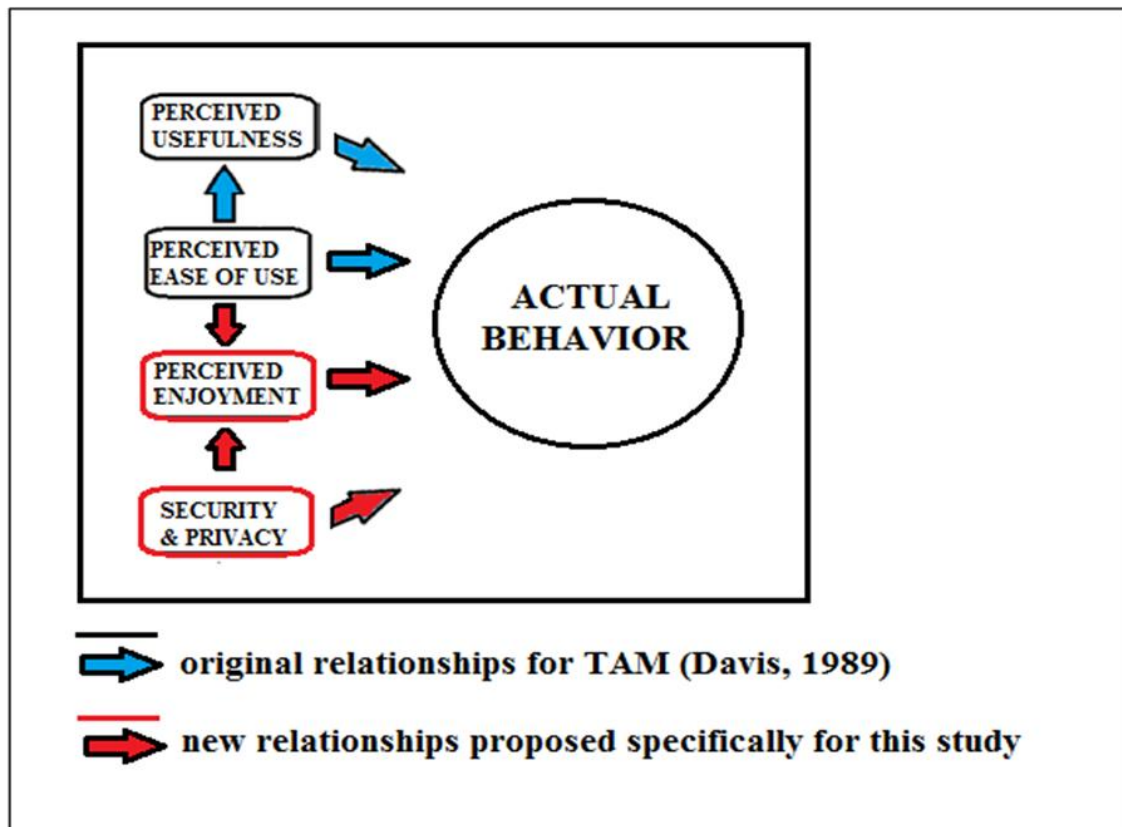


Figure 4 - Proposed Research Model

Literature Review

In order to support this research with appropriate literature review, fifteen relevant articles related to both, TAM and Smartphone issues have been carefully selected and reported in this section of the paper.

In 2007, Park and Chen aimed to investigate the effect of human motivation the adoption decision of Smartphones among medical doctors and nurses. Their study investigates Smartphone users' perception based on users' perceived adoption by evaluating their self-efficacy, technology acceptance model (TAM) and innovation attributes leading to an adoption attitude. Their results indicated that behavioral intention to use is largely influenced by PU and attitude toward using Smartphones. Also, authors found that PU and PEOU positively determine attitude toward using Smartphones (Park & Chen, 2007).

Mobile phones have historically provided limited and tightly controlled interfaces to third-party applications (Enck, Ongtang, & McDaniel, 2008; Badamas, 2001). Badamas (2001) expressed the need for security considerations by the users and their supervisors. Sensitive Company data are usually available on mobile computers. Therefore, serious consideration must be given to the security aspect of these mobile computers. Those mobile computers are nowadays called Smartphones (Badamas, 2001).

Dong-Her, Binshan, Hsiu-Sen, Ming-Hung (2008) paid more attention to security aspects of mobile phones. They aim to provide information about mobile viruses for end-users or organizations and recommend useful tips of how individuals can protect their mobile phones from the intrusion of mobile phone viruses. They investigated infection routes, threats, damage, and spreading ways of mobile phone viruses and provides available countermeasures, but also provided useful tips about mobile viruses, indicating what to do and how to do it (Dong-Her, Binshan, Hsiu-Sen, & Ming-Hung, 2008).

Zhou, Zhang, Jiang and Freeh (2011) searched about the protection of information for Smartphones and they found that mobile users are increasingly relying on Smartphones to store and handle personal information which increases the risk by Smartphone applications. Additionally, they argued that there is a need for new privacy modes in Smartphones (Zhou, Zhang, Jiang, & Freeh, 2011).

Also, it is important to mention that many authors found very interesting to research about ways in which users use their smartphones and therefore they considered factors regarding that. Accordingly, Wilburn Lane & Chris Manner (2011) conducted study that directly tests the effect of the "Big Five" personality traits on smartphone ownership and use. They found that extraverted individuals were more likely to own a smartphone. Extraverts reported a greater importance on the texting function of smartphones. Additionally, authors found that more agreeable individuals place greater importance on using the smartphone to make calls and less importance on texting (Lane & Manner, 2011).

Jae Hyun You, Jae Hak Lee & Cheol Park (2011) focused on factors influencing adoption and post-adoption of smart phone. They aimed to develop a comprehensive model for consumers' adoption of smart phone and their behaviors after adoption. When it comes to their results, authors found that relative advantage, aesthetics and social image are positively related to adoptive intention of smart phone. Second, adoptive intention of smart phone is positively related to adoption of smart phone. Adoption of smart phone is positively related to relationship investment, while relationship investment is positively related to switching cost and emotional attachment. Switching cost is positively related to continued adoptive intention. Emotional attachment is positively related to switching cost and continued adoptive intention (You, Lee, & Park, 2011).

It is also interesting to mention case study regarding investigation into student interest in the use of personal technology such is smartphone to enhance their learning. Ben Woodcock, Andrew Middleton and Anne Nortcliffe (2012) conducted a study and found that students who own smartphones are largely unaware of their potential to support learning and, in general, do not install smartphone applications for that purpose. They are, however, interested in and open to the potential as they become familiar with the possibilities for a range of purposes. Authors propose that more consideration needs to be given to smartphones as platforms to support formal, informal and autonomous learner engagement (Woodcock, Middleton, & Nortcliffe, 2012).

As smartphones have different providers and they are based on different platforms, Ruti Gafni and Nitzza Geri (2013) tried to answer the question do operating systems affect perceptions of smartphone advantages and drawbacks? Currently, the most prevailing operating systems are Apple's iOS and Google's Android. Accordingly, this empirical study investigated if users of iOS and Android differ in their perceptions of the advantages and disadvantages of smartphones. The main findings indicate that there were no important differences between the users of the two operating systems with regard to the general characteristics of the smartphone as a mobile device. Only small differences were found in the perceptions of comfortableness and complexity of the devices (Gafni & Geri, 2013).

When it comes to diversity in smartphones usage, group of authors researched this issue using detailed traces from 255 users. According to results of the study, there was huge diversity in smartphone usage, for instance, the average number of interactions per day varies from 10 to 200, and the average amount of data received per day varies from 1 to 1000 MB. Authors found that qualitative similarities exist among users that facilitate the task of learning user behavior. Also, authors demonstrated the value of adapting to user behavior in the context of a mechanism to predict future energy drain (Falaki et al., 2010).

Chtourou and Souiden (2010) considered the fun aspect of the product as a predictor of innovation adoption. Their study intended to examine the effect of the fun aspect on consumers' adoption of technological products. Authors tested three competing models, mainly derived from

the technology adoption model (TAM), in Canada and France in order to present two different maturity stages through a survey of 367 actual users of mobile devices. Their results show that fun is an important antecedent of the attitude (using mobile devices for surfing the internet). Furthermore, fun is found to mediate the effect of usefulness on attitude.

As various technological devices developed over time, many researchers tried to measure the adoption levels of those technological devices through TAM. Naturally, application of TAM in different areas of technology, and different types of users required some modifications. Therefore, scholars used extended or adjusted versions of TAM in their researches. In the following part of literature review, some of those works will be summarized.

Davis (1989) developed and validated new scales for two specific variables, perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use as the fundamental determinants of user acceptance in two six-item scales with reliabilities of .98 for usefulness and .94 for ease of use. According to Davis (1989), usefulness had a significantly greater correlation with usage behavior compared to ease of use.

Wang et al (2003) used TAM as a theoretical framework, and added “perceived credibility” as a new factor considering the user’s security and privacy concerns in the acceptance of Internet banking. They examined the effect of computer self-efficacy on the intention to use Internet banking. Their results were supportive for extended TAM in predicting the intention of users to adopt Internet banking. The significant effect of computer self-efficacy on behavioral intention through perceived ease of use, perceived usefulness, and perceived credibility is also observed.

Pikkarainen et al (2004) conducted group interviews with banking professionals and used TAM literature and e-banking studies to develop their model which will indicate online banking acceptance among private banks in Finland. Their findings indicated that perceived usefulness and information on online banking on the Web site were the main factors influencing online-banking acceptance.

Yan, Gong and Thong (2006) applied TAM in a very specific area of SMS. They applied an information technology acceptance framework, which assumed the effect of various external factors on a person’s perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, and subjective norms, leading to user acceptance of the SMS in telecommunications research.

Baron, Patterson and Harris (2006) critically examined the definitions of key constructs of the technology acceptance model (TAM) by highlighting the inadequacy of a concentration on simple acceptance of technology for a consumer community of practice. Furthermore, they suggested reviewing the definition of the key TAM constructs by evaluating the existence of counter-intuitive behaviors, technology paradoxes and intense social and emotional elements in actual text message usage.

Lee (2006) extended TAM to investigate the factors affecting the adoption of the e-learning system (ELS) in mandatory and voluntary settings. The results confirmed the findings of the original TAM.

Liao et al (2007) prepared their research model as an extension of TAM in order to identify factors influencing the usage of 3G mobile services in Taiwan. They collected data from 532 respondents and found that perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use and perceived enjoyment are positively related to attitude, and perceived enjoyment has a positive influence on perceived usefulness.

Sang, Lee and Lee (2009) aimed to examine the influencing factors of e-government adoption in Cambodia as one of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) member states. Their comprehensive model of user adoption of e-government is improved by considering the technology acceptance model (TAM), the extended TAM (TAM2), the diffusion of innovations (DOI) theory, and trust to build an adoption. According to the results, the assumed relationships are supported for perceived usefulness, relative advantage, and trust.

Variables & survey

As a result of literature review, five variables are identified and positioned in the developed model including **Perceived usefulness (PU)**(useful mobile for employees), **Perceived Ease of Use (POU)**(having device that allows people to access their information and realize adequate communication in a simple and quick manner), **Perceived enjoyment (PE)**(In highly competitive market, needs of customers are increasingly satisfied), **Security and Privacy**

(SP)(for the private information users store in their Smartphones and the financial activities (money transactions) they do via Smartphones, the risk should be reduced), **Actual behavior (AB)**(the use of Smartphones).

Measurement Items

In order to develop survey questions, for PU, POU, PE, SP the work of Pikkarainen et al (2004) is used. While doing their research, the authors focused on factors which influence acceptance of online banking. For the last variable (AB), Egele et al. (2011) is considered since functions of Smartphones enumerated by authors served as good measuring items for developing appropriate questions used to measure variable AB (Table 1).

Table 1 –Used References for Survey Questions

Variables	References
Perceived Usefulness (PU)	Pikkarainen et al (2004)
Perceived Ease of Use (POU)	
Perceived Enjoyment (PE)	
Security and Privacy (SP)	
Actual Behavior (AB)	Egeleet al (2011)

The model & Hypothesizes

In Figure 4, the extended TAM through addition of mentioned variables is presented. Proposed research model includes two new variables, “Perceived Enjoyment (PE)” and “Security and Privacy (SP)” beside TAM (Davis, 1989). After analyzing the proposed model, it is possible to conclude that SP influences both PE and Actual Behavior (AB), while PE influences AB, but also, at the same time is being influenced by SP and Perceived Ease of Use (PEU). Perceived Usefulness (PU) affects AB, while PEU at the same time influences PE, PU and AB.

Data & Methodology

Data for this study is collected by the means of a survey conducted in Bosnia and Herzegovina in 2013. A total of 200 questionnaire forms were delivered to respondents, and 149 of them were answered giving a response rate of 74.5%. Surveys were filled mainly at universities by students, academic and administrative staff. This resulted in a sample that was well distributed in terms of demographic information (e.g. age, and education). Seven point Likert scale was preferred in order to test the agreements of the respondents on six variables through thirty questions. The collected data is then inserted into an excel spreadsheet and analysed descriptively. The surveys were distributed both online and personally. Online version of survey was created, and its link was sent via e-mail to potential participants. In total, 67 surveys were filled in hard copy form, while 82 were completed online.

Results

Demographics

Demographics information includes respondents' department, positions within the department, education levels, gender and age. The survey is responded by 85 males and 64 females. When it comes to their education level, even 98 of them are students of undergraduate degree. Three surveyed participants have PhD, while 38 are masters of Science. Ten of participants wanted to stay anonymous when it comes to their educational background, and they selected option other with no explanation of what is their education level. The positions of the respondents were grouped according to their similar characteristics. It is possible to conclude that most of employed respondents are Academic Staff, Managers and Administration. Even 52% of surveyed respondents were students with no employment position.

Table 2 - Positions of the respondents

Academic Staff	14
Accounting	3
Administration	12
Engineer	6
Journalist	1
Lawyer	3
Manager	13
Students	77
Teacher	1
Blank	19
Total	149

From Table 3, it is easy to conclude that Perceived Usefulness of Smart phones is found to be important for consumers of Bosnia and Herzegovina, since the mean of 5,52 indicates that many consumers agreed with the statements.

Table 3 Perceived Usefulness (PU)

Variables & Questions	Mean	Std. Deviation
Perceived Usefulness (PU)	5,52	1,36
Using Smartphone enhances my effectiveness of utilizing communication & information services	5,57	1,30
Using Smartphone makes it easier for me to utilize communication & information services	5,74	1,32
Using Smartphone enables me to utilize communication & information services more quickly	5,63	1,42
Using Smartphone for my communication & information services increases my productivity	5,20	1,51
Using Smartphone improves my performance of utilizing communication & information services	5,22	1,38
Overall, Smartphone is useful for me to utilize communication & information services	5,75	1,23

When it comes to results regarding Perceived Ease of Use (POU), users were found to be agreeable that Smartphones are easy to use for them (Table 4).

Table 4 Perceived Ease of Use

Variables & Questions	Mean	Std. Deviation
Perceived Ease of Use (POU)	5,66	1,28
I find it easy to do what I want to do via Smartphone	5,59	1,31
Overall, I find Smartphone easy to use	5,58	1,33
My interaction with Smartphone is clear and understandable	5,74	1,20
Learning to use Smartphone is easy for me	5,85	1,22
It is easy for me to become skillful at using Smartphone	5,60	1,34
I find Smartphone to be flexible to interact with	5,63	1,29

According to the results of Perceived Enjoyment, since mean is 5,72, regarded as almost clear agreement with the statement, it is possible to conclude that users enjoy and are satisfied with pleasant usage of their Smartphone. (Table 5)

Table 5 Perceived Enjoyment

Variables & Questions	Mean	Std. Deviation
Perceived Enjoyment (PE)	5,72	1,40
Using an Smartphone is pleasant	5,65	1,43
Using an Smartphone is positive	5,78	1,36

When it comes to Security and Privacy of using Smartphones, Bosnian users are observed to be neutral (4.17) indicating that users do not perceive Smartphones as very trustable devices in terms of their ability to protect their privacy and security (Table 6).

