

IULIAN BOLDEA • CORNEL SIGMIREAN • SIMION COSTEA
COORDINATORS OF THE FOUR VOLUMES

Culture, Elites and European Integration

Volume II - Communication

COORDINATOR: IULIAN BOLDEA

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NEGOTIATION - STRATEGIES AND TECHNIQUES

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Abstract: *Negotiation represents a manner of communication that has the ability to produce fundamental shifts in the behaviour and tendencies of the participants, according to the types of issues and the horizon of their possible solutions. By communication, problem solving in negotiation become decisions of the parts in order to settle and agreement. What the negotiator looks for are the decisions he or she attempts to reach as a result of adapting to the desires of the other part; with the amendment that a hierarchy of the personal desires should be taken into consideration, related to the other part's objectives.*

Keywords: *communication, negotiation, debate, strategy, tactics*

Preliminary

If we were to define negotiation, it is a process by means of which a person is aiming to obtain something specific from somebody else. Any negotiation develops itself under the idea: “Give me something from what I want in the exchange of what you want.” Aurel Codoban, in *Communication and negotiation in business*, states that “according to that principle, by which you want a thing that you don’t have, and you own a thing that you don’t wish, both you, and the other negotiator offer things that have less value for them, in order to obtain things with a bigger value. From this point of view, we can say that, at the end of a good negotiation both parts are winners, because they obtained through them what they wanted.

The premise that we should assume is that negotiation is essentially communication. Peter Fleming has established some principles for a good negotiator, also valid for a good communicator.

1. Experimented negotiators control and coordinate carefully the negotiation (communication).
2. They patiently attract stubborn clients to the negotiation table (they attract them into the process of communication, those who are afraid of it)
3. They avoid unprepared negotiation turns.
4. They prepare the case carefully.
5. They review what might be in the other parts’ agenda.
6. They know their own limits and also the limits of the other part, as well.

The negotiation may be perceived as a form of communication in which the involved parties are much more active and straight regarding their interest and that they

are waiting for decisions which are followed by consequences. Therefore, one has to deal just like in the case of any kind of communication: the main problem is that of attitude towards this communication process, which is negotiation. It is important how you see yourself, how you see the other and how you see the relationship between the two of you. According to this game theory – winning/loosing, losing/loosing, winning/loosing, losing/loosing- three negotiation types become possible:

1. Competitive – winning/loosing, losing/loosing, - those who always want to win, up to making the other party admit the loss, so that they can lose much more.
2. Cooperative – winning/winning – those who want that both of the parties to achieve the best possible choice.
3. Consensual – losing/winning- those who wish understanding and maintain a relationship at the cost of any acceptable loss for them.

The most suitable attitude for self development, the imposition of a good image and the maintenance of the relationships with the others is the cooperation. Of course, cooperation depends of the force and capacity of all parts and the trust among them, but also on the qualities of the communication of the opponents:

- the capacity to handle stressful situations and to keep an balanced way of communication even under emotional pressure
- the capacity to communicate openly
- how prepared you are to listen and how prepared you are to speak
- how much you manage to make a charismatic image of yourself upon the others

It is not always indicated to negotiate, except for the cases when there is no other choice, when the agreement of the other is needed, when this is the only way to obtain the thing we need, when it is worthwhile. Otherwise, you can apply to other methods: persuasion, constraint, arbitration etc. On the other hand, there is no such thing as absolute method, any of them can be suitable or not, depending on the situation. It is not indicated to give up, because in time they can make further negotiations difficult.

The analysis of negotiation from the perspective of communication allows three major phases:

1. *The preparation of negotiation.* It implies the preparation of what we are going to obtain from the negotiation, the analysis of what the partner wishes for himself and the anticipation of the possible arguments and contra-arguments from the most probable concessions on both parts.

2. *The negotiation per-se.* The debate of what the partners say they want, proposals of what you are willing to negotiate, meaning what you could offer to obtain something in change.

3. *The finalization of negotiation* and the agreement. In reality, negotiations are much more complex because quite often certain complications of paradoxes and accidents of communication may appear, sometimes even from digressions and diversities, therefore this way they almost never advance in a straight through a final agreement.

1. The preparation of negotiation

The preparation, and also the lack of preparation can be very easily observed in the process of negotiation. The lack of preparation in negotiation becomes visible through the fact that the person, who is not prepared, reacts slowly to the events and they do not have the power to react efficiently to the activity of negotiation: we might say that this kind of a person is reactive, not proactive in negotiation. The careful preparation of a negotiation supposes the configuration of an up-building, dynamic and not a static position, which can produce an aggressive attitude. During the preparation time, first of all, one has to decide the set of objectives and advantages that the negotiator is trying to obtain, by means of a hierarchy of priorities. What is wished to be obtained through negotiation bears the name of objective, and its degree of importance and relevance to a specific person is called state.

Thus, one may say, that people are negotiating in order to obtain what they desire, therefore a good negotiator has to be very aware in order to obtain what he or she wishes from that specific negotiation. It is obvious that an efficient negotiation is accomplished through permanent change of the objectives and stakes according to the opponent's requirements, so that some of the aspects asserted through their apparently apodictic certainty can become negotiable, fluent and insecure.

In order to adequately establish the objectives, the negotiator must know and take into account the objectives of the other party but also to assume a set of adequate methods needed for the achievement of his own objectives. As Professor Aurel Codoban mentions in his work *Comunicare și negociere în afaceri (Communication and negotiating in business)*, the expectations of the other party are configured in a problematic space, determined by particular obstacles, needs and demands. Within the framework of a negotiation, empathy but also the ability to see the situation from the perspective of the other party fill/detain a distinguished relevance, both in the processing and in the progress of the negotiation. The demands of the other party must be considered carefully in relation with the method used for their accomplishment and in relation with own demands. Negotiation is the one that favours the completion of own demands in terms of the other party, according to how the other party can accomplish its own demands in the conditions of the negotiator or it can happen that both parties achieve what they want in the terms of both parties.

Negotiations represent a means of communication that possesses the ability to produce modifications in a way that is frequently radical to the behaviour and aspirations of the participants dependent on the typology of the problems and the horizon of possible solutions to these. Through communication in negotiation the keys to the problems become decisions of the parties for the closure of an agreement. The demands of the negotiator are the decisions he wants to get to as a result of adapting the other party's demands, keeping in mind that a classification of the priorities of own demands

related to the demands of the other party must be taken into account. Obviously, out of the demands that the negotiator must take into account the objectives without which the acceptance of an agreement can not be conceived are of great importance, a medium importance is given to the objectives we aspire to but the achievement of which is not decisive and less importance is given to the objectives we want to achieve but which do not affect the essential expectations and aspirations of the negotiator.

It is worth mentioning that the negotiators do not explicitly expose their intentions and objectives because a negotiation can take place from rigid positions only with the risk of getting to a dead end of the negotiation. The scale of possibilities from the framework of the negotiation offers the possibility of versatility in expression but at the same time also the chance to get to an agreement.