Table 6 Security and Privacy

Variables & Questions	Mean	Std. Deviation
Security and Privacy (SP)	4,17	1,69
I trust in the technology Smartphone is using	4,66	1,71
I trust in the ability of Smartphone to protect my privacy	3,93	1,73
I trust in Smartphone	4,17	1,56
Using Smartphone is financially secure	4,17	1,64
I am not worried about the security of Smartphone	3,90	1,79

From Table 7, it is easy to conclude that generally users are using all functions offered by Smartphones. However, most of them are using Smartphones for multimedia purposes and accessing their e-mail and social media. Few users are using Smartphones for only essential mobile functions.

Table 7 Actual Behavior

Variables & Questions	Mean	Std. Deviation
Actual Behavior (AB)	5,20	1,67
I use my Smartphone only for essential mobile functions	4,06	1,87
I use my Smartphone to access e-mail and social media	5,62	1,58
I use my Smartphone for applications and games	5,20	1,84
I use my Smartphone for multimedia purposes (photos, videos, music...)	5,91	1,39

In Table 8, overall results are presented. According to the results, Smartphones users in Bosnia and Herzegovina are mostly slightly agreeable when it comes to statements about their acceptance of Smartphones.

Table 8 Overall Result

Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation
Perceived Usefulness (PU)	5,52	1,36
Perceived Ease of Use (POU)	5,66	1,28
Perceived Enjoyment (PE)	5,72	1,40
Security and Privacy (SP)	4,17	1,69
Actual Behavior (AB)	5,20	1,67
Overall Result	5,25	1,48

Discussion

Park and Chen (2007) searched human motivations affecting an adoption decision for Smartphones among medical doctors and nurses and investigated Smartphone users' perception based on users' perceived adoption under the self-efficacy by employing technology acceptance model (TAM) and innovation attributes leading to an adoption attitude. Their results indicate that behavioral intention to use is largely influenced by perceived usefulness (PU) and attitude toward using Smartphone. According to this study related to users of B&H, maximization of PU, POU, PE and minimization of SP are main stimuli for behavioral intention. According to Encket al (2008), mobile phones have historically provided limited and tightly controlled interfaces to third-party applications. Our results show that users of Bosnia and Herzegovina are aware of mentioned problem. There is a need for security considerations of Mobile computer systems-Smartphones (Badamas, 2001). Accordingly, more attention needs to be paid to security issues of Smartphones usage in Bosnia and Herzegovina, especially in a case of companies' sensitive data. This can be innovative competitive advantage for companies dealing with Smartphones production and trade.

Conclusion

Even though Bosnia and Herzegovina is developing country, results of this research showed that Smartphone users of B&H are utilizing these devices in many aspects of their daily lives. Slight agreement regarding every variable except variable entitled "security and privacy" indicates that users are also aware that Smartphones are not able to protect their privacy against third parties always which says more about the level of using the Smartphones. Considering this result, it is possible to conclude that providing more security and privacy for consumers could be good motivational factor and stimuli for users of Bosnia and Herzegovina to decide among many Smartphone alternatives. In other words, it could be competitive advantage for Smartphone producers who are selling their products in B&H. Additionally, variable actual behavior provided insight about what aspects of Smartphones are mainly used by users in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

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Appendix.Survey

MEASURING ADOPTION OF SMARTPHONES AMONG USERS IN BiH THROUGH TECHNOLOGY ACCEPTANCE MODEL (TAM)

Dear respondent,

This is a survey related to the “**Measuring adoption of Smartphones among users in B&H through TAM**”. Please fill the following survey honestly and carefully. Beside each question put mark X for one of the seven offered stages of agreement-Disagreement ratio. For each question leave just one mark. For any further information please contact emekic@ibu.edu.ba

Description of rating scales

#	Value	Meaning Assigned	Demographics	
1	Strongly Disagree	<i>You totally Disagree with the statement</i>	Your department/unit	
2	Disagree	<i>You believe that statement is not true to some extent</i>	Your current position/role in department/unit	
3	Slightly Disagree	<i>You are partially Disagreed with the statement</i>	Education level	<input type="radio"/> Doctorate <input type="radio"/> Master
4	Neutral	<i>You are finding statement as not influential</i>		<input type="radio"/> Undergraduate <input type="radio"/> Other
5	Slightly agree	<i>You are partially agreed with the statement</i>	Gender	<input type="radio"/> Male <input type="radio"/> Female
6	Agree	<i>You believe that statement is true to some extent</i>	Age	<input type="radio"/> ≤30 <input type="radio"/> 31-40 <input type="radio"/> 41-50
7	Strongly agree	<i>You are completely agreed with the statement</i>		<input type="radio"/> 51-60 <input type="radio"/> ≥61

Perceived Usefulness (PU)		Disagree	Agree
1	Using Smartphone enhances my effectiveness of utilizing communication & information services	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
2	Using Smartphone makes it easier for me to utilize communication & information services	1	2 3 4 5 6 7

3	Using Smartphone enables me to utilize communication & information services more quickly	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4	Using Smartphone for my communication & information services increases my productivity	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5	Using Smartphone improves my performance of utilizing communication & information services	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6	Overall, Smartphone is useful for me to utilize communication & information services	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Perceived Ease of Use (POU)		Disagree Agree
1	I find it easy to do what I want to do via Smartphone	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2	Overall, I find Smartphone easy to use	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3	My interaction with Smartphone is clear and understandable	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4	Learning to use Smartphone is easy for me	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5	It is easy for me to become skillful at using Smartphone	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6	I find Smartphone to be flexible to interact with	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Perceived Enjoyment (PE)		Disagree Agree
1	Using Smartphone is pleasant	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2	Using Smartphone bank is positive	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Security and Privacy (SP)		Disagree Agree
1	I trust in the technology Smartphone is using	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2	I trust in the ability of Smartphone to protect my privacy	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3	I trust in Smartphone	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4	Using Smartphone is financially secure	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5	I am not worried about the security of Smartphone	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

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The 20-30s of the 20th Century as a Specific Stage in the History of Development of the Political Economy Science in Azerbaijan

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Abstract

The article has been dedicated to discussions on the subject of political economy in the 20s-30s of the 20th century. Special division of political economy, political-economic understanding of socialism and the system of appropriate principal theoretical propositions formed namely in the 20s-30s of the 20th century. However, the process was accompanied by various polemics and discussions and found its “solution” only after administrative interventions to scientific approaches. The purpose of appealing to historical facts in the article is to draw attention to negative impacts when theoretical approaches are defined not on the basis of objective factors, but according to subjective factors.

Keywords: political economy; economic theory; mechanical philosopher; idealist; Marxist; market theory; political economy of socialism.

Introduction

The term political economy was firstly used by the French mercantilist Antoine de Montchrestien in “the Tractate of Political Economy” in 1615. Political economy occurred and developed in the period when capitalism formed. The first school of political economy is considered mercantilism. Political economy has developed from the 17th century to present time as a large scientific worldview system. Accompanied by discussions and scientific polemics during this period and bearing various ideas from the viewpoint of approach to numerous issues, it changing the content of the political economy notion.

Main purpose of this article is research of specific aspects of the history of development of values of political economy in Azerbaijan economic conceptions. A historical excursion to earlier periods has been done to reach the main purpose – to look through approaches and evaluations which had place in notions of economy of Azerbaijan in the 20s-30s of the 20th century (as in all the USSR). At the mentioned time, necessity of serious changes was a growing reality all over the world including Azerbaijan.

The society passed a transitional period after great political, economical, social, ethical and other perturbations of different content. Traditional soviet economic literature characterizes the abovementioned period as a transitional period from capitalism to socialism. But in parallel with it, countries of America, Europe and Asia needed some “refreshment” in institutes and traditional relations of production, too, which caused experts who researched theoretical problems of economy to put forward various ideas – similar to what happened in other branches of science. It should be noted that during the years subject to this research, serious changes have taken place in all spheres

of the society, including scientific worldview and methodology. Despite that reconsideration of the process has a somewhat retrospective content, it doesn't decrease importance and topicality of the issue, today. Because history is repeated and cyclic character of the development process of societies enables us to assume that historical experience can be useful for solution of the problems that may occur in the future.

On reflection of theoretical issues of economy in economical notions of Azerbaijan in earlier periods

First of all, let's pay attention to ideas of the thinker of the 13th century Nasir-al-din al-Tusi. In his work "Akhlāq-i-nasiri" (a work on ethics) he explained his views on economy in the "house-building" chapter of the work, where he speaks about management of cities. This medieval scholar considered that purposes of the practical wisdom are, together with moral, house-building and town-building. His abovementioned scientific work consists of two parts. The second part is named "**On housekeeping knowledge**" and in its turn, consists of five chapters. Here, main attention is drawn to the notion of "house" – reason of the need for house, its grounds and important aspects. In the special chapter named "**On the policy (management) of collection of goods and food**", N.Tusi expressed his opinion in connection with notions and categories as "money", "goods" and etc. The scholar wrote that for exchange of goods, shopping, rewards, present and etc. there is a need for money (dinar), which is considered as balance, public criterion and "the small conscience" [3, p. 145-148].

As it can be seen, though the term of political economy was not used by Azerbaijani thinkers in the Middle Ages, evaluations were made on different aspects and categories of the science of political economy. At the same time, they paid attention to social-economical realities of the society, regulation of economical relations, as well as the need for existence of systemized approaches and worldviews.

From now on, we need to redirect attention to realities of the 19th century. Because, after being occupied by Russia from beginning of the 19th century, Azerbaijan falls under Russian sphere of influence. Consequently, traditional style of life and worldview gradually undergo serious changes. Naturally, being open to progressive and innovative ideas at all times, advanced Azerbaijani intellectuals could take the positive benefits of the situation, even if they were at the minimum level. From this viewpoint, it can be mentioned that namely from that period Azerbaijani intellectuals began to adopt European ideas through Russian scientific community and society. It is the main reason of increased interest to the science of economy in Azerbaijan in 60-70s of the 19th century. First evaluations on economical issues of that period can be found in educational activities of M.F.Akhundov, H.B.Zerdabi, N.B.Vazirov and etc. Many researchers today think that separation of economical ideas from sociology happened namely during this period.

Despite of absence of political economy notion in literary works of M.F.Akhundov, he has advanced ideas on existence of **the science of policy and administrative institutes**, giving useful advice to statesmen. Akhundov believed that the purpose of economy is meeting the needs of human being, which he classified as following: 1) physical needs, 2) mental needs, 3) spiritual needs. He wrote that physical needs include food, clothing, housing and other facilities of comfort, while mental needs consist of studying sciences and spiritual needs are the love to family and country. Conducting comparisons between western ideas on economy and those of Azerbaijan, analytics consider that at that time sociologists in the West still understood political economy as harmonious formation of state management. Similar approaches existed in the Muslim East, too – the concept of political economy had not been explained according to its classical content as it is accepted now by most of economists today [11, p. 18-19].

Contribution of another Azerbaijani thinker of the 19th century – N.B.Vazirov was that for the first time the term of "political economy" was included in the scientific literature of Azerbaijan in "Ekinchi" newspaper on March 17, 1877. In its first appearance in the newspaper the term referred to collective labour activity and saving working time. N.B.Vazirov attended lectures at the Petrovsky-Razumovsky Academy and had the opportunity to study the materials circulating in editions of scientific communities of Moscow and Saint Petersburg. In his articles he used references from "History of Culture in England" of G.Bockle, "History of Mental Development of Europe" of D.Dreper, including economical opinions of P.Prudoe. N.B.Vazirov believed that development of Europe was possible thanks to the ability of organizing collective labour activities.

Citing the process of production of pin in Europe as an example, he wrote that a craftsman could produce only several pins a day, while thanks to specialization of 10 craftsmen in different spheres of labour process, production of 47.000 pins was possible in enterprises in Europe. In general, elements of mercantilism dominated in his views on economy.

We can read H.B.Zardabi's views on political economy in edition of "Ekinchi" Newspaper dated July 7, 1877. He referred to political economy as commerce. He wrote that, according to commerce, price of each commodity is defined by its buyers; if a product has many buyers, then it has high price. This science teaches us that increasing sales of a product increases the number of producers of the product.

In his evaluations H.B.Zardabi divided more than 40 handicraft production types to three categories. The first category included clay pots, wool socks and other products produced locally. The second category consisted of broadcloth, silk and other products of the same type. These products were generally produced in regions and met demands of the home market. The third category included carpets, weapons and jewellery products, which were sold in home and foreign markets. H.B.Zardabi related slow development of silkworm breeding and other spheres in Azerbaijan, first of all, with psychological factors and traditional production techniques. He believed that development of production and economy is conditioned with businessmen who have ideas on advanced economic practices. He specially emphasized that development of this sphere will increase the demand for people of scientific worldview and professionals specialized in the sphere of commerce. He considered that it was very important to pay more attention to this sphere [11, p. 37-38].

It should be mentioned that thinkers of the 19th century in Azerbaijan considered that profit was the main motive in the process of production, while the standard of profit is measured by quantity of labour of production. All these enable us to say that, since the second half of the 19th century, elements of the classical economical theory gradually gained prestige in evaluation of economical appearances in the society.

Later, in the beginning of the 20th century, there were several other interpretations in the socio-economical notions in Azerbaijan. The large-volume "Turkish-Russian" – "Russian-Turkish" dictionary compiled in 1907 by Azerbaijani publicists and thinkers has definite part concerning this topic. [4, p.10, №3, 1985].

Including up to 2000 terms, the dictionary is composed of 124 pages. It was divided to two parts. The first part consisted of lexicological and semantic explanations on terms, while the second part included Azerbaijani equivalents of Russian terms given in the dictionary. The Turkish-Russian part of the dictionary is 97 pages and the Russian-Turkish part consists of 27 pages. We also can find notes on origins of words (Arabic, Persian, Turkish, French, Latin, Greek, Italian, Russian, English, Hungarian, German, and Polish). Publishers also explained the necessity of composition of such a dictionary: Society keeps developing and changing. Innovations and other similar appearances do not always have proper names (even those of 10 years ago) in our language. For example, some thinkers did not agree to call an ox draught and an automobile with the same name ("araba"). From the other hand, having actually two dictionaries in it (Russian-Turkish and Turkish-Russian), the new dictionary aimed the purpose of facilitating the process of learning the two languages. If to pay attention to content of notions as *politiçeskaya ekonomiya*, *ekonomiya*, *təsərrüfat*, we can assume that these notions can be compared to present similar but different notions as economical theory, public economy and national economy. The abovementioned notions have the following content in the dictionary:

Политическая Экономика – scientific economy – a science involved in explanation of the purpose of earning public and private wealth;

Хозяйство – economy of properties, commodities and houskeeping;

Экономия – a science on economy as earning money [9, 124].

Realities of 1918-1920 also are important and deserve attention from the viewpoint of this research work.

During the Democratic Republic of Azerbaijan, among other professions, preparation of economists and development of the science of economy all over the country was planned by the Ministry of Education. In the beginning of 1918, the Ministry requested the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to address to foreign governments for admission of students from Azerbaijan. Turkey,

Germany, Austria, Hungary and all other European countries, which recognized the new republic, responded to the address positively. Together with students from rich families, the Azerbaijani government took measures for education of students from families with low income. Among those who were sent abroad, there were students who left Azerbaijan for the purpose of higher education in the sphere of economics. At the same time, the State University of Azerbaijan had been founded and opening of the Higher Institute of Agriculture was planned. In both of them training of economics was planned by the Ministry of Education. All these enable us to assume that newly founded by republicans with democratic ideas, the Republic of Azerbaijan in the years 1918-1920 paid great attention to the science of political economy.

The 20s-30s can be mentioned as the next noteworthy stage of economic worldview of Azerbaijan and its society.

In the 20s-30s of the 20th century, as in all the Soviet Union, a serious struggle was going around theoretical issues of economics in Azerbaijan. It included the following: 1) Subject of political economy, 2) The model of socialist economy, the period of transition and the plurality of possession, 3) The role of socialist state, main point and purposes of planning, 4) Main point of commodity-money relations and evaluations on the market economy, 5) Types of economy and discourses on regulatory measures, 6) Ways of development of the country in the future, opinions on problems of economic crisis, 7) Industrialization of the national economy, 8) Agricultural relations and cooperation of agriculture, 9) Salaries and the problem of division of public labour.

As seen above, these years are characterized as the period of serious discussions on multi-spectral economic problems, beginning from scientific methodological approach, subject and object of the science. It should be mentioned here that in the 20s of the 20th century several economists considered that there is no need for the science of political economy after the victory of the proletarian revolution, because political economy only studies the capitalist method of production [8, p. 361-362].

The idea of importance of political economy in conditions of capitalist production relations, commodity fetishism and capitalist economy was supported by scholars as M.Tugan Baranovsky, R.Hilferding, N.Bukharin, R.Luxemburg [12, p.36]. Discussions around this issue became more acute in the years 1927-1929. The reason was a new book of Lenin named "On Bukharin's book of economy of transitional period". The book unambiguously defined that the science of political economy is important for socialism and communism, too. [6, p.3].

It should be mentioned that in Azerbaijan L.A.Ishkov, A.Hilman, M.N.Sobolyev, T.L.Berin, I.G.Sorfonovich, B.Hasanbayov, G.Sultanov and others were involved in discussions on the subject of political economy. These discussions were often published in media organs and press of official institutes, criticizing Trotsky-Bukharin inclined ideas in the first part of the 20s. Considering study of capitalist production relations as the only subject of political economy, scholars as L.A.Ishkov, A.Hilman (who conducted activities in scientific-research centers and higher education institutes of Azerbaijan) had their ideas widely spread among economists. The abovementioned economists assumed that the science of political economy is important where human will and consciousness couldn't rule over economical relations and production underwent influence of spontaneous market forces. They connected the existence of political economy with commodity-capitalist economies and private property. Prof. A.Hilman considered that political economy occurred because of spontaneity of capitalism and there were no economic relations and economic objective laws in a non-capitalist system, because such systems built the process of material production not on the basis of economic relations, but on the basis of its approach to nature (productive forces), ideology and other objective laws. A.Hilman and A.Mammadbayov considered that the purpose of political economy was to change capitalism and there was no need for it after such a change, because its last stage had to be a proletarian revolution in the world. P.P.Fridolin, T.L.Berin and M.Zeynalov believed that political economy had to be studied apart from production relations and productive forces, while Prof. B.Hasanbayov and Y.Spassky cautiously approached to the issue of the object of political economy, though they criticized mechanists [5, p.69-71, №3, 1977; 10, p.78, №1, 1984].

Another Azerbaijani economist G.Sultanov tried in 1929 to explain the essence of political economy in his report named "The subject of Political Economy". H.Dadshov had evaluations on surplus labor, while D.Hepshtein was involved in issues as new economic policy, private capital and trade.

Some economists were not directly involved in the issue of the subject of political economy, however they also put forward ideas on theoretical issues of economy, among which we can list the issues of public and private property, ground rent and others. For example, A.A.Trivus explained several fundamental issues of economic policy in his “Book of Taxes”, which were later used for condemning the scholar in inclination to bourgeois ideology.

Being unable to put forward ideas against the official ideology, economists in Azerbaijan had evaluations on categories typical to political economy of capitalist societies, importance of commodity-money relations in socialism, philosophical and economical explanation of such concepts as relations of production and productive forces.

We can also observe that in the 20s of the 20th century official doctrine of the Union did not accept several approaches of the abovementioned scholars and paid special attention to criticism of such approaches from the viewpoint of its own value criteria.

Here we can pay attention to evaluations on A.Leontyev’s book named “Beginning Course of Political Economy” (**А.Леонтьев, «Начальный курс политической экономики», ГИЗ, 7-е издание, цена 1 руб.**), published in “Bakinsky Rabochy” newspaper on October 19, 1939. It is written in the newspaper that publication of textbooks of political economy has its own history. Only during last revolutions more than 10 Marxist textbooks were published, most of which are worthless and vulgar. Popularization of the ideas in “Capital” is carried out with damages to its revolutionary and scientific content. A.Leontyev’s book is not an exception, from this viewpoint. Instead of solving confusions of political economy, it only makes them more complicated. It marvellously unites Rubin’s idealist system with Bukarin’s “theory of labour expenses”. The biggest shortage of the textbook is total isolation of social form from material content. It presents political economy in a narrow sense as Bukharin and assumes that it only studies relations of production and doesn’t have any relation with movement and development of productive forces. Furthermore, it presents political economy in the spirit of Rubin’s metaphysics and gives the role of development and engineering in ideographic additions. There is an explanation on transition of the organization of labour from one form to another inside an enterprise. For example, transition form of cooperation from manufacture to large scale machine industry, development of bourgeois relations and etc. Another shortage is related to logical explanation of development of categories of political economy. Engels considers this process as historical development. However, the book presents all these as succession of evolution and development process, from logical viewpoint. It also draws our attention with its Rubin-like and scholastic transition from one concept to another. In general, the abovementioned book of Leontyev shows inclination to idealist ideas of Rubin and notions of Bogdanov-Bukharin. [7, №245, 1930].

In parallel, more attention was paid to preparation of textbooks of political economy on the basis of postulates of the official ideology.

Works for training political economy in higher schools of economy began in 1934. H.Dadashov was charged to deliver lectures in this subject in the Institute of Social Economy. The mentioned institute was united in 1937 with Azerbaijan Public Economy Institute. Meanwhile, H.Dadashov prepares a training material of history of political economy for Azerbaijani groups, first part of which (7 pages) was published in 1935 [1, p.108].

At the same time, in 30s H.A.Dadashov, A.A.Nabiyev and Sultanov prepared a manual of political economy (some parts) [2, p.68, №1-2, 1973].

It should be noted that in the 20s-30s special attention in Azerbaijan was paid to translation of materials on political economy from Russian and their publication. A.Bogdanov’s “Scientific Economy in Questions and Answers” (as early as 1922), Almapiyev’s “History of Transport” (1925), V.Motilyov’s “Brief Course of Political Economy” (1926), A.Leontyev’s “Political Economy” (1928), P.Maslov’s “History of Public Economy” (1928) and “Political Economy and the Theory of Economies of the Soviets” (1929) and A.Aykhenvald’s “History of Soviet Economy and theory” were published in Azerbaijani.

Next stage of the development of political economy in Azerbaijan is the 40s-90s of the 20th century. This period is characterized with a process from developed socialist society to fall of the socialist system, when economic process and events were explained on the basis of criteria, methodology and laws of political economy of communism and political economy was presented as a science with two shapes – political economy of capitalism and political economy of socialism.

Today, after fall of socialist system, the science of political economy lost its popularity in the Republic. Nowadays, political theory, history of economic ideas, economic history, econometrics and other branches of economics are more popular in Azerbaijan.

Conclusion

Political economy, the system of scientific worldview formed in relation with theoretic problems of economy has passed definite development stages in Azerbaijan. These are the following: 1) the period until the 19th century, 2) the period from the second part of the 19th century up to the 20s of the 20th century, 3) the 20s-30s of the 20th century, 4) the 40s-80s of the 20th century, 5) Modern period. Naturally, the 20s-30s of the 20th century can be characterized as a specific period from several aspects. All these, first of all, are connected to its performance as a pretentious field of science that explains phenomena of political economy of the transition period and solves its theoretical problems.

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**“Linguistic and Rhetorical Picture of the World”
of Collective Linguistic Personality as the Basic Discourse-universe
of Ethnocultural and Educational Space ***

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Abstract.

The article substantiates and discloses the category of "Linguistic and rhetorical (LR) picture of the world", which is postulated as a universal of discursive level. Its principles of rhetorical hierarchization of value judgments, generated from linguistic units at different levels, forms the basic discourse-universe of ethnocultural and educational space in which a collective linguistic identity of a particular ethnic group operates and develops. In the process of intercultural communication the overlap of LR pictures of the world of all languages' representatives occurs; the understanding takes place on the basis of integrated essential features, universal core of value hierarchy (achieving of communicative effect), distinctive features are becoming the determinants of different types of barriers (private manifestations of communication failure).

Keywords: linguistic and rhetorical (LR) paradigm; linguistic and rhetorical pictures of the world; universal of discursive level; collective linguistic personality of ethnic group; ethnocultural and educational space.

Introduction.

Within the framework of linguistic and rhetorical (LR) paradigm [1, 2], the category of linguistic and rhetorical pictures of the world along with the concept of integrated LR competence of linguistic personality occupies the central space. LR pictures of the world serves a philological correlate of outlook as a core of individual and social consciousness, that spiritual prism through

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which linguistic personality perceives objective reality. If the linguistic pictures of the world can be similar to the glass through which we see the world – to what we see, then the LR picture of the world fixes and largely determines the way of vision, the state of "mental view's organs". Under totalitarian deformations of LR pictures of the world an invisible glass of linguistic world becomes cloudy and just distorting reality as it is convincingly shown by several researchers, in particular, N.A. Kupina [3].

Sources and methods.

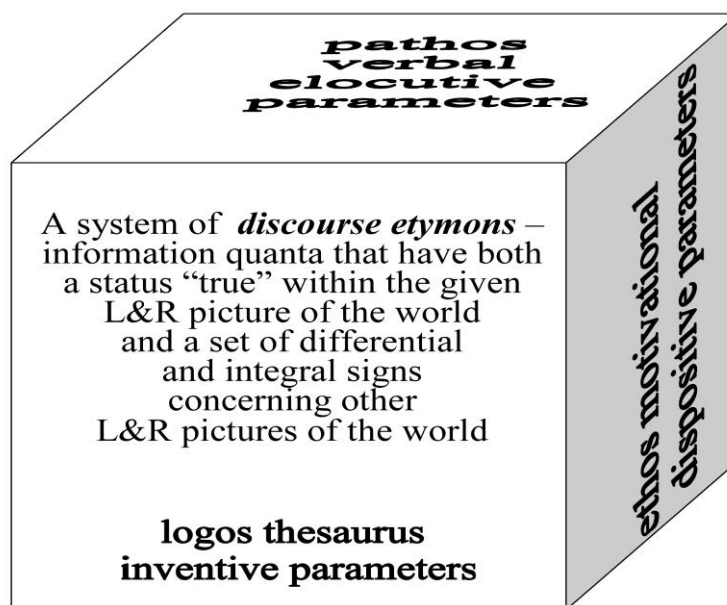
The theoretical sources serve as a material; generalizations were made on the analysis of political discourse and ethnocultural specificity of lacunae arising in terms of intercultural communication. From the position of L & R paradigm research methods of systematic analysis, concept categorization, modeling and synergetics were used.

Discussion.

LR pictures of the world in our conception is defined as a discourse-universe, the global scope of descriptions in which a total linguistic personality of ethnic society exists at a given cultural and historical period. Linguistic and rhetorical continuum sets standards of specific discourse-practices and developing on their basis discourse-ensembles (comp. the expressions "style (spirit) of epoch," "man of his time"). Linguistic and rhetorical picture of the world acts as the general horizon of perusals' totality generated by the texts that constitute "semiotic body" of the given discourse-universe. Collective language ability of ethnos turns out to be programmed in three dimensions: the first side of LR pictures of the world corresponds to the way of thinking, characteristic of the epoch; the second one – to the hierarchy of spiritual values created by mankind and refracted in the national ideo-sphere of language and culture; the third side reflects the actual, for ethnic society in the socio-political situation, interpretation of total value hierarchy, organizing its vital functions on the basis of the declared goals and ideals (Figure 1).

Figure 1

**L&R PICTURE OF THE WORLD
AS MENTAL SPACE**



LR pictures of the world is a conceptual synarchy (from Greek "together", "control") of logos, ethos and pathos as ideal anthropocosmic entities forming any productive and receptive processes. LR pictures of the world can be schematically represented as a pyramid of three related "epistemes" (logos, ethos and pathos) embedded in the language pictures of the world that grew on its basis and at the same time providing an active reverse effect. Logos episteme corresponds to the

"historical priori" [4] by analogy ethos and pathos epistemes are defined as "ethical priori" and "political priori." Their interconnectivity, overlaps and synergy stem the uniqueness of the cultural situation in the society of a certain period.

Logos episteme ("historical a priori") – the way to implement logos in the word that distinguishes this epoch. Using the data of cognitive science linguistic and rhetorical picture of the world at this level of consideration appears in the form of typical structures of knowledge representation in the thesaurus of linguistic personality and methods of conceptual organization, i.e. leading strategies of semantic output defined by this episteme. They provide the work of inventive-paradigmatic mechanism for implementing linguistic and rhetorical competence of comprehensive linguistic personality of ethno-society (in the global discursive text-forming process) and individual linguistic personality (in particular discourse-practice). The logos facet of LR represents a common type of manipulation with mental representations of such types as frames, plans, scripts, models and other knowledge structures, implemented within the "intermediate language" [5]. As "impersonal subject of discourse" (Foucault) the collective linguistic personality connects discursive elements already on the preconceptual level – by crossing, substitution, displacement, removal, compatibility-incompatibility, and other metabolic unconscious operations. At the same time the choice of those or other mental operations is made on the common logos basis, statements are constructed, the objects of science are formed by certain rules, because all the facts of culture (as well as totalitarian anticulture) eventually fit into the context of discourse-practices and discourse-ensembles as their sets.

Ethos episteme ("ethical priori") is an achieved value content of ideosphere of language by comprehensive linguistic personality of ethno-society at a given historical period. Ideology in the wide sense is a certain complex of hierarchically organized cognitive-speech culture, which obviously can be reconstructed from the discourse-universe of epoch with a single methodological apparatus of philosophy (content) and the linguistic rhetoric (form).

Pathos episteme, the core of which in the socio-cultural aspect serves "political priori", is ideology in the narrow sense, i.e. interpretation of cultural concepts in the interests of a particular social force (classes, community groups, individuals, one nation to the detriment of other people, etc.). In society that tends to harmonize social processes toward genuine democracy, "political priori" is maximally moving closer (ideally – coincides) to the ideological episteme, building upon humanistic and religious valuable hierarchies.

The structure of LR pictures of the world is formed with cultural concepts acting as external toposes of value judgments, and the relationships between them, i.e. the internal toposes (rhetorical "common places"). They are universal cumulates of culture throughout the spiritual history of mankind. This or that concept exists for each vocabulary meaning of a word, which is the result of a "clash" of this meaning with personal experience, cultural individuality of a concept-bearer [6]. As a mediator of cognitive, communicative, emotional and expressive language functions, synthesized in its transcendent rhetorical function, the concept appears in the structure of the linguistic personality as a triune thought-verbal formation: by one party it is "based" on verbal associative network, the other – on the thesaurus; both faces, connotationally soldered by subjective significance of the concept, "go out" on the motivational level of linguistic personality. Hierarchy of toposes – value judgments, being ontologically rooted and historically developed in society, forms the core of cultural tradition. Depending on the nature of instances the following composition of hierarchy is defined: 1) religion, 2) science, 3) art, 4) right, 5) normative history, 6) public morals, 7) public organization, 8) personal authority, 9) political system, 10) public opinion [7].

Internal toposes serve as structural elements, ways of relationships between concepts. Such "places" are grouped into four categories: 1) "to the subject" (from the causes, the place, time, the way of action, the means, etc.), 2) "in the subject" (from the whole, the part, the sort, the type, the features, etc.) 3) "around the subject" (from the similarity, differences, the opposition, the adjacency, etc.), 4) "after the subject" (from the consequences, regulations, etc.) [8].

The evolution of the general LR pictures of the world in its "logos" dimension can be taken, in particular, in the phenomenon of growth and cumulation of internal topos' composition. In classical rhetoric quantitative and qualitative comparisons do not differ, the category of joint representation does not stand out, it is fused to the topos of place. There is no separate topos of probability while modern argumentation systematically operates with these and other relations just as toposes [9].

It is fundamentally important for the concept of LR picture of the world that discharges of internal toposes correspond to the "cross of reality", acting as a model of specifically humanitarian space. [10]. It is organized according to the four speech orientations of linguistic personality – in relation to the future and the past in time, in relation to the internal and external world in space. Thus, LR picture of the world is the mental space that forms the collective linguistic personality of ethno-society. Linguistic and cognitive level of linguistic personality's structure as a carrier of individual linguistic consciousness (thesaurus) refracts ethno-specific LR picture of the world in its ideological shell; on the same basis a verbal associative network is developing, and in many respects – the motivational level.