On the other hand, the point/moment of entering a negotiation is also of great importance. Regardless of where you start a negotiation from, it is certain that you will get in a totally different position. The negotiation begins with a position of entering in the negotiation and ends with a position of exit. A fundamental rule is that the first offer of the negotiator never should be accepted because there is always another offer of the other party that is better and can be obtained through negotiation. This kind of wide possibility register assures a greater flexibility to the process of negotiation, a greater chance to get to an agreement being outlined this way.

The demands which you enter the negotiations with (and which are as such accepted by the other party) do not represent however the final position. The point of entering negotiations mark what is sustainable in front of the other party. It is recommended, however, for the objectives not to be overrated – in an unrealistic or ambitious manner – being that the overrating could determine an analogous reaction from the other party. Furthermore, an optimal solution would be for the negotiator to have to offers from which one should take into account the needs and major motivations and the second should annex the secondary ones.

The point of exit depends on the assumed limitations which can be reached in an agreement. On the other hand, the relation between the point of entering and the point of exit in the framework of a negotiation depends on the option that is available for the negotiator and on his abilities of communicator.

The most appropriate *place for negotiation* is, of course, the one in which the negotiator feels most comfortable and most confident in himself. However, this does not mean that this place is someone's own territory. On the negotiator's terrain, it can happen that he would be distracted by some minor familiar aspects, that would stop him in concentrating or that the opponents get an evolutionary impression of own intentions. Oppositely, on their own territory these disadvantages become advantages. Usually, a neutral territory is preferred and when the negotiator chooses it he must consider this to be convenient for him.

2. The proper negotiation as a communicative process

The atmosphere of the negotiation

The negotiation does not have the character/pattern of a vehement dispute/argument with the opponents, nor does it have the aspect of a conventional communication. In the negotiation process the success depends on the ability of the negotiator to persuade the others. In the framework of a negotiation, there is no perfect style per say, the most adequate style being the one which is most adapted to the context, circumstances. A good negotiator is flexible, he can very easily approach a style or another, depending on the attitude and disposition of the opponent. The most important fact would be for the relation to remain functional and for the embraced style not to be in contradiction with the local cultural context. This is why the most important aspect is to have a wide knowledge about the psychological profile and the personality of the opponent.

Opening the meeting

A certain part of the initial time can be allotted for creating an atmosphere of mutual confidence, especially if the participants to the negotiation have never met in advance. Evidently, it is more comfortable, psychologically speaking, to negotiate with someone you have met before. Even so, it is better to begin with acquiring information about what happened at your previous meeting, both in personal life and mainly in business. Active listening can assure the discovery of some opportunities that appear along negotiations and will disclose the favourable and unfavourable aspects which may occur when drawing up an agreement.

Interpreting body language is another source of information about the opponent and his hidden intentions. Those who practiced interpreting the body language know that gestures with hand put to the face are generally negative gestures. These should be interpreted considering what was uttered in order to notice possible contradictions and discover when the opponent may not be telling the truth. In the say way, when a “mirror” positions appears it is an unconscious sign of the opponents wish to agreement like “I win, but you also win”. (Inversely, copying – but not in an inappropriate way – the gestures and positions of the opponent will make him feel comfortable.) Often a frown, a flat smile, raising an eyebrow or a quick and piercing look can signify a progress in negotiation.

The debate

Just like in the case of any game of communication, negotiation is carried out in a carefully determined space, characterized by the presence of two specific areas: the divergence zones and the convergence zone. Therefore, the communicational game space of the negotiation is circumscribed between the zones of divergence and the convergence zone. The areas of divergence contain the current and potential points of disagreement

between the negotiators and in which there can be some forbidden points, variable, depending on the value system of the actors in the negotiation, while the convergence zone circumscribes the points of agreement between the parties. The forbidden area is yet very hard, if not even impossible to change, still, this zone must be given attention in order not to block other possible changes. As a form of communication, the debate is the best form of negotiation in which the negotiator makes his presence felt and in which he proposes to react to the initiatives of the opponent. The propositions which are placed in the framework of the discussion are negotiable and an effective debate mutually informs the negotiator about the others' intentions. The debate is the one that prefigures and promotes the agreement. After the negotiator established his own point of view, anticipating in the meantime the opinions of the opponent, during the debate he has the chance to check his own objective, initiatives and opinions. Thus, the negotiator encourages the opponent to expose his own opinions that will represent his entering position, after which the consecutive positions will be exposed and finally the exiting position will be fixed and accomplished. Equally, through succeeding sets of questions and messages with a role of clarification, the negotiator can learn more information about the entering position of the opponent (intensity, weight, orientation) and about the exiting position. A debate is, as a matter of fact, the one that offers the negotiator possibility to assign and clarify his assumptions but also to verify the honesty of the other negotiator. Through an open dialog that is not counterfeit and not conventional, the two parties can become aware and value the mutual advantages of achieving an agreement or realize if the agreement is not wanted or possible.

Strategies, tactics & communication techniques in negotiation

According to the classic definition, the strategy represents the organisation of the set of objectives pursued by negotiation, whereas the tactic is the set of modalities, processes and measures used in a given time for the realisation of a strategic goal. The main strategic attitudes that can appear in a negotiation are cooperation, conflict, domination and passivity.

Cooperation is a recurrent situation especially between the negotiators who have the tradition of some relationships based on trust and mutual benefit. Cooperation is usually present for large businesses, in which major interests are mutually beneficial.

Conflict is contrary instance of cooperation, in which the negotiations are conducted in an atmosphere of mistrust and mutual suspicion. Hostility occurs when both parts want a dominant position in the negotiation process.

Domination refers to a situation in which one part has more options. In modernity, this position was occupied especially by the offer. Today, in the postmodern context of globalisation this position is usually that of the buyer.

Passivity is the way in which one partner leaves the other to dissipate in empty his arguments, by not participating, only with documentation.

Negotiation strategy can be linked for some time, marked by a need for quick decisions, if waiting is not favourable, or expectation, whether those conditions can be improved through negotiation. The strategy also may be related to how to achieve and where negotiation takes place.

A fundamental tactic aspect is related to scheduling the concessions. Researcher Aurel Codoban believes that, in a negotiation, concession should be gradually phased. Tactics can be offensive or defensive. In negotiation, communication techniques are also processes of action for carrying out different tactics. At their turn, communication techniques in negotiation are action methods for performing different tactics. There are specific negotiation techniques referring to price, quantity, quality, terms of payment as well as there are countervail techniques aimed at the tactical methods of the opponent. The most used negotiation techniques are:

- *limited mandate or limited possibilities* – a technique with the role of decreasing from the very beginning the opponent's expectations
- *real or false competition* – supposing the organization of some parallel negotiations or simulation
- *false concessions* – inventing some obstacles or objections, which are to be traded with the opponent afterwards
- *alteration of the negotiator* – by switching the negotiation terms, the team is ruled by its leader
- *bribery* – offering different kind of gifts with great financial value to the opposite team members, in order to obtain concessions etc.