Language in the process of its practical implementation is inseparable from its ideological or life content; language as a system of normatively identical forms is not a valid mode of language existence for the consciousness of its speakers [11]. In this connection "rhetorical ordering" is topical – regarding the system and structure of topos, "cross reality" – fragments of linguistic world, the study of which is now recognized as the most important task of semantics and lexicography. (It is significant that the "drift" of linguistic meanings occurs toward the explication of the archetypal features of our consciousness [12]). The description of cultural concepts in the discourse-universe of ethnic society in a certain historical period is designed to give a "static snapshot" of ideo-system of linguistic and rhetorical pictures of the world; analysis of their subject-predicate relations, hierarchical organization identifies an ideo-structure, which provides a dynamic life of concepts as spiritual and philosophical orientations of a collective linguistic personality of ethno-society, penetrating all of its levels. Logical analysis of the language could be the method of structuring linguistic-rhetorical pictures of the world in order to describe it adequately at which philosophical concepts are studied as semantic dominants of relevant conceptualized areas, i.e. with conceptual and structural importance. Further study of cultural concepts, perspectives of which linguists see in their inventory, distribution by category (or fields), the assessment of classification principles and separation of the primary concepts from derivatives [13] obviously can be fruitfully focused within the concept of linguistic and rhetorical picture of the world. Both synchronous and historical aspects of the semantic model's definition of major philosophical concepts, realized in their "language", get new emphasis when considering the concepts in the role of external toposes of values' hierarchy within the conceptual synarchy of logos, ethos, pathos in a cultural-historical period.

Conceptual analysis, according to E.S.Kubryakova, unlike the semantic one (aimed at the explication of the semantic structure of the word, clarifying of realizing its denotative, connotative and significative values), is to find those general concepts that are subsumed under one sign and determine its existence as a cognitive structure [14]. Landmarks identified under the logical analysis of language can serve as steps in describing the "discursive text-forming" functions of cultural concepts within the linguistic and rhetorical pictures of the world (a set of attributes that indicate belonging to a particular conceptual field; definitions due to place in the system of values; indications of functions in human life [15]); procedures of content analysis are also updated. If the language content of the conceptual material of "naive pictures of the world" is closely studied by lexicographers [16], so its life dynamics in the continuum of text, the specificity of implementation in the academic, artistic, publicistic, propagandistic discourses attract close attention of philologists of different profile.

"Linguistic rhetoric of conceptual sphere" appears transparent to most studies in journalism, which explicitly and variously in elocutive relation (from "naked propaganda" to high humanistic pathos of a true artist of the word) embodies valuable hierarchy meaningful for ethnic society. The study of linguistic picture of the world, reduced in the "state of social readiness" (in the discursive process, provided by all mechanisms of implementation of linguistic personality's LR competence, in the text as its semiotic result; in joint work as a spiritual product of two concept- carriers – the author and the reader), turns it into LR picture of the world which, incidentally, is constantly fulfilled at the level of elementary everyday reflection.

Investigation techniques for LR pictures of the world on the material of representative texts involve the following steps:

- 1) Identification of concepts relevant to the ethno-society at a given historical period, and fixation of contextually conditioned variants of their semantic radius;

2) Forming philosophical and rhetorical hierarchy of concepts (external topos of value judgments), the analysis of the relationships between them (internal topos);

3) Schematic reconstruction of sections of language's ideo-sphere as fragments of total linguistic personality's LR picture of the world of ethno-society (based on generalizations of statistically significant results of the analysis of concrete LR picture of the world);

4) A study of dialectics of national-cultural and ideological-political components of LR picture of the world;

5) Analysis of individual specificity in discourse-practice of a separate linguistic personality on the background of the base, invariant part of LR picture of the world;

6) Construction of group, class and other "sub-socium" variants of general LR picture of the world, etc.

Enumerated destinations can be specified in terms of both content and mutual implication. Different research tactics are possible:

- deductive method of research: from the general "contemplative" idea about the conceptual synarchy of epoch, about global substructures of LR picture of the world (so, along with the conceptual sphere of socialist realism in Russian literature of the XX century 'ethical priori' continued to be approved on the basis of religious and human values) to concrete discourse-practices and individual texts;

- inductive method: from the concrete text to discourse-practice of the given linguistic personality (comp. the traditional "study of language/style of the writer"), to discourse-ensembles of different types (comp. literary trend, direction, etc.), to discourse-universe as a whole.

The category "LR picture of the world", developed as the term-conception, specifies "discourse" of the late Foucault in elected perspective as "the median area between the general laws and individual phenomena", "the area of conditions of language and cognition's possibility". The category "LR picture of the world" enables comprehension of discourse in the form of logos-ethos-pathos thought-speech continuum, unfolding itself in general discursive text-forming process of production of culture and the language itself, fulfilled by collective linguistic personality of ethnos (undergoing of societies, but preserving national invariant of its structure on the background of substitution of variative ideological-political and socio-psychological stratifications [17]. The author of "Words and Things" was criticized for preferential attention to the analysis of discontinuities in the transitions from one episteme to another at the expense of continuity of the relationships between them, for restriction of the search of the general forms' structuring of super structural content – outside the broader context of social relations of each epoch, which could strengthen justification of separating epistemes [18]. The proposed approach, in our view, contributes to organic inclusion of these important moments in the epistemic space. Foucault does not use the concept of the episteme in subsequent studies, improving its methodology in relation to discourse [19]. Meanwhile, its high cognitive value is obvious (confirmed by the active functioning in a modern national philology), because episteme of Foucault is "a humanitarian correlate" of Kantian a priori cognitive structures, derived for the natural sciences, and Marxian "objective forms of thinking", developed in relation to the political economy. The multidimensionality of LR picture of the world theoretically explains the phenomenon of coexistence of discourse practices (ensembles) within one "historical a priori" as a global culturological generalization, promotes revealing of patterns of their relations within the cultural polylogue of era.

Phenomenon of LR picture of the world can be classified as linguistic universal of discursive level. Common to all languages relations between subject and predicate are formed in the proposal-utterance – the unit of discourse, the opposition of which exists in every language, it is objective and universal (Stepanov Y.S.); also common to all languages topos pairs of cultural concepts are formed at the level of discourse on the subject-predicate principle, the hierarchy of value judgments are organized. The concepts – 'good', 'evil', 'truth', 'creativity', 'debt', 'knowledge', 'value', etc., definable by linguistic philosophy with reliance on the context of related words' usage in everyday speech and ethical writings [20], act as keywords of meta-language of culture, available in any language that are relevant to each person [21]. The phenomenon of LR picture of the world of the world reflects a general structuring principle of macro-discourse of a natural language and also discourse-universe, crystallizing within it (e.g., the Soviet language-discourse was formed in 'the bosom' of the Russian language as the national macro-discourse), that occurs on the basis of discourse-etymon (from Gr. etymon – «truth») – quanta of information, true within this mental

space. Disengagement occurs at the same thought-speech base within the macro-discourse of a national language of discourse-universes, the conceptual frameworks of which serve different LR pictures of the worlds, including sharply oppositional, alternative ones, generating antonymous contexts. Universal laws of historical change of language semantics as otherness of social semantics are implemented at the level of discourse-universes [22]. Within the general typology of universals LR picture of the world appears as: a) complicated universal (asserting certain dependence between different phenomena); б) diachronic universal (associated with changing the world picture of native speakers).

We can speak about LR picture of the world as a difficult speech universal, the source of diachronic language universal. Revealing regularities of its formation, the most intensive operation and fading allows predicting the disappearance of some language phenomena and the occurrence of others on a discursive level. For example, a call of a group of word-associates' data on the level of collective associative verbal network by a stimulus word (see experimental data of Karaulov Y.N.) is due to LR picture of the world that is relevant to the collective linguistic personality of ethnic socium. The current value hierarchy formed through the natural historical (or violent revolutionary) way as an ideological field penetrates the verbal-semantic level of national macro-discourse, organizing (or reconstructing) at a certain angle semantic spheres of political, philosophical, religious, ethical, artistic, legal as the main components of national mentality.

Conclusion.

The category of linguistic and rhetorical (LR) picture of the world is postulated as a universal of discursive level. Its principle of rhetorical hierarchization of value judgments is generated from linguistic units at different levels. It is of fundamental importance that the latter units form the discourse-universe of ethnocultural and educational space not in their pure form, but as parts of rhetorical structures. LR picture of the world forms a speech-thought frame of ethnocultural deterministic discourse-universe in which a collective linguistic personality of a particular ethnic group operates and develops.

From the foregoing, it follows logically that a sort of "overlaps" of LR picture of the world of its subjects – native speakers occurs in the process of intercultural communication. Communicative fields of integral and differential features of two (or more, in the situation of polylogue of different linguocultures' representatives) LR world pictures of communication subjects are formed, but represented by means of a language – the one on which communication is currently implemented. Adequate perception, understanding, analysis and interpretation of foreign culture discourse occur on the basis of integrated essential features, universal core of value hierarchy of LR structures; understanding is provided, communicative effect is achieved. Differential features of LR pictures of the world dictate global misunderstanding of interlocutors or communication barriers of different types, by means of which these or those particular manifestations of communication failure are caused within a given speech event.

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ПОЛИТОЛОГИЯ

Turkey-Armenia Relations After 2008

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Abstract.

The conflict between Armenia and Turkey is an important factor which hinders economic development, worsens the prestige and successful foreign policy of these two countries. However, year 2008 marked positive shifts in Turkey-Armenia relations which started with football diplomacy and therefore provided hopes that after tense past, it is possible to normalise relations. The aim of this study is to analyse development of relations between Armenia and Turkey after 2008 and the possibilities that relations can be normalised in nearest future.

Keywords: Turkey-Armenia relations; genocide; conflict; Nagorno-Karabakh.

Introduction

Turkey and Armenia more than a decade and a half hadn't had normal diplomatic ties and borders between these two countries remain closed. However in 2008 president of Turkey Republic Abdullah Gül received the invitation of Armenian president and went to Yerevan to watch football match between Armenia and Turkey. After this event, which was popularly called football diplomacy, leaders of Armenia and Turkey started secret negotiations in Switzerland with US, Russia and EU participating as mediators. This led to signing of Zurich protocols by which Turkey and Armenia committed to establish diplomatic ties and normalise relations. In order to do so, both countries not only had to adjust their foreign policy but also solve a lot of domestic issues, related to historical grievances, negative public opinion towards normalization of relations, nationalistic approaches and wrong perceptions.

Furthermore, 1915 events (Armenia claims that Turks are responsible for genocide) are important factor which defines tense relations between Armenia and Turkey. As year 2015 will mark 100th anniversary of these events, the need to resolve issues related to genocide allegations and to base relationships not on hostility and suspicion but on cooperation and trust will be more significant. Therefore this study delivers a timely contribution to our understanding of complex relations between Armenia and Turkey which developments might be crucial for ensuring stability and peace in the Caucasus region. First of all, in order to have clear view of conflictual state between Armenia and Turkey, historical circumstances are being described. Then analysis of development of relations between Armenia and Turkey after 2008 is being made by finding out the impact of football diplomacy and Zurich protocols, the importance of Armenian diaspora and

Russia towards Turkey-Armenia relations and identifying current trends between Turkey and Armenia.

Historical circumstances of conflict between Armenia and Turkey

Turkey and Armenia are neighbouring countries differing by its size, religion and culture, but what they have in common is shared history [1]. Majority part of Armenians lived under rule of different Turks governments up till 20 century. During the Ottoman rule the situation of Armenians did not differ from other ethnic minorities. Discords between Armenia and Turkey started during the First World War years when collapsing Ottoman Empire sought to suppress Armenian uprising in the territory of Eastern Turkey. It did so by forcibly deporting large part of Armenian population and that resulted in high numbers of victims. After Armenia reclaimed its independency in 1991, the events of 1915 no longer remain the case just between Turkey and Armenia but spread to international arena because Armenia started to seek genocide recognition in parliaments of various countries. Hence question of genocide recognition remains very sensitive subject and one of the most important obstacles to Armenia's rapprochement with Turkey. This question is highly related with ethnical, religious, cultural identity and historical memory, thus it encourages mutual mistrust and hostile political perceptions [2]. Nagorno-Karabakh Conflict is another important issue in which Turkey and Armenia are not able to reach a consensus. In the 90s between Armenia and Azerbaijan rose armed conflict and it ended with Armenia occupying 20 percent territories of Azerbaijan. This conflict was even examined in UN Security Council and it decided that Armenia should withdraw from occupied territories. However Armenia did not abide the resolution. As Turkey has close ethnical ties with Azerbaijan and is interested in its energy resources, it highly supports Azerbaijan in this conflict. Turkey closed its borders to Armenia during this Nagorno-Karabakh war and has not opened it till now. Many times highest Turkey's politicians have mentioned that it is impossible to normalise relations between Armenia and Turkey until Armenia get back occupied territories to Azerbaijan. Not less important circumstance of conflictual relations between Turkey and Armenia is the hesitation of Armenia to recognize its western borders with Turkey. In 1920 Armenia and Turkey signed treaty of Aleksandropol and in 1921 treaty of Kars. By these treaties Armenia acknowledged Turkey's territorial integrity. However, after collapse of Soviet Union Armenia hesitate to confirm these treaties and therefore has not officially recognised its borders with Turkey. Also article 11 of Armenian declaration of Independence states that "The Republic of Armenia stands in support of the task of achieving international recognition of the 1915 Genocide in Ottoman Turkey and Western Armenia" [3]. The fact that lands of Eastern Anatolia is called Western Armenia raises particular ambiguities and raises doubts whether Armenia does not have certain territorial ambitions. Turkey many times has announced that the recognition of its eastern borders by Armenia is the precondition to normalise relations.

Despite these harsh historical circumstances both countries showed particular level of political will which started with football diplomacy and led to signing of Zurich protocols.

Football diplomacy and Zurich protocols

Till year 2008 Armenia and Turkey had not had any relations in the official level. Breakthrough started with so called football diplomacy when newly elected Armenian president Serzh Sargasyan invited Turkey's president Abdullah Gül to watch football match between national teams of Turkey and Armenia. This was the first time than modern Turkey's president visited Armenia. Armenian nationalist held demonstrations, by which they required their president to stand firmly and do not give up genocide allegations. However, we can understand that Armenia was ready for dialogue and to do some concessions through symbolic means. Armenian Football federation removed the image of Mountain Ararat (which belongs to Turkey) from its logo. In his turn, Armenian president visited Turkey after one year during second match between Turkey and Armenia. Therefore football diplomacy helped to break stagnation in Armenia-Turkey relations and to stride first steps towards normalization of relations.

Football diplomacy provided base for negotiations between Armenia and Turkey in non-official level with US, EU and Russia participating as mediators. This led to signing "Protocol on Establishment of Diplomatic Relations" and "Protocol on Development of Relations" by Ministers of foreign affairs of Armenia and Turkey in Zurich. These protocols envisaged to exchange

ambassadors in order to improve diplomatic relations and to re-open the borders. However, Turkey and Armenia have to abandon their precautions. Turkey should not use Nagorno-Karabakh as a precondition and Armenia will not insist on recognizing of genocide allegations by Turkey. Armenians have different opinion towards Zurich protocols. Some Armenians welcomed it because of economic opportunities but others and diaspora were greatly against it because they thought that protocols did not fully address the issue of genocide. When time came for Armenian parliament to ratify the protocols, Armenian president declared that he suspends the recognition of Zurich protocols. This happened because Turkey itself had not ratified the protocols and did not submit to normalize relations without any precondition. Turkey was reluctant to ratify protocols because of Azerbaijan's pressure. Thus Turkey related ratification of protocols with Nagorno-Karabakh issue, which means that until Armenia does not reach agreement with Azerbaijan, Zurich protocols will not be ratified. Despite the fact that countries agreed to normalize relations without any preconditions, Turkey let Armenia to understand that it will not normalize relations until Armenia solve Nagorno-Karabakh issue, give up genocide allegations and recognize eastern border of Turkey.

So football diplomacy and Zurich protocols were important starting points towards normalization of relations but as later events showed, it was naive to think that these would be enough to sustain normal diplomatic relations. Armenian diaspora has a big impact towards Armenia Turkey relations therefore it is worth to analyze its activities.

Armenian diaspora

Armenian diaspora is very influential not only in formatting foreign policy of Armenia but also in parliaments of third countries. It is worth to mention that population of Armenian diaspora is bigger than Armenians living in Armenia. A lot of Armenians are living in US, Russia and France. These countries are important actors in international arena. Big part of Armenian diaspora has citizenship of other countries and right to vote. So it is natural that diaspora has influence towards decisions makers. This is particularly seen in countries like US and France, where Armenian lobbies are increasingly active. Despite the fact, that majority of diaspora is long living outside Armenia, it has not lost its national identity and is resistant to assimilation. Big part of Armenian identity is the notion that they suffered from Turks [4]. Having in mind that Armenian diaspora has been seeking genocide recognition, it was not smart to think that after signing Zurich protocols it would agree to give up genocide allegations. This is because issue of genocide is integral part of Armenian diaspora. Armenian diaspora is the main actor which maintenance genocide allegations and escalate this theme. If for Armenians living in Armenia rapprochement with Turkey would be beneficial in economical and political terms, conversely Armenian diaspora would loose the main factor of its legitimacy [5]. That's why it is against Armenia's rapprochement with Turkey and establishment of diplomatic ties.

Year 2015 will mark 100th anniversary of 1915 events. It is no doubt that Armenian diaspora will use this anniversary and will become more active in order to promote genocide recognition in international arena. Lately Armenian diaspora more often release statements in which it is calling the Armenians and the diaspora to unite and to create a strong political front to promote Genocide recognition and reparation [6]. Therefore, the activities of Armenian diaspora are highly adverse to Turkey and make aggravate bilateral relations. As 100th anniversary of 1915 events is forthcoming there are high chances that increasing activities of Armenian diaspora in seeking genocide recognition will hinder the development of relations between Turkey and Armenia or even make them worse. The influence towards the relations of these two countries also has Russia, which is an important player in South Caucasus region.

Impact of Russia towards Turkey-Armenia relations

Because of its geopolitical isolation, Armenia is forced to cherish close relations with Russia. It seemed that during war between Georgia and Russia, Armenia seriously considered option to integrate towards western economical and security structures but finally it remained in Russia's influence sphere. In 2010 countries signed Russian-Armenian defence agreement by which Armenia allowed Russian army to stay in a country till 2044. This not only increased Russia's ability to manoeuvre in the region but also raises the speeches that Turkey and Armenia are not able to solve their problems without Russia. Armenia also decided that instead of participating in

EU eastern partnership it will take a part in Customs Union led by Russia. Russia is also particular protector which allows Armenia to maintain 20 percent of territories occupied from Azerbaijan. Turkey and Azerbaijan, which are stronger states by military means than Armenia, are deterred from military action due to possible interference of Russia.

Russia wants to remain important player in South Caucasus region. Russia-Georgia war showed that Russia will no longer remain passive observer but will be ready to protect its interest and to compete for influence in the region with Turkey and US. The fact that Russia agreed towards Armenia's rapprochement with Turkey was tactical step, seeking to raise tensions in Turkey's relations with Azerbaijan. But in the long term good relations between Armenia and Turkey are not beneficial for Russia because in that case Russia's influence towards Armenia and South Caucasus region by economical and military means would decrease. Understanding this, Russia will try to keep Armenia in its influence zone and will be against closer Armenia's relations with Turkey and Azerbaijan.

Current trends

Despite some positive shifts which happened after 2008, in essence Armenian-Turkey relations have not changed. Turkey still has not re-opened its borders to Armenia, Nagorno-Karabakh conflict has not been solved, countries have not exchanged its ambassadors and Armenia has not give up genocide allegations. Furthermore from the latest actions of these countries it is hard to see any signs that situation can improve tangibly. Conversely, as 100th anniversary of 1915 is forthcoming increasing activities of Armenian diaspora and Armenia's officials will only provoke negative reaction from Turkey.

That Armenian diaspora raises territorial pretensions and questions of reparations, is not a surprise for Turkey. But lately similar rhetoric is being heard from highest officials of Armenia. Despite that Serzh Sargsyan looked positive in improving Armenia's relations with Turkey, his particular statements raises doubts about that. For instance in one meeting with students, one student asked him, would ever Armenia get back its West territory and Mount Ararat. Sarkisyan answered that it depends from young generation because his generation did its job by taking back Karabakh [7]. In 2013 Armenia's Prosecutor General Aghvan Hovsepyan made a statement in which he urged lost Armenian territories to be returned and material compensation for victims of genocide [8]. If president statement happened in non-official environment, these allegations by prosecutor general were first territorial claim to Turkey, expressed in official level. So it is understandable that Ministry of Foreign Affair of Turkey released the statement condemning the allegations. So as we can see from the rhetoric of officials, relations between Turkey and Armenia remain tense. It is also hard to expect the improvement of normalization process in nearest future. In following two years there will be elections of all levels in Turkey. It is likely that in order to save votes from nationalistic supporters Turkey will not give up its preconditions to normalization process [9]. Furthermore as 100th anniversary of 1915 events is forthcoming the pressure from Armenian diaspora and nationalists to government of Armenia not to do any concessions will only increase. In this context it is hard to identify the possibilities of rapprochement between Armenia and Turkey in a nearest future.

Conclusions

There were wide range of historical issues which disturbed peaceful coexistence between Armenia and Turkey. The issue of genocide without any doubts is the main subject of controversy between Armenia and Turkey. Conflict of Nagorno-Karabach and with it related Turkey's closed borders to Armenia only increased tense relations between these countries. And because of Azerbaijan pressure it is very hard for Turkey to make constructive decisions. Armenia's hesitation to acknowledge Eastern borders of Turkey, only makes Turkey more suspicious about Armenian territorial claims.

Despite particular rapprochement in 2008 Armenia and Turkey failed to solve the conflict and normalize its relations. The obligations set in Zurich protocols were not fulfilled. It is also unlikely that Armenia and Turkey can do it in the near future As 2015 will mark 100th year anniversary of 1915 events, there are high chances that Armenian diaspora will mobilize and will seek genocide recognition in international level more actively. Meantime Russia wants to keep Armenia in its influence zone, so it will be against Armenia's rapprochement with Turkey and

Azerbaijan. Also in the following two years there will be an elections of all levels in Turkey, so politicians in order not to loose votes from nationalistic supporters will be reluctant to come closer with Armenia It is likely that that tensions between Armenia and Turkey will rise and will add to instability and fragile peace in the Caucasus region.

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Media Education in Russia: Past and Present

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Abstract.

Within the framework of conferences the reports directly concerning questions of media education, problems of the organization of multimedia databases, electronic libraries, and mediateques in libraries for children and youth were heard. Important objective for Russian media educators is to open (get it registered by the Russian Ministry of Education and Sciences) a new university major speciality (major) “Media Education” within the framework of which it will be possible to prepare professional media educators for universities and schools. Within the context of increasing interest to media education worldwide, the UNESCO program’s support, recent developments such as the introduction of a pre-service teacher training, and the systematic publication of a journal, media education has good prospects in Russia.

Keywords: Russia; media education literacy; media culture; media competence.

Introduction.

One can say that the hearth of film education in Russia was lit in 1919 when a film school was opened in Moscow. Important constituents of general media education in this country in the 1920’s were film clubs and clubs of young journalists, amateur film/photo studios. In 1925 the Soviet Cinema’s Friends Society (SCFS) was organized. A lot of well-known Russian directors like Sergei Eisenstein, Vsevolod Pudovkin, Dziga Vertov and others were in the Central Council of this society. There were about 50 SCFS’ amateur studios in Moscow that had film cameras and – 93 in St.Petersburg [Ilyichev, Naschekin, 1986, p.7]. Similar clubs where films were shown, discussed and made; lectures, exhibitions were held, worked in Astrakhan, Vologda, Rostov-on-Don, Voronezh, Tomsk, Omsk, Novosibirsk and other cities. Due to the initiative of the Central Council of SCFS in Moscow the special educational course for club leaders from different cities were taught. Zarkhi, Romm, Pudovkin and other Russian filmmakers were teaching there. Teaching manuals were published. The first All-Russian Conference of SCFS was held in 1928 with delegates from 60 cities. For several years SCFS published its newspaper “Cinema”. In 1930 this society included 110 thousand members. The SCFS’ statutes distinguished the following objectives: to study the mass audience and to teach by the means of cinema.

Simultaneously media education of pupils and students through press was developing. “The government supported this process, pursuing two main goals: the spread of the communist ideology and the liquidation of illiteracy of population (almost half of the country’s population couldn’t even read). These two goals were closely connected with each other. The role of media in a Soviet society was increasing rapidly. Dozens of newspapers and magazines published by different

schoolchildren' – and youth unions appeared. Kids-journalists often joined the clubs where professional journalists taught them to prepare articles for newspapers and magazines" [Sharikov, 1990, p.29-30]. Schools in almost all cities of Russia issued some kind of press or school papers in the 1920's.

However many of the creative attempts in Russian media education were abolished by the Stalin regime in 1934, when SCFS was closed. From the late Thirties till early Fifties on the whole only those film activities were allowed, which served aims of propaganda. However, in spite of the strict censorship, the debate clubs of SCFS developed in this way or another not only the creativity of children but also the critical thinking of the audience. Therefore they could provoke (undesirable for the regime) thoughts about life in the country and its social structure. Also cameras of some non-professional SCFS members could shoot something not very appropriate, not sanctioned by the authorities...

Media Education in Russia: Second Birth

It was not until late 1950s – early 1960s that media education was given a second birth in Russian schools and universities. The amount of institutions where courses of film education were taught was growing (Moscow, Petersburg, Voronezh, Rostov, Samara, Kurgan, Taganrog, etc.).

Beginning from 1957 film clubs began to appear again, uniting thousands of the "The Tenth Muse" lovers of different ages. In 1967 the first big seminar of film clubs' leaders from 36 cities took place in Moscow. A statute of many clubs included not only the watching and discussion of films, but studying the history of cinema, works of outstanding masters, sociological research, etc. [Lebedev, 1969, p. 52-54].

By 1967 there were about 4 thousand small amateur film studios and circles [Ilyichev, Naschekin, 1986, p.38]. Some of them became sort of media education centres. For example, they did sociological research about the role of movies in people's life, studied the history of cinema, organized film shows and discussions of films, exhibitions, made documentary, feature and animated amateur films and so on. The movement of school journalists and photographers was also given a new start.

The social and cultural situation in Russia at that time provided grounds for a great interest in cinema among school children and teachers. Video and PCs were only dreamt of in science fiction novels. Films were seldom shown on TV, (in fact there was only 1, later 2 TV channels). Therefore cinemas were crowded (statistics showed that in average, a person went to the cinema about 18 times a year), and school children went to the movies much more often than adults. For many Russians the screen was the only window into the world, cut through the still thick "iron curtain". Thanks to the production of 8- and 16-mm cameras the amateur film studios movement developed very actively until the early 1980's. Instructors or teachers of such clubs were taught at the Moscow Institute of Culture, some Pedagogical Institutes and Universities. The number of clubs and studios grew from 5 thousand (1974) to 11 thousand (1983), and the number of members of these youth groups grew from 60.000 to 120-130 thousand people [Ilyichev, Naschekin, 1986, p.53-60]. In the second half of the 1980s many of these clubs began to use videotapes for making films, that was, no doubt, easier and cheaper.

"Curricula for the basics of cinema art for schools and pedagogical institutes were written in the 60s-70s. These programs were significantly different from many programs of other subjects: their authors avoided strict regulation, dogmatic approach (...). It was emphasized in these curricula that communication with art should be enjoyable. One more important peculiarity of the programs on cinema art was that the task was not to prepare specialists in a small field, because the country did not need 50 million film critics. The objective of cinema pedagogy was to widen the spiritual, cultural world of school children, to develop their personality" [Waisfeld, 1993, p.4-5]. I agree here with I.Waisfeld who said that "classes of media teachers can be described as a dialogue. An old "teacher-centered" scheme, where a teacher is a source of knowledge and a pupil is its receiver, is broken. Both pupils and teachers get a bigger field for creativity, improvisation, for game activities. A game is treated as kind of a reality model. It helps to grasp the inner dynamics of a film, its deep roots" [Waisfeld, p.5].

However, some Russian teachers of media education still practiced outdated pedagogical approaches. For instance, A.Bernstein believed that "teaching with film is impossible without constant control of what a pupil sees on TV and in cinema theatres every day" [Bernstein, 1971,

p.7]. Here, I think, one can clearly see the similarity with viewpoints of many American media teachers (especially in the 1940s – 1970s) who also considered that the main goal of media education was a strict control, “information defense”, “inoculative approach”, aimed against the harmful impact of press, screen, etc.

In early 1980s there was a big experiment of introducing film education into the primary and middle school curriculum in some Moscow schools. Similar experiments on media education (on the press, cinema and TV materials) were conducted in summer children centres like “Ocean” and “Orlyonok”. As for the universities, lectures and practical classes for the teachers-to-be were held. Some Institutes of Teachers’ Professional Development (in Moscow, Kurgan, Tver) have also made a contribution to media education. Seminars and workshops on teaching cinema were conducted. Some universities integrated media education into courses of the aesthetic education.

Media education in Russia is not a required subject (with the exception of some secondary schools used as an experimental field and media orientated universities and faculties). Thus there is no national curriculum for media education, no standards or guidelines. Many Russian teachers still confuse media education with using media as a technical aid. Media language is seldom a topic in its own right. Only few school principals encourage the integration of media education, or support teachers’ initiative. Media education can be integrated across the curriculum into Informatics (Internet & computer application lessons), Language and Literature, Arts, or Science. Another variant is an optional autonomous media education course.

For example, Film Studies courses have been taught in Voronezh Pedagogical Institute since 1970. Then similar courses appeared in Voronezh University and Institute of Arts, and several schools. Since 1965 the film club has been working in Voronezh. Some other Russian cities and towns (Moscow, Petersburg, Kurgan, Tver, Rostov, Samara, Taganrog, etc.) have a similar structure of media education centres. As a rule, it is a net of courses on media education in universities, teachers’ training colleges, institutes, school elective subjects, film clubs in schools and community centers.

In 1967 the Council for Film Education in schools and higher educational institutes was established by the Union of Filmmakers (Moscow). It was headed first by a film critic N. Lebedev and then by Professor I. Waisfeld. He was the first Russian media educator who delivered a report on problems of media education at UNESCO conference in Rome in 1966. Some other Russian media/film educators who began their work in schools, colleges and clubs in the Sixties are: Ury Usov, Inna Levshina, Zinaida Smelkova (Moscow), Nina Gornitskaya (Petersburg), Stal Penzin (Voronezh), Uly Rabinovich (Kurgan), Oleg Baranov (Tver), Evdokiya Gorbulina (Armavir), Elvira Gorukhina (Novosibirsk) and others.

From the very start the Council tried to consolidate the efforts of media teachers-enthusiasts from different Russian cities (Moscow, Petersburg, Voronezh, Kurgan, Samara, Novosibirsk, Rostov, Taganrog, etc.). It collaborated with the Ministry of Education, Pedagogic Academy and State Committee of Cinema specifically in publishing teaching plans, curriculums, sponsored seminars, workshops and conferences. Starting from the second half of the 1960’s such conference were held in Moscow, Tallinn, Alma-Ata, Erevan, Tbilisi, Petersburg, Kiev, Kurgan, Bolshevo.

At all the stages of the media education development in Russia there were its opponents too. They were afraid that fast and awkward accomplishment of the ideas of school film education can destroy the direct contact between the screen and young audience by its importunate interference. Thus, after special training newly educated “film literate” audience would critically evaluate, not simply enjoy a film. But in order to enjoy cinema one should watch films freely, without any bias. One cannot turn a visit to a cinema theatre into the obligatory school subject. It is not right to “freeze” love of the youth for the cinema [Rybak, 1980, p.4].

However, despite of all the difficulties, the 1980s in Russia were marked by “the process of “deepening” of media education researches; transition from the description and summing up of the pedagogic experience to the revealing of psychological and/or sociological grounds of this phenomenon; the growth of the researchers’ interest to children creativeness through media. Researchers began to explore media effects on smaller children. In the 1980s their activity affected the elementary school too” [Sharikov, 1990, pp.38-39].