The question technique in negotiation

Within a negotiation, active listening implies extracting the maximum of information from a partner. Certain techniques referring to active listening are designed to force the interlocutor talk more and more, even though, apparently, the receiver should not have such a responsibility. Yet, it is in the interest of the negotiator to obtain information from the opponent, thus the negotiator may encourage him to unravel himself through the way in which he listens. When one feels like one is listened to, one has more confidence and reveals more easily intentions, objectives and goals. Another useful practice registered within active listening techniques is testing the accuracy of the message understanding. This can be achieved by repeating or paraphrasing the interlocutor's words, or by performing some declaration resumes made upon a certain aspect. These quite short resumes show the way in which the negotiator has understood the other's speech and gives at the same time a great feedback and a way to prove to the speaker that he has been followed with interest. Important aspects of active listening in negotiation are: focus, interest, cognitive openness and a critical spirit.

Questions have a particular role in different argument tactics, techniques or procedures. Thus, those can be very well used not only to obtain and provide information, specify points of view, making the discussion progress, but also to enhance

the argument in a rhetorical way, therefore some thinking time could be gained, in order to avoid a direct answer to attack or counterattack the opponent, then when he states affirmations not supported logically. Based on their formulation, questions can be in general, closed or opened, depending on their outspoken or explanatory answer; free, without any direct link to the conversation's main objective, or conducted, directly or indirectly linked to the conversation's main objective.

In case of negotiation, it is better for the negotiator to talk less than his opponent, and rather let the opponent speak, listening very carefully and ask questions. Questions are very important in negotiation, and mostly they are either very little exploited, or used incorrectly. The negotiator must act as if assuming a diplomatic posture, he will never say "no", but rather, prefer to ask questions with an opened nature. A productive method, with beneficial results, is the demand to justify the solution offered by the opponent through a punctual analysis oriented by questions. Aurel Codoban states that, within this context certain clues regarding the negotiation priorities appear, being able to test at the same time, the steadiness of positions.

As the experts of this kind of communication observed, questions are the ones that keep the negotiation doors opened, with the important specification, that the negotiator has to ask clear and open questions and, listen carefully to the answers at the same time.

Simultaneously, it is necessary to avoid those questions that induce emotional tension: in exchange, it is necessary to use questions with an opened character, able to obtain information and such designed so as to keep the communication and relations opened. On the other hand, questions fulfil few other roles and functions within the negotiation process, like: maintaining a negotiation and dialog type of climate; providing additional information; signaling the negotiator's intentions; gaining some thinking time, and last but not least, influencing the opponent.

Questions answering within a negotiation

The answers to the opponent's questions might acquire, during the negotiation, quite a great deal of importance. Of course, they must meet the standards of a decent, objective and positive communication.

When offering an answer, the negotiator must take into account his own interests, revealing only as much as necessary, and being careful not to reveal his own interests and objectives. This way, the negotiator chooses to provide more detailed information only if it will be in his own advantage; otherwise the answers are imposed to be elusive, tinted or conditioned by certain communication circumstances. On the other hand, when giving an answer, the negotiator is to apply the empathic communication principles, avoiding any elements that could trigger reactions of defence or attack (criticizing, expressing some judgments of value, explaining the situation or providing unsolicited advices, minimising the partner's words, interrupting the speaker etc.).

Argumentation techniques in a negotiation

Argumentation is a communication process through which the speaker tries to subdue the opponent's resistance towards the speaker proposals or ideas. During a negotiation, argumentation is placed in a different perspective and has entirely different finalities and objectives. The negotiator's interest is not to prove that he is entirely right, or that the opponent can not be the owner of the truth. Within a genuine negotiation, defeating the opponent is unthinkable. Negotiators have material interests and/or different concepts that place them in divergent positions; in order to advance towards a mutually acceptable solution, they must reach a new comprehension, superior to the problems and which should accede to the truth or validity of some new proposals. Argumentation usually has the purpose to prove the validity of a certain point of view, operating with apposite proves (arguments). The actual form of the proves could be very different: statements, judgments, opinions of a third party authority unanimously recognized, material evidence (eg: release documentation, quotations, samples) demonstrations etc. As Aurel Codoban observes, the argumentation appears like a way to help the interlocutor understand the speaker's point of view or help him change his opinion, adopt a different attitude or accede to a certain behaviour, help him realize a specific action, thus favouring the change of the negotiation's position. Thereby argumentation resides, as said before, in supporting a specific statement with different kinds of proof. Argumentation does not sell advantages, positions or assets. That is why argumentation implies assembling the ideas in a generally logical form, by a formal hierarchy of the arguments, as well as a specific form, depending on possible problems or objections stated by the opponent. The solutions found for this possible problems and objections should be inserted in the overall argumentation in a wisely manner. Hence, it must be said that the argumentation's development should be the element that leads from punctual decisions to the final decision.

Manipulation methods and rules in negotiations

As a strategy, negotiation can frequently be considered as being part of the conceptual space of manipulation and stratagems, more than being the repertoire of arguments and procedures. Undoubtedly, each type of negotiation is represented as a specific entity, but in the same measure as in the case of the communicative procedures and techniques of negotiation, there are some scripts, techniques and procedures with manipulative or tempting character that can be explored during the negotiation process. The essential foundation of manipulation in negotiation is to induce the illusion of a superiority of force. Actually, according to Aurel Codoban, the force report is that which produces some expectations of gain or loss in negotiation: if the opponents seem to be stronger, the negotiator expects to lose more and if the negotiator seems to be stronger, the opponents have undersized expectations. Thus, we can say that manipulation influences the expectations of the negotiator and it asserts its expectations in the context of negotiations.

Frequently, the negotiator has the capacity to appeal to some manipulative strategies and tactics by which to emphasise his credibility, such as: “documentation showdown” tactic or the “expert” tactic, that is to say the inclusion in the negotiators team of a prestigious expert who will not participate in discussions. The role of the expert is only to confirm, especially non-verbal (gestures approving) the interventions of the negotiator.

As manipulation elements of the opponents’ purpose, there are some tactics of influence of the psychical state of the opponent: the opponent seat is at a level slightly below; the opponent must look at the sun or strong light; the performance of an interruption when negotiations do not flow in an advantageous manner; fixing a slightly uncomfortable temperature; choosing a place to influence - by color, sounds, smells - the opponent state - introduction into the background of a visible clock to give the impression of time pressure. Such tricks can work only if they are almost indistinguishable, if they are skillfully suggested, and not if they have an obvious character and they are exaggerated.