In the end of the 1980s the vigorous development of the video began to change the work of clubs and amateur children’s studios. VCRs and video cameras were used more and more often for making and showing films. School TV studios were emerging. In 1990 the Association of Young

Journalists was established. In 1998 the Council for Film Education was transformed into the Association for Film and Media Education. In the 1990s it joined the European Association for Audiovisual Media Education.

Today the number of members of Russian Association for Film & Media Education is about 300: primary & secondary level schoolteachers, high school, university, college, lyceum teachers & professors, leaders of film-clubs, journalists, etc. Russian Association for Film & Media Education includes also members of the Laboratories of Screen Arts and Media Education (Russian Academy of Education, Moscow). The main directions of Association's work are: integration of media literacy courses in school and universities; development of school and university curricular; teacher training programs; conferences and seminars; publications; research; maintaining web resources on media education.

At the same time, as it has already been mentioned, media education in Russia has come across numerous difficulties during the whole time of its existence (ideological, financial, technical, etc.). In the 1920s - 1980s the political and censorship control, and poor technical equipment of schools and higher educational institutions hindered media education movement. In the 1990s media teachers were granted freedom and independence for developing programs and their practical implementation. But they lacked financial and technical support. Many Russian schools and colleges in the 90s didn't have enough money for teachers' salary, not mentioning the audiovisual equipment. Moreover, still just the few universities were preparing future teachers for media education of pupils.

The drastic change in social and cultural situation in Russia effected serious alteration in media education's development. The remains of the "iron curtain" fell down. More and more Russian were getting the opportunity to travel abroad. Cinema stopped being the only window into the world. Films (including foreign films) were not a deficit anymore; you could watch them on TV on different channels. Media repertoire was satiated with American action movies. Information about film and music stars, new releases and premiers could be read in hundreds of newspaper, magazines and books. By the end of the nineties nearly every urban family owned a VCR. Computers, interactive games, Internet spread very rapidly. Thus, an uncomfortable question arised: could a school teacher, as a rule lagging behind his pupils as far as media consumption concerned, have authority in the sphere of media culture with his pupils?

But Russian media education was developing. International conferences on media education were held in Tashkent (1990), Valuevo (1992), Moscow (1992, 1995). The Screen Arts Laboratory at the Research Institute for Art Education of the Russian Academy of Education (this laboratory was headed by Professor Dr. Ury Usov until his death in April 2000) published books and teaching materials, programs on media and film education (by Prof.Dr.Ury Usov, Dr.Larissa Bazhenova, Dr.Elena Bondarenko, etc.).

Similar processes were going on in Russian film clubs in 1990s. After a long resistance by authorities (who looked at film clubs and media education movement as potentially dangerous encouragement of oppositional critical thinking) finally, in 1988 the Russian Federation of Film Clubs was officially established.

"Perestroika" years at first seemed as the golden age for film clubs. The foundation of the Federation promised an anticipated liberation from the censorship's dictatorship, an opportunity of the exchange with the best Russian and foreign films. In fact, the Film Clubs Federation began to collect its own film library, club enthusiasts were invited to regional and All-Russian seminars, conferences and festivals, famous actor and directors toured the country meeting their audience face-to-face. But the drastic growth of prices forced its rules. By the end of the 1990s even big Russian film clubs could not afford buying a new film copy from Moscow. Not to mention small film clubs in small provincial towns. Together with the film club movement the economic crisis hit amateur school film and video studios too. The vast majority of them closed down.

The publication of programs and study guides has always been an important component of media education. Moscow publishing houses ("Prosveschenie", "Pedagogica", "Detskaya Literatura", "Novaya Shkola", "Kino Center", "Iskusstvo") have published quite a monographs, programs dedicated to the issues of media education. Articles on film/media education were published in magazines "Iskusstvo Kino", "Pedagogica", "Specialist", "Ecran", etc.

One of the most active enthusiasts of literature on film education was Lev Rybak – a teacher, film critic, the chief editor of the "Kino Centre" publishing house. The author of several brilliant

cinemastes' biographies, Lev Rybak founded the book series "Cinema & School". There he published four of his books, written in an entertaining way, using the language, comprehensible both for teachers and high school students. Three of these books tackled the problem of screening Russian classical and modern literature. And in his book "Alone with a Film" L.Rybak wrote about the subjectivity of film perception. "Before I became a film critic, - Rybak wrote, - I had been a school teacher for more than 15 years. I went to the cinema with my pupils. And sometimes I was really hurt when a pupil of mine, after having seen a good film, said: "Rubbish!" evidently not considering the film to be a good one. I was mad: you can interpret a film in your own way, but try to comprehend it! Viewers' impressions of a film are always different, individual; there is no sense in trying to level them. But how can one make these impressions emerge at all and not be so poor?" [Rybak, 1980, p.6]. I must agree that this is still one of the key questions on the media education agenda though many media education researchers and teachers have tried to find an answer to it.

So, there was no scarcity of pedagogical literature. However no regular academic journal on media education has been issued till 2005. The journal of "Media Education" was set up by the Association for Film and Media Education, and Taganrog State Pedagogical Institute. The magazine offers a needed forum for the exchange of information about different forms and contents of media education, thus fostering essential coordination of efforts of Russian media educators.

As far as the research work is concerned, the Laboratory of Screen Arts at the Institute of Art Education of the Russian Academy of Education was in the lead for several decades. First doctor's theses on media education appeared in the 1960s. Researches by O.Baranov (1968), A.Karasik (1966), Y.Rabinovich & R.Rabinovich (1966) were dedicated to the problem of film education of school pupils. And V.Saperov's thesis (1969) analyzed the problem of using radio broadcasting in education. In the 1970s many dissertations about teaching audiovisual literacy were defended (U.Usov, 1974; I.Levshina, 1974; S.Ivanova, 1978; Z.Malobitskaya, 1978; V.Monastyrsky, 1979). Later studies of media education for pupils included: producing and using audiovisual means in school (L.Pressman, 1981; V.Bulavko, 1982), filmmaking by school children (U.Bozhkov, 1984; P.Genkin, 1985), social & psychological aspects (Ch.Shakeeva, 1983; N.Kirillova, 1983), morals education of teenagers (Z.Smelkova, E.Zharinov, 1986), analysis of using foreign films in media education (A.Fedorov, 1986), inter-disciplinary ties of literature and film courses (G.Polichko, 1987), employment of cinema as a complex education of pupils (N.Gutova, 1987), aesthetic education and artistic development of school children (U.Usov, 1989; G.Evtushenko, 1991, E.Bondarenko, 1994).

Theses based on the school data made way for the research of media education in universities. The most important works on film education in Universities appeared in the 1980s-1990s (S.Odintsova, 1981; S.Penzin, 1987; A.Fedorov, 1993; L.Platunova, 1995). In 2000 the first Russian thesis analyzing the foreign experience, more specifically, the theory and history of media education in the U.S., was written (A.Novikova). In the 1990s the Laboratory of Technology and Media Education (Russian Academy of Education) headed by Professor L.Zaznobina worked out a concept of school media education, integrated into the basic curriculum.

From the 1990s onwards, Russian media education specialists (U.Usov, L.Bazhenova, A.Levitskaya, G.Polichko, A.Spitchkin, A.Sharikov, A.Fedorov and others) have joined the international media educators' community, participating in international conferences for media education (held in France, Canada, Austria, the UK, Brazil, Spain, Greece, Switzerland), publishing their works in French, American, English, Australian, and Norwegian journals.

By the year 2001 the number of secondary and higher educational Russian institutions training professionals in media, has quite grown. Besides VGIK (Russian State Institute of Cinematography), School for Script Writers and Film Directors, Russian Institute of Professional Development in the Field of Film, now there are St.Petersburg State University of Film and Television, Film-Video Colleges in Sergeev Posad and St. Petersburg, film/television colleges in Irkutsk, Sovetsk, and Rostov-on-Don. Professional media education is included into the curriculum of St. Petersburg State Academy of Culture, St.Petersburg Academy of Theatre Art, Institute of Professional Development of TV & Radio Specialists (Moscow), Independent School of Cinema and Television (Moscow), Grymov's School of Advertising, Institute of Modern Art (Moscow), New Humanities University of Natalia Nesterova (Moscow), several schools of animation, etc.

First works summarizing general problems of media education, appeared in 1990s

(A.Sharikov, A.Fedorov, L.Zaznobina). In February 2000 (A.Fedorov and others) the first in Russia bilingual (Russian-English) Internet site <http://www.medialiteracy.boom.ru> (and after - <http://www.eduof.ru/mediaeducation>) on media education was created. More than 20000 people visited the site during the first 10 years of its existence.

The same year staff of the Laboratory headed by L.Zaznobina in the Russian Academy of Education opened one more Russian web site on media education.

The important event in media education development in Russia was the registration of the new specialization (minor) for pedagogical universities – ‘Media Education’ (N 03.13.30) in 2002. Since 2002 this specialization includes in education process in Taganrog State Pedagogical Institute (head of this media educational project is professor A.Fedorov, media educators: I.Chelysheva, E.Murukina, N.Ryzhykh, V.Kolesnichenko, D.Grigorova and others).

The media educators team (head is Alexander Fedorov) from Taganrog State Pedagogical Institute since 1994 published about 30 monographs (Fedorov, 2001; 2005; 2007 and others), textbooks and more than 400 articles about media education and media literacy. This team also received the research grants (media education topics) from many Russian and foreign foundation (foundation of President of the Russian Federation, Russian Foundation for Humanities, Foundation of Russian Ministry of Education, Kennan Institute (US), IREX (US), MacArthur Foundation (US), Open Society Institute (Soros Foundation, US), DAAD (Germany), Fulbright Foundation (US) and other).

In 2004 UNESCO and South Urals Media Education Center conducted the interregional round-table discussion “Media Education: Problems and Prospects” in Chelyabinsk. The participants discussed the concept and notions of media education and educational standards in this area and mapped out the ways of concerted efforts to be made by national and regional mass media in the coverage of media education problems. According to the participants, media education is a way of shaping national information and education policies and promoting information literacy, media culture of personality, and civil society. Media education problems were considered in the reports. Media education was proclaimed as one of ways of the development of a national information and educational policy, social integration, and media literacy.

The final document of the “round table” included suggestions to introduce a major specialty *Media education* with a qualification *Media educator* for universities of Russia; to develop the plan of effective realization of Media Education in various regions of the Russian Federation; to create a databank about forms and methods of media education activities with the purpose of the analysis and generalization of experience; to publish “Encyclopedia of Media and Media Education”; to support the regular release of a journal *Media Education*.

Media Education in Russia: Modern Times

In the begin of XXI century Media Education Centers or projects (including media education/literacy conferences) were created in Belgorod (A.Korochensky and others), Byisk (V.Vozchikov and others), Chelyabinsk (I.Fateeva, A.Minbaleev and others), Ekaterinbourg (N.Kirillova and others), Irkutsk (L.Ivanova and others), Krasnodar (T.Shak and others), Omsk (N.Hilko and others), Perm (P.Pechenkin and others), Samara (A.Sharikov and others), Tomsk (I.Zhilavskaya and others), Toliatti and others Russian cities.

Many projects are realized due to my colleagues from the Russian Academy of Education. A network of school mediathekas (libraries containing books, journals, audio and video cassettes, CDs, DVDs, etc.) has been created in recent years, and a number of most interesting creative network projects for schoolchildren have been launched—these directions are guided by Y. Yastrebseva. Her colleagues, L. Bazhenova and Y. Bondarenko, aim their efforts at promoting media educational work in Moscow schools. During the lessons, play activities are often used (especially with younger children), students perform creative tasks (making a short video film, a photo collage, etc.), and have collective discussions of media texts. Similar work is going on in schools and universities of other Russian cities – Tver, Voronezh, Samara, Perm, Chelyabinsk, Rostov, Taganrog, Tambov, Krasnodar, Yekaterinburg, Volgodonsk...

For example, the recognizable symbol of media education in Voronezh is the Student Film and Video Club, where participants come to discuss especially significant or problem films – the club is led by S. Penzin, an art critic and assistant professor of the Voronezh State University. Professor G. Polichko from the State University of Management is the initiator of annual media

educational festivals for schoolchildren – with master classes, talks given by well-known figures of media culture, and collective discussions... Such festivals have taken place for about 10 years in different Russian cities.

In 2005, the Center for Media Education in the city of Togliatti organized a *Virtual Tour of the Media Land*, an Internet game for schoolchildren (http://mec.tgl.ru/modules/Subjects/pages/igra/priilog_1.doc). The participants form teams, visit some Russian media educational websites, study their content, answer questions, accomplish creative tasks, and create presentations. To find out more about the methods used in particular media educational classes your readers may visit the “Biblioteka” (*Library*) section of the Russian Association for Film and Media Education website.

The Taganrog State Pedagogical Institute was the site of the first All-Russia Research School for Youth, “Media Education and Media Competence” (October 18-25, 2009). The school was carried out with financial support from the Federal Agency for Science and Innovation within the framework of the federal programme “Scientific and scientific-pedagogical cadres innovation Russia for 2009-2013” (the head of the school was Prof. Dr. Alexander Fedorov, President of the Russian Association for Media Education and Chief Editor of the journal “Media Education”).

Sixty young scientists from Belgorod, Borisoglebsk, Irkutsk, Krasnoyarsk, Moscow, St. Petersburg, Vladikavkaz and other Russian cities participated. Young scientists from Kiev (Ukraine) and Minsk (Belarus) arrived as guests.

Russia’s leading experts in the field of professional and mass media education attended the opening ceremony and the roundtable discussion.

The purpose of the school was, firstly, to effectively educate young researchers and teachers in the best scientific and methodological advances in the field of media education, and secondly, to organize a creative dialogue on issues of media education and media competence. A third purpose was to create an integrative communicative space for young scientists through increased interpersonal contacts as well as to intensify the exchange of scientific expertise and information between young scientists.

Because applications to the school were on a competitive basis, priority was given to young researchers, teachers and graduate students under the age of 35 years, whose scientific achievements and interests were as close as possible to the themes of the school. The organizing committee selected the articles, which were then posted on the official website (<http://eduof.ru/mediacompetence>).

During “Media Education and Media Competence”, the following occurred:

- The young researchers and teachers effectively utilized modern media education theory and methodology that account for the age of the audience, and especially the use of all types of media (mass communication), technology, critical analysis of media texts of different types and genres;

- The youth audience (scientists and teachers up to 35 years of age) studied the theoretical foundations of “Media Education and Media Competence”, the basic theory of media education and the basic theoretical approaches to the critical analysis of media texts in the learning process (scientific impact);

- In the process of conducting the Research School (lectures, seminars, practical work and creative assignments), the young scientists and specialists were able to master modern methods of media education (a methodological effect). An important feature of the Research School was the combination of the expert community (distinguished scholars in the field) sharing scientific experiments with the young scientists and the possibility for mutual discussion of reports by the young scientists, including testing and questioning.

The fields of application of the results can include all areas of media education, media competence, and media literacy – in higher and at secondary schools and institutions of further education. Possible users of the scientific and methodical results are teachers, graduate students and university students, academic researchers in the field of media and media education, school teachers and libraries – in sum, a wide audience interested in themes of media education. Proposals from the Research School for methodological approaches to media education are being introduced in the educational process of higher professional education at the Taganrog State Pedagogical Institute (03.13.30, specialization “Media Education”).

Due to the principled possibility of wider use of its results, the practical significance of the All-Russia Research School for Youth, “Media Education and Media Competence” and the

conclusions of scholars, graduate students, students and teachers in the teaching process (lectures, seminars and executions of courses, degrees and dissertations) can be useful to any modern university.

Conclusions.

Within the framework of conferences the reports directly concerning questions of media education, problems of the organization of multimedia databases, electronic libraries, and mediateques in libraries for children and youth were heard. Important objective for Russian media educators is to open (get it registered by the Russian Ministry of Education and Sciences) a new university major speciality (major) "Media Education" within the framework of which it will be possible to prepare professional media educators for universities and schools.

Within the context of increasing interest to media education worldwide, the UNESCO program's support, recent developments such as the introduction of a pre-service teacher training, and the systematic publication of a journal, media education has good prospects in Russia.

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Media Education Literacy in the World: Trends

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Abstract.

Taking into account the fact that UNESCO defines media education literacy as the priority field of the cultural educational development in the XXI century, media literacy has good prospects in Russia. We can also see the fast progress of media education in other Eastern European countries. For example, Hungary, Slovakia and Czech Republic (since the beginning of the XXI century) became the first European country to introduce obligatory media education courses in secondary schools. Summing up, at the beginning of the XXI century media education in the leading world countries has reached the mass scale, supported by the serious theoretical and methodological research. However media education is still not equally spread in all of the European, African and Asian countries.

Keywords: media education literacy, media culture, media competence.

Introduction

The Genesis (1920s-1940s)

The first leader of European media education movement was no doubt, the motherland of the film art - **France**. In the early 1920s in Paris the cinema club movement emerged, with the distinct media education aims. As early as in 1922 the first national conference of the regional departments of film education (*Offices regionaux du cinema educateur*) was held in France. At one of the congresses on education it was suggested to prepare the cinema educators in universities (Martineau, 1988: 28). At the same time a lot of educational institutions were actively promoting the movement of young journalists. Thanks to C.Freinet's good graces school, lyceum and university newspapers were published [Freinet, 1927].

In 1936 the French League of Education initiated the creation of the movement for "Cinema and Youth" (*Cine-Jeunes*), which united children, participating in film discussions, developing their critical thinking and artistic taste, creative skills [Chevallier, 1980, p. 9].

Nazi occupation interrupted the intensive development of media education in France; however, after 1945 it got another impulse. The Federation of cinema clubs of France was formed (*Federation francaise des cine-clubs*). On the whole, the "practical", "aesthetical" and "protectionist" theories of media education dominated in France at that time.

The history of media education in **Great Britain** is also a few decades old. Similar to many other countries, this movement began from film education, and then embraced a wider spectrum (press, radio, television, video, advertisement, Internet).

There are several organizations in the UK that deal with various problems of media education. The British Film Institute (BFI), founded by the government in 1933 stands out among them. The educational department has conducted conferences and seminars, workshops for

teachers, accomplished amplitudinous research, published books, textbooks, and teaching manuals for many years.

In the 1930s British media education (although this term was not used at the time, here it denotes integration of mass media in education) was developing mainly according the inoculative paradigm, aimed at opposing harmful media influences.

The history of **Russian** Media Education goes back to the 1920s. The first attempts to instruct in media education (on the press and film materials, with the vigorous emphasis on the communist ideology) appeared in the 1920s but were stopped by Stalin's repressions. The end of the 1950s - the beginning of the 1960s was the time of the revival of media education in secondary schools, universities, after-school children centers (Moscow, Petersburg, Voronezh, Samara, Kurgan, Tver, Rostov, Taganrog, Novosibirsk, Ekaterinburg, etc.), the revival of media education seminars and conferences for the teachers.

Dominance of the “aesthetic concept” in the 1950s-1960s

France maintained its status of a leader in the world media education process of that period. Since 1952 the courses of audiovisual education for teachers have been taught. Due to the rapid development of radio and television the French Union of the Regional Film Education Departments (*Union française des offices du cinéma éducateur laïque – U.F.O.C.E.L.*) was renamed into the French Union of Audiovisual Education in 1953 (*Union française des œuvres laïques d'éducation par image et par le son – U.F.O.I.E.I.S.*). In 1966 the Association “Press-Information-Youth” (*Association Press – Information – Jeunesse*) was founded.

In 1963 the ideas of aesthetical theory of media education were reflected in the documents of the Ministry of Education of France. Teachers were encouraged (including the money reward) to educate their students in cinema literacy (study of the history, language, genres of the film art, technology of the film shooting, appreciation of the aesthetical quality of a film). One of the founders of media education – C.Freinet joined the discussion and emphasized that cinema and photography are not only the entertainment and teaching aid, not only the art, but the new form of thinking and self-expression [Freinet, 1963, p.12]. He believed that schoolchildren must be taught the language of audiovisual media [Freinet, 1963, p.4] the similar way they are practically taught basics of art. According to him, a person who himself can draw can appreciate the work of art of a painter better than a person who can't paint [Freinet, 1963, p.13].

Since the beginning of the 1960s the school and university audiovisual education (courses on film education were taught in 23 universities) was developing under the influence of the breakthrough of European “author's cinema”, especially the French “new wave” (*nouvelle vague*). In the cineclubs of the 1960s left-wing radical ideas enjoyed popularity, that led to the numerous conflicts with the authorities.

And though courses on film art and journalism were taught in almost all French universities, media education in schools has been optional for a long time. One of the first attempts to introduce media studies into the school curriculum was undertaken in France in the middle of the 1960s.

In 1950 in **Britain** the concept of “screen education” was first formed, when school teachers founded the Society for Education in Film and Television (SEFT). The term “screen education” came into sight internationally in the beginning of the 1960s. Before that the term “film education” was wider spread, but with the development of television many started to believe that these two screen media should be united for the educational purposes [Moore, 1969, p.10]. Under the influence of the theory of “author's cinematography”, British media education of that time was connected with the study of media as popular culture through its best examples (popular arts paradigm). At the same time ideas of M.McLuhan had a certain impact on the development of media education in Britain. And though in 1964 only a dozen out of 235 colleges of education in England and Wales offered special courses on screen arts [Marcussen, 1964, p.73], media culture in this or that form was being studied in the majority of British universities.

The main problem was to find time in the school curriculum. Screen education was successfully taught autonomously in several English schools. But still British media educators considered that it would make more sense to integrate screen education into the language arts [Higgins, 1964, p.51].

The distinct orientation of the British educators of the 1960s onto the aesthetical theory of media education might be traced in the curriculum, developed by A.Hodgkinson, with the

following objectives: to increase the understanding and pleasure of school pupils they get from television and cinema; to promote learning about the human society and recognition of individual uniqueness; to provide the self defense from commercial and other exploitation; to encourage the self expression not only through the traditional forms (speech, writing, drawing, etc.) but through the language of the screen (making films) [Hodgkinson, 1964, p.26].

Mass media education on the American continent was in its rudimentary stage until the 1950s. **Canada** is the home country of the famous media theorist - Marshall McLuhan. And it was he who developed the first in the country special course on media culture in the 1950s. The history of Canadian media education commenced with the film studies courses. Film education became a common phenomenon in Canadian secondary schools [Andersen, Duncan and Pungente, 1999, p.140]. This movement was called Screen Education. In 1968 the first organization united Canadian media educators – Canadian Association for Screen Education: CASE, a year later it held the first big national conference in Toronto. Like their British colleagues, Canadian media educators of that period relied mainly upon the aesthetic (discriminatory) theory of media education [Moore, 1969, p.9; Stewart and Nuttall, 1969, p. 5].

Still in 1911 in the **USA**, when the National Council of Teachers of English was established, teachers discussed the topic of the educational value of films [Costanzo, 1992, p. 73]. Thus, media education in the USA has to some extent existed in the form of separate directions since the 1920s (film education, media education on the material of press and radio). For instance, professor E.Dale of Ohio University promoted media education through press in the late 1930s. However such training was offered essentially at the selected departments (journalism, film) of few universities and was not widely spread. Since 1958 the program *Newspaper in Classroom* was introduced in secondary schools, which was sponsored by press through the American Newspaper Publishers Association (ANPA). 95000 teachers from 34000 schools joined it, involving more than 5 million students [Sim, 1977, p.75].

While by the end of the 1940s only 5 American universities offered film electives, at the beginning of 1950s this number doubled. And by the mid 1960s courses on radio and television were taught in 200 colleges, and the number of such courses exceeded two thousands [Marcussen, 1964, p.74].

In the 1960s media education in the USA like in many other countries (France, Canada, the UK) was centered around film education. Specifically practical, “hands-on” film education became popular, that presupposed that schoolchildren and students guided and supervised by a teacher made short documentaries and future films on the 8mm film. This activity became possible due to the fact that comparatively inexpensive, compact amateur film cameras, corresponding film, and chemicals for its developing came on the market, followed by the rapid growth of the net of laboratories (including the school and university labs) for developing and printing films. At that time the first Association for Screen Education was organized. In 1969 Utah and Ohio universities supported the development of the series of materials for ‘critical viewing’ for integration in Oregon, Syracuse, NY, Nevada and Florida [Tyner, 1999]. Thus, film education became the first step for modern media education.

However in most cases screen education focused on media technology (e.g., students acquired skills to use video equipment) and not media culture. That is, they shot film sequences with the help of audiovisual devices, or media materials served in the classroom as an illustration for group discussions on burning social issues (for example, Vietnam war, civil rights movement, etc.). Still, even back then a lot of teachers dedicated their classes to the studies of the film language, aesthetics of a film.

Certainly, school media education was not obligatory in the USA. But teachers-enthusiasts tried to broaden the horizons of media preferences of their students, lead them out of the “vicious circle” of pop culture, and get them interested in *art house* production. They believed that thus the artistic perception of the audience might develop up to the degree of an adequate understanding of O.Wells’ and S.Kubrick’s media texts. This aesthetical approach, media as popular art in its localized choice of media spectrum had something in common with the so-called inoculative approach and civil defense approach, that had appeared in the 1930s, 1940s and was criticized by many researchers (L.Masterman, C.Worsnop and others).

The truth is, from the gamut of media, media educators were choosing exclusively **art** media texts hoping to teach the audience to appreciate “art” and disapprove “trash”. ‘Inoculative’

approach concentrated on the adverse influence of media texts, containing violence scenes and representation of other negative phenomena in society. Teachers wanted to protect their students from media's harmful impact on their moral values and behaviour.

The 1960s became 'the Golden Age' for the aesthetic approach to media education in the USA, however principally in the higher education domain. Many universities added film studies into their curricula, with contents based on the visual language, film history and works of outstanding directors. Such courses were as a rule analogues to the literature courses. But it was difficult to define the difference between a 'good' and a 'bad' film due to the ambiguity of concept of 'good aesthetic perception and taste' and a lack of criteria rubrics for the artistic value of a media text. Moreover, approaches of artistic media education, in fact, left out the information sphere of media – press, radio and TV-news. Advocates of the 'pure' art media education dispensed with such aspects as the production, distribution, regulation and consumption of media texts. But we should bear in mind, that in practice, a media educator may have integrated several directions of media education (for example, inoculative, ethics and art, - to develop the aesthetic perception and simultaneously discuss the issues of media education texts production and audience).

The first **Russian** Council for Film Education in School and Universities was created as the subdivision of the Russian Union of Filmmakers (Moscow) in 1967. As in most European countries and the USA, Russian media education of the 1960s was developing with the clear dominance of the aesthetical theory (although the Communist authorities undoubtedly tried to impose the ideological approach on them). The analysis of the artistic quality of films came up to the foreground of media classes at schools and universities. The study of media culture was to a large extent integrated with Literature courses.

From Press and Film – to Media (1970s – 1980s)

The development of media and ICT education at all its stages of existence was significantly promoted by UNESCO. In the mid 1970s UNESCO proclaimed not only its support of media and ICT education, but included media education in its list of priority directions for the next decades. The powerful theoretical impact on media education all over the world was executed by the studies of H.Lasswel and M.McLuhan. It was M.McLuhan who among the first supported the argument for importance of media literacy in the 'global village' [McLuhan, 1967, p.31-36], into which according to him, our planet would turn after the unbound distribution and mass consumption of a wide spectrum of media texts in all parts of the world.

In 1972 media education aspects were included into the program documents of the Ministry of Education in **France**. In 1975 the Institute of Training for Film Culture Development (*L'Institut de formation aux activités de la culture cinématographique – IFACC*) was established. It revived the process of media education in universities, now to a great extent, semiotics oriented. In 1976 media education was officially part of the national curriculum of secondary schools. Schools were recommended to spend up to 10% of the time on realization of this objective. In the Ministry's document of 1978 one can trace the synthesis of the aesthetic and practical concepts of media education [Chevallier, 1980, p.14].

Since 1979 media education (*education aux medias*) in France has been maintained by several French Ministries. For instance, until 1983 the Ministries of Education, Entertainment and Sports carried out the project 'An Active Young TV-viewer' (*Le Telespectateur actif*). It affected masses of population – parents, teachers, youth clubs supervisors, etc. At the same time, researchers on the television impact on adolescent audience were conducted. The organization that this project gave birth to was called APTE (*Audiovisuell pour tous dans l'éducation – Audiovisual Media in Education for All*).

An exemplary project in media education in France is the Week of Press in School that has been conducted annually since 1976. Significantly, the term 'press' is not limited to print media only, but includes also radio and TV (particularly, regional TV networks). The Week of Press is aimed at the cooperative work of students and professional journalists. As a rule, a method of 'learning by doing' is used, when students themselves must inquire into the ways media function (e.g. through the activities imitating the process of the creation of media texts of different genres and types). About 7000 French schools usually participate in the event.

In 1982 the famous French media educator and researcher J.Gonnet made a suggestion to the Ministry of Education of France to create the national media education centre, which could assist teachers of various educational institutions to integrate effectively mass media into the process of education. Together with P.Vandevoorde he distinguished the following aims of the center:

- to develop critical thinking by comparison of different sources of information and to contribute to educating more active and responsible citizens;
- to develop tolerance, ability to listen to the arguments of each other, understanding of the pluralism of ideas, their relativity;
- to integrate dynamic pedagogic innovations at educational institutions of all levels;
- to overcome the isolation of school from media, i.e. to establish tight connections with life realities;
- to take advantage of the specific forms of print and audiovisual culture in our society [CLEMI, 1996, p.12].

J.Gonnet's plan was not only approved, but also financially supported by the French Ministry of Education - in April, 1983 in Paris the Center of Contact Between Education and Media (*Centre de liaison de l'enseignement et des moyens d'information – CLEMI*) was open. Professor J.Gonnet was appointed its director. CLEMI has productively worked for more than 2 decades not only in Paris but almost in all French provinces and French-speaking overseas territories as well. Since the time of its establishment CLEMI has promoted the integration of media in teaching and learning, conducted regular courses for teachers, collected the archive of resources on media culture and media and ICT education.

In the 1970s - 1980s media education in the **UK** grew with the emergence of new film education courses for secondary schools and later media courses that were included into the list of examinations for 16-18-years-old pupils. Due to the development of semiotic theories in the 1970s media education headed towards the structuralist interpretation of media texts as sign systems (semiotic/representation paradigm). The publications '*Screen*' (and later '*Screen Education*') addressed the 'ideological' theory of media education and reflected debates of specialists in higher education on media integration.

The opportunity to use video equipment and the growing impact of television highlighted the work of the TV-materials in British model of media education. However up until the 1980s it was carried out in those schools only where there were genuinely engaged teachers-enthusiasts, willing that their pupils develop competence in mass media.

Further changes initiated by the BFI (British film Institute) happened in 1988-1989, when media education for the first time in history became a component of the National curriculum in England and Wales. Media studies were to be handled in the English Language subject (mainly at the age of 11-16), though could be seen as cross-curricula too (within Foreign language, history, Geography, Art, Sciences, and other subjects).

C.Bazalgette – the coordinator of media education work in BFI and one of the leading architects of media education policy of the UK during the last 20 years – thought that media education should be aimed at educating more active, critical, literate, demanding media consumers, who could contribute to the development of a wider range of media production [Bazalgette, 1989]. Besides, the integrated approach was recognized as the most effective way of media education development.

Across the ocean at that time media education was suffering privation. In the 1970s media educators in **Canada** were deprived of the state sponsorship and support. Despite that in April, 1978 the Association for Media Literacy (AML) was formed in Toronto, headed by Barry Duncan. By the way, today this organization numbers more than a thousand members.

However, since the 1980s, the situation has drastically changed. In 1986 owing to the mutual effort of the Association for Media Literacy and Ministry of Education of Ontario province, the fundamental text book on media education '*Media Literacy Resource Guide*' was published and soon translated into French, Spanish, Italian and Japanese. AML organized workshops for teachers, held conferences on a regular basis. Since 1987 media education has become an integral part of the secondary education in Ontario province, where one third of the 30-million population of Canada lives.