Trading: exchange strategies and games

The transaction is the operation that sets rigorous terms of agreement, than the the negotiator can be based on. The transaction is the stage of negotiation in which the results of this process are becoming more and more visible. The fundamental principle of maximum efficiency of trading is never to give anything fully free, but to decide what you ask for what you offer. If we negotiate punctually, with the focus on some isolated aspects, we can reach certain the situations in which there will not be enough space for maneuvering during the negotiation. From this perspective, the rule that functions in this trading stage is: “Nothing is decided unless agreed upon all aspects”. Generally, the thing that defines a profitable transaction is that the negotiator acquires what he proposed to, meeting the requirements of the other part, or the opponent obtains what he applies for on the conditions of the negotiator, or, finally, each gains something from what he expected on the conditions of the other part.

3. The end of negotiation and conclusion of the agreement

The negotiations closure decision is rarely taken by the conscientiousness of the situation of the other part. Even if we can say that the most appropriate moment is when the opponent wants more than the negotiator to end the transaction, such situations can involve some resentments. If provisions for a longtime collaboration are considered and the opponent is convenient as a transaction partner, it is preferable to avoid such a situation because otherwise the negotiator risks to be caught in an analogous position. By the decision to end negotiations, the negotiator announces the opponent that he does not contemplate to supplement the proposal and it would be in the convenience of both to

reach to an agreement. Certainly, the premature enclosure of negotiations leads to error. A general rule to establish the moment of the end is finishing the negotiations when the negotiator realised what he wanted without assuming the aspiration of achieving/ earning/ obtaining more. Nevertheless, if the other part made a tender profoundly convenient, the negotiator should not precipitate falling into line, because such a precipitation could determine the opponent to understand that he abandoned excessively or he received too little. Professor Aurel Codoban considers that, essentially, the credibility of such a final offer depends on how appropriate the moment is, how important the person who makes the offer is, or how specific and official the formulation is. The most widely used concluding methods are the enclosure with final concession by proposing a conditional concession regarding a final agreement and the summary enclosure. The last one first of all, involves the refresh of the both parts convenient concessions, obtained with effort and which direct towards a final agreement in a natural manner, summerising what has been agreed and requesting the agreement end in the negotiator terms. Another possible alternative is the enclosure with postponement, in which, after summerising the date of an ulterior meeting is precisely established, as each part could examine the benefits of the agreement, or the ultimatum enclosure, in which, after the common summary the consequences of not ending the agreement are explicitly presented for the both parts. Actually, the agreement regarding the mutual interchangeable offers means the end of the negotiation. Each negotiated point must be summerised with the agreement of both parts, using a repertoire of terms as clear as possible and, if it is conceivable, quantifiable, and clarifying each point that afterward could convey at remote or negative interpretations, at ideatic conflicts and disputes.

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Abstract: *The crisis of Falklands Archipelago was a real one. In its stages it has a period of pre-crisis of almost 150 years, if we take a close-up look at the first dispute between Argentines and British, in 1833, which had as a reason, the islands. The real causes of the crisis are now clear, after filtering the events and after the chronological remembrance, through some treaties, studies and press articles: the remarkable geostrategic position of the islands, the oil reserves discovered in the archipelago and the problematic internal situations of the two powers that have resorted to conflict as a possibility of diverting population's attention from the unemployment, inflation and the lack of performance of their economies, to something else that pleaded to patriotism but, in fact, it was a result of this gentle civic feeling, resembling rather demagoguery and manipulation. The disruption happened on 19th March 1982, when some Argentinian workmen, who were sent to disable a whaler plant, raised the Argentinian flag in South Georgia Island. The climax produces few days later, on 21st March 1982, when the British ship "Endurance" was sent to the archipelago. Then, England announced the breaking of the diplomatic relations with Argentina. The communication and the relationship between the two powers became unilateral: each one talked for itself, for its audience and allies, the leaders coordinating all the movements from their crisis cells from London and Buenos Aires. The conflict started to gain momentum after 2nd April, when units of the Argentinian army invaded Malvinas Islands by occupying the capital Port Stanley. The Argentinian president held "patriotic" speeches, while Margaret Thatcher, the British prime minister, sent the British war fleet to the archipelago and established severe control upon the information towards the press and the audience. UN's Security Council emitted the 502 Resolution, signed on 2nd April, which provided, among others, the retraction of the Argentinian troops. The events took place very quickly and the two armies clamped in bloody fights, before the negotiations artisans and communication mediators between the parties - SUA through President Ronald Regan and Secretary of State Alexander Haig, who advanced a peace plan - to obtain a perceptible result; furthermore, the American "games" were full of ambiguity in this conflict. UN's Security Council emitted another resolution, number 505, in 26th May, through which the Secretary General Javier Perez de Cuellar was charged with the mission of pacification of the two parties. Nevertheless, it was anticipated a violent military confrontation between the two powers: Argentina and Great Britain.*

Keywords: *crisis, Argentina, Great Britain, military confrontation, resolution, conflict*

1. The causes of conflict. Gradual accumulation of tensions and communication difficulties between the Argentines and the British.

The theoretical structure according to whom a regional political-military crisis deploys, according to specialists, is the pre-crisis, that moment when decisions are indurating and all kinds of divergences interfere between the parts; the climax, when rupture appears and nationalist manifestations, military maneuvers etc. take place and all the elements which

subsequently conduct at violence and armed confrontations, here being registered another two substages: *from crisis to war*, the apogee of the confrontation and, then, *from crisis to peace*, when the conflictual relations between the parts are increasing, reaching to arrangements and agreements, till total relaxation; *the impact*, when there could be observed the consequences and the real repercussions of the crisis and also the modifications suffered by the relationships between the protagonists, and also there could be drawn the possible lessons, this stage being “a strong catalyst of defining, establishing and converting the force relations between the states.”¹ But we have to specify that some of the phases of this succession may be very short, while others are more protracted, even agonized. I wanted to remember some of the specific features of this type of crisis, before going further to the close-up view of the subject.