By the 1970s television surpassed cinema in the degree of influence on the audience. During these years the number of TV channels in the **U.S.** cities exceeded several dozens. In this connection the status of advertisement grew, commercials had a distinct impact on the market demand. American educators could not ignore these changes. In the 1970s film education was gradually transformed into media education (i.e. education about all existing mass media of the time; press, TV, cinema, radio.). By the middle of the 1970s nearly 35 per cent to 40 per cent of all secondary schools offered their students units or courses described as Media or Mass Communication [Sim, 1977, p.86], substantially, television-oriented. In the 1970s the movement for 'critical viewing' emerged in the USA, that combined political and research reasoning. The stimulus was a complex of social and cultural factors, connected with the more graphic, as, for example, in the 1950s – '60s, representation of violence on the American screens [Tyner, 1998].

During the 1980s media education in the USA continued to widen the sphere of its influence. One after another, pedagogic and research associations were set up in various states, with an agenda to integrate some aspects of media education and media culture in schools and universities. In the majority of universities media courses became a common phenomenon in the 1980s. However, media education did not gain the status of an academic compulsory subject in primary and secondary school. Certainly, the USA is a country embracing huge territories and populations, compared to Norway or Finland for instance. Still, the American researcher R.Kubey suggests that not only geographic and demographic factors hindered the development of media education [Kubey, 1998, p.59]. A certain obstacle in the way of consolidation of media educators' efforts was the American system of education on the whole, where each of the 50 states has its own policy in education and every educational institution – its own curriculum and programs. Moreover, unlike other English-speaking countries (for example, Canada or the UK), the leading media education communities in the USA are located outside the system of academic education. Besides, the pace of the media education development in the USA was slowed down by the relative cultural isolation of Americans from the rest of the world. It is known that Americans traditionally prefer watching, listening to or reading American media.

During the time when the intensive rethinking of media education approaches was on the upgrade in the Western hemisphere, in **Russia** of the 1970s–1980s media education was still developing within the aesthetic concept. Among the important achievements of these years one can recall the first official programs of film education, published by Ministry of Education, increasing interest of Ph.D. candidates to media education, experimental theoretic and practical work on media education by O.Baranov (Tver), S.Penzin (Voronezh), G.Polichko, U.Rabinovich (Kurgan), Y.Usov (Moscow) and others.

Search for the New Landmarks (the 1990s – early 2000s)

Along with Britain, **France** still remains one of the most active European countries to develop the media education. In France, the cradle of the cinema, the film education is still standing its ground. However a film is studied among other cultural and language means of expression. The theory and practice of audiovisual education (film education, in the first place) in France was first systematized and analyzed by the group of researchers headed by M.Martineau and published in the late 1980s and early 1990s [Martineau, 1998; 1991]. A little later, UNESCO, CLEMI [Bazalgette, Bevort, and Savino, 1992] and the European Council [Masterman and Mariet, 1994] published several fundamental researches, this time dedicated to media education on the whole. The considerable part of these works was devoted to the analysis of the French experience in the field.

CLEMI works nowadays not only with teachers, students and pupils, but also with the instructors in clubs, journalists, and librarians. CLEMI considers the work with information as a priority, due to its understanding of media education as primarily civic education. The CLEMI staff believes that media and ICT education can be integrated with any school subject.

In 1995, already at an international level, a CLEMI team launched the program 'FAX'. The pupils issued school-newspapers that were then sent by fax to partner schools in different countries. Now this program takes advantage of the Internet technology logically, because recently CLEMI has paid much attention to the educational potential of the World Wide Web [Bevort and Breda, 2001]. Particularly, in the early 2000 the program 'Educanet' was developed, with the

mission to develop the critical, autonomous thinking related to Internet information; the responsibility and safety of students.

As it has already been mentioned, media education in France is by and large integrated into the required school subjects (for example, French, History, Geography), though there are optional courses on media culture as well. Autonomous courses on film, television journalism and media culture are offered in numerous specialized lyceums and universities. In higher education institutions of Paris, Lyle, Strasbourg and some other cities the special media studies courses are taught for pre-service teachers. Still, J.Gonnet reasonably notes that ‘the development of the single approach to media education is nothing but illusion’ [Gonnet, 2001, p. 9].

Since the late 1990s a new program of the ICT integration has begun in France. According to it, for instance, each class should have an access to Internet and its own e-mail address. The project is sponsored by regional administrations and the Ministry of Education. New ICT promotes the connection between the smaller schools in remote rural areas, so that they can exchange information and research results, communicate and use computers in teaching and learning. Teachers have access to the database CNDP (*Centre National de Recherche Pédagogique*) and download necessary materials from there.

The key concept of media education in France is the word combination *l'éducation critique aux médias* (or *le jugement critique*) – critical thinking development. Evidently, one can draw a clear parallel with the concept of the critical thinking by the British L.Masterman. The view is that not only should students critically perceive and evaluate media texts, but also realize what kind of impact they exercise in surrounding reality (media as instruments of self expression of a personality, as means for the cultural development, etc.), the way media texts influence the audiences, etc. [Bazalgette, Bevort, and Savino, 1992; Bevort et al, 1999; Gonnet, 2001].

Thus, the distinguishing feature of media education in France is the emphasis on the education of a conscious, responsible citizen of a democratic society, while, for example, the Russian media education, having taken up its stand upon the rich traditions of literature-centered education, still remains aesthetically orientated.

The 1990s and early 2000s became quite productive years for the media and ICT education progress in the UK too (C.Bazalgette, D.Buckinham, A.Hart, S.Livingstone, L.Masterman and others leading media educators and researchers). In 1996 the College of Education of the University Southampton opened Media Education Center led by professor A.Hart. This center initiated large scale research, both national and international. The main projects of the centre (and before that – the research team of A. Hart) in the 1990s were the research of media and ICT education in the English curriculum and international outlooks of media education. The results were published in books and academic magazines (Hart, 1988; 1991; 1998), were reported at conferences and seminars to the international media education community.

At the turn of the century A.Hart launched another major research called ‘*Euromediaproject*’ aimed at the analysis of the current state of media education in European countries. Sadly, the tragic death of A. Hart in 2002 interrupted the course of the project. The conclusions of this project were drawn by the research team guided by his Swiss colleague, Professor of Zurich University D.Suss [Hart and Suss, 2002].

In 1998 under the patronage of the government Department of Culture the BFI created Film Education Working Group that engaged in research activity of media/film education problems. BFI closely collaborates with another influential organization – Film education that also develops programs for film and TV curricular, and teachers’ manuals.

However, unlike Canada and Australia, the study of media culture within integrated classes is not so spread in British schools (for instance, media education may occupy only 1-2 weeks a year, and more advanced study of media culture takes place in only 8 per cent of schools).

A.Hart critically estimated the UK situation in the field of media education. His findings related to the effectiveness of media education, integrated in English, are based on the practical activities of the Centre in 1998-1999, and include the following statements: teachers of English tend to be the followers of the discriminatory, protectionist paradigm of media education; topics of majority of media related lessons exclude political sphere; the dialogue form of work is rather poor, there’s a scarcity of practical application of the experience of pupils, lack of connection with their previous knowledge.

These conclusions affirm that the problem of the quality of media education is on the agenda

in the UK. But the other hand, the criticism from a different perspective – aesthetic theory may be possible here too. For example, A.Breitman argues that “accentuating the social and communicative functions of the screen media to the detriment of the aesthetic one, the British model of media education is losing one of the most effective means of the aesthetic and artistic development of the students” [Breitman, 1999, p.17]. This tendency that takes place in the UK can be explained by the fact that the aesthetic theory of media education is considered to some extent to be ‘obsolete’ and it’s ceded to the cultural studies theory.

Recently quite a few books, collections of articles textbooks and other publication have been published in Great Britain, and translated into foreign languages. And though there is no unity of opinion in British media education (the vivid example is the debate between L.Masterman and C.Bazalgette on the theory and technology approaches), it remains one of the most influential not only in Europe, but in the world scale too.

Schools in **Germany** began their media education practice with its integration into the required curriculum. Media education was included into Arts, Geography, and Social Sciences. In the opinion of many modern German teachers, the study of media culture should promote the development of the civic self consciousness of pupils, their critical thinking.

Media culture is taught in the majority of German universities. Besides there are several research institutes, such as the National Institute of Film in Science (FWU). It publishes literature and teaching aids for schools (videos, leaflets, brochures, etc.). Another research centre on media is situated in Muenchen. Significant locations on the media education map of Germany are Kassel University with the media pedagogy centre headed by Prof. Dr. B.Bachmair, Mainz University Media Education and Competence Center by Prof. Dr. Stefan Aufenanger and Humboldt University in Berlin with media education projects by Prof. Dr. Sigrid Bloemke and her colleagues.

On the whole, media education (*Mediaenpaedagogik*) in Germany is understood as a wide range of various media related classes.

Within the broader media education field there are several directions:

- media training, and upbringing: defines the aims and pedagogic means necessary for this achievement;
- media didactics: defines which media can or should be used for the achievement of pedagogic aim;
- media research: embraces all scientific activity to find or/and prove aims, means, evidence, hypothesis related to media and systematizes them [Tulodziecki, 1989, p.21].

The synthesis of the church and media pedagogy is quite typical for modern Germany; church has its own radio, newspapers, books, films, TV programs production. Understandably, there are quite a few proponents of the inoculatory or protectionist theory of media education among the German media educators working for the church. That is why activists of the church centres consider the means of media influence and strive for participation in the pedagogic process, realizing that media today is an inalienable part of the everyday lives of people, their education, work and recreation. Thus, taking advantage of media, one can efficiently influence the perception and the way of thinking of audiences.

Unfortunately, the impact of German media and ICT education is actually limited to the few German-speaking countries. As a rule the theoretical and methodological works of German media educators are known abroad among the small specialists’ circle.

Despite all the achievements of European media education, for the last 10-15 years **Canada** holds the leadership in the field (N.Andersen, B.Duncan, C.Worsnop, J.Pungente, L.Rother, etc.). At least, media culture here is an integral component of school curricula of the English language. Media and ICT course are offered in almost all Canadian universities. And nearly each Canadian province has its own association of media education activists that conducts conferences, publishes periodicals and other materials. French speaking Canadians also do not fall behind in the movement of media education.

In 1991 Vancouver hosted the opening of the CAME: Canadian Association for Media Education. In 1994 this association organized summer courses for teachers and began publications of the teaching recommendations and programs. Finally, the strong chain of efforts led to victory – in September 1999 the study of media culture became obligatory for pupils of all Canadian secondary schools, grades 1-12. Of course, Canadian provinces have certain peculiarities in educational practice. But the coordination of media educators from different regions is

implemented by the CAMEO (Canadian Association of Media Education Organizations) founded in 1992.

Today one can state that media education in Canada is on the upgrade and holds the leading position in the world.

Along with Canada and UK, **Australia** is one of the most advanced countries in media education field. Media studies are provided in the school curricula of all Australian states. Media educators in Australia are united in a professional association ATOM (Australian Teachers of Media), issuing the quarterly magazine *METRO*. ATOM holds regular conferences, publishes books, audiovisual aids, etc.

Every Australian child has to attend school until the age of 15. 70 per cent of students continue their education until 17 [McMahon, and Quin, 1999, p. 191]. Media education is taught essentially in senior classes, although the process starts in elementary school. In high school the specific course Media Studies is taught but at the same time media education is integrated with subject like 'The English Language', 'Arts', 'Technology', etc.

The majority of Australian teachers believe that media literacy is necessary for teaching and learning, because media education is the means of culture dissemination and a source of new knowledge [Greenaway, 1997, p.187]. Media preferences of the particular audience, appreciation of media texts should be considered [McMahon and Quin, 1997, p.317]. There are also the proponents of media as popular art approach in Australia [Greenaway, 1997, p.188]. However many media and ICT education activists in Australia interpret it in a broader than merely art context. Due to the development of the Internet the work of Australian media educators is spread overseas and is acknowledged internationally.

One cannot deny the fact that the **USA** has become a leading country in media culture. American press, radio, and especially cinema, TV and Internet dominate the world's information field. The impact of American mass media on the formation of the personalities of adolescents from different culture is hard to overestimate.

Though media education in the USA initially was not developing so intensely as in Europe, by the beginning of the XXI century we can see a mature system of American media pedagogy, which communicates with other countries through the web sites, publications, conferences. There are several major associations for media education in the USA.

By the early 1990s more than a thousand of American universities have offered over 9000 courses on film and television [Costanzo, 1992, p.73]. In the mid 1990s the growth of the prestige of media education resulted in the integration of media education into the educational standards of the 12 states [Kubey and Baker, 2000, p.9]. However 10 year later – by 2004 the number of states that officially recognized media literacy as part of the curricula, raised to 50.

As for media education in American universities – it has traditionally developed more lively. Nearly all American universities and colleges beginning from the 1960s have one way or another allocated media courses (at journalism departments, Film, Art, Cultural Studies, etc.).

In 46 states media education is woven with the English language or Arts. 30 states integrate media education in Social Science, History, civics, Ecology, Health. Professional associations try to include media education into the state standards (although optional but considered as desirable examples) because the acceptance of the state education standards would facilitate the dissemination of successful media education practices [Kubey, 1998; Tyner, 2000].

In the 1990s media education in the USA was used as a strategy for a television reform, propaganda of the health values, and as means of resistance against destructive stereotypes in multicultural society – in other words, as an extended inoculatory model, that strives to protect the audience from harmful media effects.

American media and ICT educators began to collaborate more closely with their foreign colleagues in the 1990s, particularly from other English-speaking countries. But in order to apply the borrowed experience successfully, Canadian or British models of media education must be certainly adapted to cultural, social, historic and economic conditions lying at the basis of the American education.

Perestroika, initiated by M.Gorbachev has changed the practice of media education in **Russia** dramatically. Media education encountered numerous difficulties during the whole history of its existence (ideological, financial, technical, etc.). In the 1920s – 1980s the political and censorship control, and the poor technical equipment of schools and higher educational

institutions hindered the media education movement. Finally in the 1990s Russian media teachers were granted the freedom and independence for making programs and their practical introduction. But the raised costs increased technical problems of introducing media and ICT education. Many Russian schools and colleges in the 1990s didn't have enough money for paying salary to teachers, to say nothing of the audiovisual equipment. Moreover, at the time few universities were preparing future teachers for media and ICT education of pupils.

And still Russian media education was evolving. In May 1991 the first Russian Cinema Lyceum was opened (and it existed until 1999). International conferences on media education were held in Tashkent (1990), in Moscow region – Valuevo (1992), in Moscow (1992, 1995), Taganrog (2001). The total number of media teachers – members of the Association for Film and Media Education – reached 300. Unfortunately, “the epoch of reform” of the 1990s affected media and ICT education movement not to its advantage. The state support given to the Society of Film Friends (SFF) in the late 1980s ran out by the early 1992. The private firm “VIKING” (Video and Film Literacy), organized by the Head of the Association for Film and Media Education G.Polichko, sponsored a lot of successful projects, such as the Russian-British seminars on media education and conferences, mentioned above. But in late 1990s the firm went bankrupt and closed. However in the 1990s the summer festivals of film & media education for children took place in some Russian cities with workshops on media and ICT. The screen arts and media education laboratories at the Russian Academy of Education continue their projects. The ICT Education development is supported by Russian Federation for Internet Education. Books and teaching materials, media education curricula are published (A.Fedorov, S.Penzin, N.Hilko, A.Sharikov, A.Spichkin, and others), etc.

The important events in media education development in Russia are the registration of the new specialization (since 2002) for the pedagogical universities – ‘Media Education’ (N 03.13.30), and the launch of a new academic journal ‘*Media Education*’ (since January 2005). Additionally, the Internet sites of Russian Association for Film and Media Education <http://eduof.ru/mediaeducation> (English and Russian versions), <http://eduof.ru/medialibrary> and <http://www.mediagram.ru> were created.

Conclusions.

Taking into account the fact that UNESCO defines media education as the priority field of the cultural educational development in the XXI century, media literacy has good prospects in Russia. We can also see the fast progress of media education in other Eastern European countries. For example, Hungary, Slovakia and Czech Republic (since the beginning of the XXI century) became the first European countries to introduce obligatory media education courses in secondary schools.

Summing up, at the beginning of the XXI century media education in the leading world countries has reached the mass scale, supported by the serious theoretical and methodological research. However media education is still not equally spread in all of the European, African and Asian countries.

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