The controversy between Great Britain and Argentina regarding Malvina Islands (Falklands), which could be associated to the pre-crisis, extended (until 1982) on a long period of time, of about 150 years. Referring to this period of time, in a short geopolitical deviation, we must specify that, around the outbreak of the conflict, the archipelago included two large islands (West Falkland and East Falkland) and other 200 small islands, measuring a total area of 11.961 km², with a population of about 2000 inhabitants and having as the main settlement Port-Stanley (a small city with a population around 1000 inhabitants) and it made part, according to Chapter XI of United Nations Charter, from “the non-autonomous territories of La Plata zone”.² The majority of the inhabitants were fishermen, while the others were dealing with the shepherding of the 600.000 sheep from the archipelago. We also have to say that the islands were discovered by John Davis, in 1592, being named *Falklands*, and between 1766-1769, during a journey around the world, they were rediscovered and renamed by French explorer Louis Antoine de Bougainville as *Malouines*, by the name of his native port - Saint-Malo. The Spanish, who had come in 1770, colonized them with the name *Malvinas*. By gaining the independence, in 1826, the Argentines settled down in the islands, but they were chased away by English people, in 1833, who proclaimed them British colony. Between 1908-1985, South Georgia and the South Sandwich Islands were administratively *attached to the archipelago*. *The first one was inhabited by an English team, representation of British Antarctic Survey, with the base at King Eduard Point.*

Located in the South Atlantic Ocean, in a great strategic position, at 900 km from Magellanic Strait and at 780 km North-East from the sea route that avoids Cape Horn, the archipelago is an attractive double aspect: strategic and economic both, and for the Argentines it represented one more advantage - only 720 km of aquatic area separated the islands from Argentina's coasts! The economic attractiveness of the islands increased when there had been found oil reserves. The experts estimated that there could be extracted around two million barrels per day, these not being exploited because of the tensions and all the misunderstandings between the two rivals: Great Britain and

¹ Jean-Louis Dufour – *Op. cit.*, p. 33

² Claudiu Giurcăneanu – *Statele pe harta lumii*, București, Editura Politică, 1983, p. 312.

Argentina. In this circumstances, even situated at 13.000 km of London, the archipelago magnetized British interests in the area! Analysing the circumstances of the litigation, the press from that time wrote about the significant fact that the islands have a great strategic position in the austral area of the Atlantic, a base of fishing and sea-hunting and in their basement large reserves of oil were discovered.

The specialists in strategic and geopolitical issues had identified with exactness the real causes which conducted, step by step, at tension accumulation between London and Buenos Aires, and even at a “cooling” of the communication between the two powers, the leaders speeches often running down to political-demagogical and claimed declarations: “The ocean's potential richness can explain, too, the unexpected interest for this realms from the end of the world and intention expressed at Buenos Aires, in February 1982, of asserting its sovereignty on these austral islands, whom Argentina claimed in 1833.”³ Upon this background, the Argentinian head of state, general Leopoldo Fortunato Galtieri tried a dangerous policy, activating until exacerbation the national spirit of his compatriots, the more as the military junta disappointed the population through the frequent economic failures and through the total inefficiency of the government. But the Galtieri government was the successor of that led by the charismatic Maria Estera Peron, who enjoyed great popularity and sympathy, especially among the poor people. She was brutally abolished from power through a *coup d'état* from 24th March 1976, started by the military junta.

Researchers who analysed very detailed “the steps” registered in the controversy from Malvinas, established that we have to deal, at least initially, with a *calculated crisis*, but wrong imagined by the Argentinian people near Galtieri: betting on the exaltation of the “popular nationalism” and on a quick victory in internal and international political plan, counting more on the theatrical display of their intentions, instead of a pragmatic plan, well-structured and elaborated, because “by placing foot on the Falkland Islands, General Galtier would distract the Argentine public attention from the economic failures of his government.”⁴

On the other side, on the other coast of the Atlantic, in London, Margaret Hilda Thatcher, leader of the Conservative Party, was the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom from 1979 and she became the first woman to head of a government in Europe. Because of an active and tough internal policy, she imposed the “thatcherism”, being surnamed “The Iron Lady”.⁵ About the outbreak of the crisis, the government led by Margaret Thatcher was fighting against unemployment, her governance facing out serious economic problems and being in free fall in the polls, having “the lowest popularity share ever registered. Great Britain was in deep economic recession and the

³ Jean-Louis Dufour – *Op. cit.*, p. 164

⁴ Jean-Louis Dufour – *Op. cit.*, p. 42

⁵ xxx – *Dicționar enciclopedic*, vol. VII, lit. T-Z, Coordonare generală: Marcel D. Popa, coordonare: Rodica Chiriacescu, Alexandru Stănciulescu, Nicolae C. Nicolaescu, Anicuța Tudor București, Ed. Enciclopedică, 2009, p. 95

number of unemployed persons overtook three million.”⁶ With all these problems faced, “The Iron Lady” shows her strength of character and the will of not giving way to the military junta from Buenos Aires that underestimated her intelligence and the power of decision and “measures in a mediocre way the risks she exposed to.”⁷

2. The communication crisis and the outbreak of the conflict

“The disruption” in the smoldered conflict between the two powers will happen on 18th March 1982, when 41 Argentinian workmen were sent to disable a whaler plant in South Georgia Island; but they did more than that: displaying in unobstructed view the signs of Argentina “they raised on 19th March their national flag in the capital of the islands, Leith Harbour.”⁸ The London government strongly objected, affirming that the workmen involved did not have the necessary permission, but as the protests are denied with vehemence by the Argentines, the British sent in the area, on 21st March, a military ship, the “Endurance” – an ancient icebreaker of the Royal Marines, that had 40 sailors on board, but it was tooled only with one cannon.

It is the escalation phase of the conflict, when the dialogue between the parts breaks in, this being replaced by the “measures” taken on the one side and the “countermeasures” taken in account by the other side, the reactions at the “measures” representing the idiom itself of the parts involved.

Therefore, as an answer to London’s reaction, the polity from Buenos Aires sends a supply vessel in South Georgia. Then, on 26th March, the Argentines and the Uruguayans *fleets deployed and maneuvered in the archipelago. But, as far back as 24th March “The Foreign Office was talking about an invasion.”*⁹ *The agreement attempts between the two parts did not end with the prefigured results and in the night of 1st to 2nd April, a very important Argentinian force, of about 5000 soldiers, supported by marine and aviation, landed in the archipelago. But this was only the beginning; until the end of March, the Argentinian forces from the area were about 15.000 soldiers. This is how, for one more time, instead of winning the dialogue, won the revengeful trends!*

The events are getting faster and faster and they succeeded with a stunning and alarming speed: the British government, convened in a brainstorming session after the Argentinian invasion, officially announced *the breaking of the relations with Argentina and requires the reunion of United Nations Security Council*. Margaret Thatcher declared in the House of Commons, on 3th April, that “an intervention naval force will be sent down to the ground.”¹⁰ Meanwhile, the Argentinian forces had sent in advancing some “frog-people”, who dominated the lighthouse, the airport and the electric plant. Governor Rex Hunt and the other 79 members of the British guard house surrendered after that, during the fights, they caused three Argentinian victims: one killed officer and two injured soldiers. The same British official read then, at the local radio station, a bulletin of the

⁶ Brian McNair – *Introducere în comunicarea politică*, Iași, Ed. Polirom, 2007, p. 260.

⁷ Jean-Louis Dufour – *Op. cit.*, p. 42.

⁸ Ibidem, p. 165

⁹ S.(elian) Ț.(urlea) – *Conflictul argentiniano-britanic*, în revista „Lumea”, București, nr. 15 /8 aprilie 1982, p.8

¹⁰ Jean-Louis Dufour – *Op. cit.*, p. 165.

new authorities, announcing the entrance in force of a new Argentinian jurisdiction: introducing of a new coin, of new postage stamps and the induction of the new governor, the Argentinian general who led the operation, the change of the administrative residence's name, from Port-Stanley to Puerto Rivero, but also the transfer by air at Montevideo, and then at London, of 86 soldiers and British clerks.

In his declaration, the Argentinian foreign minister, Nicanor Costa Mendez, explained the situation, in terms of demagoguery, showing that: "we cannot speak about an occupation, but about the recuperation of an Argentinian territory"; in the same context, president Leopoldo Galtieri said that he commanded the operation for "ending the postponements used by Great Britain to maintain the domination upon the archipelago."¹¹

On 3th April 1982, United Nations Security Council, urgently united, *observed "a peace disruption in the region"* and decided, through the *Resolution 502*, with 10 votes for, four abstentions and one against (that of Panama state), the following provisions: the immediate cease of the hostilities, the immediate retreat of the Argentinian forces from the archipelago and the identification of some diplomatic ways to solve the conflict.

Concomitant with this, European Community states react different. While France had been applying sanctions since 2nd April, ceasing exports of weapons to Argentina, Italy and Spain had remained hesitant. But the majority of the European states were for the immediate retreat of the Argentines from the territories forcibly occupied. Now it is noticeable which are the alliances, the associations according to the interests; but "United States stands, indeed, in a very delicate situation: London is their strongest ally in Europe and Buenos Aires is one of the safest from South America. Soviet Union and Cuba, like other Latin American countries as Brazil, Peru, Guatemala, joined the Argentinian military junta."¹² Being hard punished by UN, Argentina had addressed on 5th April to the *Organization of American States (OAS)*, where the foreign minister, Costa Mendez, *exposed, in an ample speech, his country's option; he also presented to the participants the situation of the Inter-American treaty from Rio de Janeiro (TLAR, signed on September 1947), remembering the provisions about the military mutual assistance in case of a foreign aggression suffered by one of the member state; but, as press agencies consigned, "the participants were very reticent, preferring the diplomatic solutions."*¹³

A problem related to the government reorganization and strengthening preceded the measures of force of Great Britain; following the critics from the House of Commons, based on the slowness of reaction of the "Foreign Office", Lord Carrington resigned from the Foreign Minister (favorable for a peaceful resolution of conflict). Humphrey Atkins (Carrington's deputy) and Richard Luce, Minister of State, also were dismissed. While their resignations have been accepted without delay, however, the "Iron Lady" rejected the resignation of John Nott, Minister of Defense.

¹¹ S.(telian) Ț.(urlea) – *Conflictul argentiniano-britanic*, în revista „Lumea”, București, nr. 15 /8 aprilie 1982, p. 8

¹² Jean-Louis Dufour – *Op. cit.*, p. 165

¹³ S.(telian) Ț.(urlea) – *Art. cit.*, în revista „Lumea”, București, nr. 15 /8 aprilie 1982, p. 9

The crisis cell constituted by the most prominent prime minister of Great Britain, after Winston Churchill, with the official residence from 10 Downing Street, had recently proved the efficacy: on 5th April 1982, when members of the OAS met, British war fleet led by Admiral Sandy Woodward, starts from the Portsmouth - South Atlantic, with the “mission to recapture the Falkland Islands from Argentina.”¹⁴ However, before anything else, “The Iron Lady” ensures for having the support of United States president, Ronald Reagan, who promises “technical assistance” and then mobilizes an intervention force - an impressive fleet consists of over 30 ships, including two aircraft carriers, two cruisers, three destroyers, five frigates rocket launchers, four oil and two supply ships; two ocean liners were also requisitioned by which soldiers were transported. Simultaneously with the military expedition, the “thatcherist” government imposes more stringent measures for the enemy: Argentine assets of Albion are “frozen”; as a reply, Argentina suspended payments to Great Britain.

The harsh statements with bellicose flavor continues - a sign that communication between conflicting parties were blocked, each one communicating and transmitting messages only to their domestic audiences and camp circle belonging - all signs where foreshadowing a military confrontation. This idea is strengthened and becomes credible especially after the declaration made on 7th April, by the Minister of Defense John Nott in front of the House of Commons, who “had to proclaim an area of 200 miles war zone around the archipelago, starting 12th April at 3GMT - time fixed for the arrival of the British fleet - any Argentine ship located in this area will be treated as hostile and will be susceptible to an attack by British forces.”¹⁵ The Argentine president Galtier did not remain beneath, stating that “Argentina will use weapons if the United Kingdom established the blockade on the archipelago.”¹⁶

After these verbal arguments, followed by “measures” and “countermeasures”, world leaders have noticed, in a late, the danger of the situation and began a series of steps to prevent the disputes from degenerating in a war; between these we mention the frequent visits of U.S. Secretary of State, Alexander Haig, both in London and Buenos Aires, and the availability of mediation declared by United Nations General Secretary, Javier Perez de Cuellar, and the firm decision of the Common Market countries to no longer provide weapons to Argentina. All these facts show, as some advised commentators of the conflict found out, that “we are in the presence of an *atypical crisis* at the border of East-West confrontation. Each party wants to keep strictly bilateral. The crisis forces the international community to take position in favor of either party.”¹⁷

Criticizing the Iron Lady’s preference for the use of force in resolving conflict, when there was still a possibility of settlement through negotiations, political scientists and historians later recognized that, “the Argentine aggression against a part of the British overseas territory of the Thatcher government gave the opportunity to engage a late

¹⁴ Jean-Louis Dufour – *Op. cit.*, p. 166.

¹⁵ Crăciun Ionescu – *Şapte zile*, în revista „Lumea”, Bucureşti, nr. 16 /15 aprilie 1982, p. 7

¹⁶ Crăciun Ionescu – *Art. cit.*

¹⁷ Jean-Louis Dufour – *Op. cit.*, p. 165

postcolonial military expedition and to demonstrate their patriotism (...) in this sense, the conflict had become in itself an act of political communication, full of symbolic resonance and echoes of Britain's imperial past.”¹⁸

Ill-conceived by the junta and Galtier's close associates, the operation to invade the archipelago takes proportions of a huge international scandal; however, at this side of the Atlantic there was a calculation, a little bit treacherous and even cynical, so that at some point “the crisis, although it was endorsed in London with precision and rigor, degenerate into armed conflict.”¹⁹ On the other hand, the Argentine junta strategies are naive and downright ridiculous: they do not believe, until the last moment, that the British will fight for “a pebble”, 13.000 km to the metropolis, and they made a fatal mistake by ignoring Margaret Thatcher's strong nature!

All the reactions and the counter-reactions, all the “measures” and “countermeasures” of both parties, showed that, in the next phase, Ares will let go to the dogs of war in the archipelago.

3. Informational manipulation and violent military confrontations

Further research, in relation to the dispute and the complexity of the situation in the Malvinas, showed that the military option was not the only way of “softening” the conflict for Great Britain; it could rely on some economic and trade sanctions, to act more skillful and more powerful in the ways of diplomacy, as in fact happened in many other similar situations around the world, in the second half of the twentieth century.

Along with the mobilization of armed forces and by sending them in the archipelago, the conflict entered in a new phase, obviously more dangerous, both for the troops engaged and for the civilian population of the islands. On the other hand, another characteristic element of this type of conflict occurred: the parties' efforts to exert informational control as “winning the battle for public opinion inside and outside the country was no less important than military success.”²⁰

Entered into the phase of war, the conflict does not draw, only the interest of journalists and that of the domestic public opinion (in England, Argentina, Falkland) and international one; it became at a time, “a war of management information and opinion and one of clenching forces, equally.”²¹ However, experts note that, unlike other bloody conflicts (being circulated here the example of the Vietnam War), the “thatcherist” government managed to control information about the war, so that “media exposure was one of the most restricted of all cases of serious conflict after the Second World War.”²² The crisis cell on 10 Downing Street imposed, first, a presentation as much possible in favor of British military intervention in the islands, and secondly, to not change the curious public's image induced by propaganda operations (professionally performed) and

¹⁸ Brian McNair – *Introducere în comunicarea politică*, Iași, Ed. Polirom, 2007, p. 260.

¹⁹ Jean-Louis Dufour – *Op. cit.*, p. 166.

²⁰ Brian McNair – *Op. cit.*, p. 260.

²¹ *Ibidem*

²² *Ibidem*, p. 261

for the journalist's momentum, responded with measures of intimidation, misinformation and even censorship. All these did not justify in the eyes of the population, being the consequences of an exaggerated strategic concept, considering that "information policy adopted by the government was to treat the whole situation as a matter of national survival and therefore to manipulate and constrain exposure to media."²³ Might also come here in discussion, the fact that the conduct of the conflict zone indicates a limited war and therefore relatively easy to control the informational aspect: the theater of operations is at 720 km from the shores of Argentina and 13.000 km from the coast of England; therefore "the geographical isolation of the islands was an obvious obstacle for the media organizations."²⁴ There could have been used the electronic technology to gather information; but for transmission, using satellite communication was needed, or "access to it was not easy to obtain in the Falkland Islands."²⁵

While in Great Britain all the significant decisions were taken in the office of the Prime Minister, fiercely guarded from the press and curious public, in a calculated and "cold" way, on the other side of the Atlantic, president Galtier continued its populist policy, cheap masquerade and reduplication of the patriotic spirit for a, at least questionable, reason, continuously launching messages to the nation stating that: "All the problems and all the differences of views from everyday reality only lose their importance and only the nation counts because her sovereignty is at stake."²⁶ Under this kind of propaganda, more than 150.000 people gathered in the Plaza de Mayo in Buenos Aires, declared themselves solidarity with the government's policies; therefore, the military junta's chief manipulation attempt of the citizens succeeded! In Argentina everything was bathed in kind-of a "warm" and demagogic politics. And because of the impression of a completely charismatic leader to be complete, president Leopoldo Galtier visited the theater of military operations in the archipelago, "accompanied by several broadcasters that aired minutes of his visit; then they went to several garrisons in southern region of the country."²⁷ Along with this parade visit, the capital of the archipelago recorded the fifth name change within a week: Port Stanley (the British name), in Puerto Rivero (immediately after the Argentine invasion), then in Puerto de la Isla of Soledad, Puerto de la Islas Malvinas, and finally, after the visit, Puerto Argentino. On the other hand, while increasing the number of troops in the islands, talking about 5.000 and even 10.000 soldiers (according to some sources), the Argentinian leader continues its subtle application procedures for manipulating the media and public opinion as proves the press of those times: "a number of 15 local personalities (in the archipelago – a.n.) have written a letter to the Foreign Office, which says that people would accept Argentine sovereignty in exchange for the withdrawal."²⁸

²³ Ibidem

²⁴ Ibidem

²⁵ Ibidem

²⁶ Stelian Țurlea – *Discuțiile continuă*, în revista „Lumea”, București, nr. 16 / 15 aprilie 1982, p. 8

²⁷ Stelian Țurlea – *O nouă fază*, în revista „Lumea”, București, nr. 18 / 29 aprilie 1982, p. 10

²⁸ Stelian Țurlea – *Discuțiile continuă*, în revista „Lumea”, București, nr. 16 / 15 aprilie 1982, p. 8

This type of reaction and response is *specific for the escalation phase of the conflict*, professor Jean Louis Dufour even noting, related to the issues in question, that “these behaviors seen in a state **A**, induce similar attitudes to his opponent **B**, even more violent and more determined.”²⁹ Then, we find that Dufour’s assessments are confirmed by the course of events: after the initiation by the Great Britain, on 12th April 1982, of a banned marine area, within a radius of 200 miles around the archipelago, was followed by the Argentinian reply, “by creating a zone for military actions of 200 nautical miles around islands and Argentinian coasts offing. Inside this area the armed forces will lead any action of defense for achieving national sovereignty.”³⁰ The settlement Comodoro Rivadavia, from the continent, became a great and eventful military center, with a very dynamic activity, where were stored arms and ammunition and troops prepared for action. But the same thing was happening in all Argentine barracks, where “there was a feverish activity; the contingent from 1962 and numerous reservists were called to arms.”³¹ To remember, regarding this aspect, the patriotic declaration of the Argentine Foreign Minister, Nicanor Costa Mendez: “We will be ready to defend ourselves!”³²

The more the British fleet got closer to the archipelago, the more the danger of an armed confrontation was growing. In such circumstances, there were a lot of attitude and diplomatic reactions recorded worldwide, all aimed at avoiding a military confrontation. As we mentioned before, the Common Market countries are beside Great Britain, requiring mandatory compliance with the provisions of United Nations Security Council resolution 502; Canada expresses the same attitude, while Latin American countries show their solidarity within the Argentines aspirations and “are for the remove of any vestige favor of colonialism, making, however, call for abstention from force.”³³ From the pile of proposals and diplomatic interventions to avoid military confrontation may be mentioned those of Colombia, Ecuador and Costa Rica, which demanded that “O.A.S. should provide the good offices for finding a solution.”³⁴ Then, Pope John Paul II released a message of peace and understanding, and the president of Peru offered his country collaboration to mediate the two sides and asked for an “immediate peace of 72 hours.”³⁵; Gerry Collins, Foreign Minister of Ireland, “launched the idea of a United Nations peacekeeping force, which could avoid confrontation between the two sides”³⁶; a similar proposal was made by British Conservative MP Winston Churchill, grandson of the famous prime-minister! Between the solutions and the advanced serious hypothesis, was also recorded at least one more interesting proposal: “a Hong-Kong type formula, namely the administration of the archipelago by Great Britain, at least for a period of time, or an

²⁹ Jean-Louis Dufour – *Op. cit.*, p. 29

³⁰ Stelian Țurlea – *Art. cit.*, în revista „Lumea”, București, nr. 16 / 15 aprilie 1982, p. 8

³¹ *Ibidem*

³² *Ibidem*

³³ *Ibidem*

³⁴ *Ibidem*

³⁵ *Ibidem*

³⁶ *Ibidem*

Argentine-British duo dominion.”³⁷ But, at this stage, not even the mediator mission of the U.S. Secretary of State, Alexander Haig, was not crowned with any real success, “his meetings, totaling hours and hours of discussions with Argentine officials could not exceed that optimistic note, statements such as *negotiations are continuing*.”³⁸ Although even the U.S. president had numerous telephone conversations with the president of Argentina and British Prime Minister, showing his desire for a peaceful settlement of the dispute, “negotiations were beating up on the spot, and the British fleet, however, continued to advance.”³⁹

Meanwhile, war preparations continued feverishly on both sides; the British “Armada” crossed the Equator, “but some news left to understand that the pace of advance had been deliberately slowed down to allow time for negotiations.”⁴⁰ In these conditions, although under diplomatic and military pressure, Argentina ignores the proposal to return Malvinas to the previous *status quo* and also ignores the proposal for the tripartite management of the archipelago - Argentina, Great Britain and USA - president Galtier declaring, on behalf of his country, in a letter to the United Nations Security Council: “We can negotiate everything except sovereignty!”⁴¹ In fact, during the same period, the newspaper “La Razon” of Buenos Aires, closed to the policy carried out by the military junta, published in an article, “Argentina’s five-point position: full sovereignty over the archipelago, the presence of an Argentinian governor and of the Argentinian flag in Malvinas; same rights and duties for the islanders as for the Argentinians, the withdrawal of the British fleet, followed by withdrawal of Argentine forces.”⁴² As an expression of a kindness act, the newspaper also informed that Argentina “would accept for a period of time, an administration divided with U.N. and O.A.S.”⁴³

Submissive to the economic blockade by England and the Common Market countries, by establishing an embargo on products, Argentina sent a protest letter to U.N. Security Council, but the accusations upon the British were rejected by Margaret Thatcher who, in a speech delivered in front of the Chamber of Commons, strongly reaffirmed her decisions: “If the ban is ignored, we consider this as the clearest proof that the idea of finding a solution had been abandoned.”⁴⁴

The leaders of the two powers are waging a fierce battle not so much on the front, but with their domestic audiences and then with the international public opinion, which they felt compelled to persuade, knowing that “the public opinion, manipulated or

³⁷ Ibidem

³⁸ George Serafim – *Șapte zile*, în revista „Lumea”, București, nr. 17 / 22 aprilie 1982, p. 10

³⁹ Ibidem

⁴⁰ Stelian Țurlea – *Eforturi diplomatice într-o situație confuză*, în revista „Lumea”, București, nr. 17 / 22 aprilie 1982, p. 11

⁴¹ Ibidem

⁴² Ibidem

⁴³ Ibidem

⁴⁴ Ibidem, p. 12

spontaneously reacting to events, plays a singular role, namely, a favorable or hostile way to appeasement.”⁴⁵

A new round of discussions and negotiations started in Buenos Aires on 19th April 1982, the parties implicated directly to the conflict being mediated by Secretary of State Alexander Haig itself. The Argentinian side proved more flexible this time, considering the statement made with this occasion by the Foreign Minister Costa Mendez: “If Britain wants a port of call for their boats - they will have it; if they want access to the antarctic continent - they will have it; if they want a participation in the exploitation of resources (from Malvinas) - they will have that as well.”⁴⁶ Commenting the content of a telephone conversation between Secretary of State Alexander Haig and President Ronald Reagan, U.S. media said that, in the negotiations, Argentina is “suppler than Great Britain.”⁴⁷ The American press also revealed, after several rounds of negotiations, the structure of an *American peace plan*, including in five points the following previsions: Argentinian military forces should withdraw, as well as the British fleet, followed by the installation of an international peace force in the Malvinas (beside Argentina, Great Britain, United States, to attend two more countries from Latin America, two from Western Europe and one from Asia); by the end of this year, to begin negotiations between the two parties on the status of the islands; the interim period to last up to five years and by the end of the interim period, islanders to be consulted in a referendum; Argentina to maintain commercial ties with the disputed islands.”⁴⁸ Argentina made desperate efforts in the negotiations, to support three points of the position, considered essential, namely: “sovereignty over the archipelago, the governor and the Argentine flag.”⁴⁹

Starting on 25th April 1982, the dispute upon the islands entered a new phase, once with the disembarkation of the British fighting forces in South Georgia, located 1.500 km east of the Malvinas, and with the few hours of intense fighting and fire exchange with the barricaded Argentine troops. These were followed immediately by the proclamation of Argentina which shown that the British violated the United Nations resolution 502, which provided, among other provision, that the parties involved in conflict must refrain from force. Further research showed that, in fact, on the island debarked only twelve British commando soldiers who faced the fire in front of about a hundred Argentinian troops; the facts were not too clear if there were loss of life, because both sides fiercely shut actual data, resorting to manipulate public opinion. Actually, now it is known that only after pressure and interference coming from media organizations, Margaret Thatcher admitted in a late but only because of the fear of negative publicity, that 28 journalists (but only the British, none stranger!) may accompany expeditionary corps in the archipelago; but even upon them was exercised a severe informational control after the

⁴⁵ Jean-Louis Dufour – *Op. cit.*, p. 29

⁴⁶ Stelian Țurlea – *Eforturi diplomatice într-o situație confuză*, în revista „Lumea”, București, nr. 17 / 22 aprilie 1982, p. 11

⁴⁷ Ibidem, p. 12

⁴⁸ Ibidem

⁴⁹ Ibidem

conflict erupted, when “reportages began to be censored by taste and tone reasons (prohibiting abusive language play, for example...). Notoriously remained the fact that television images, after being filmed, could not be released for several weeks because there were no satellite transmission facilities.”⁵⁰ But through the “keyhole”, the English press heard and even recorded facts about the British commando mission, sent to South Georgia island specifically to prepare disembarkation - in spite of the “thatcherist” government secrecy who “refused to comment, ordering a kind of camouflage of the news”, and with all the embarrassing apologies of the spokespersons who held such the fact that for the success of the strategic operations default, “at this point of conflict silence is needed.”⁵¹

Meanwhile the conflict deepened more and more, registering casualties on both sides. British commando was meant specifically to prepare the bulk of troops landing in South Georgia, regarding an operation in which strategic objectives were: the use of tanks where initially they store whale blubber for fuel oil storage, using the island as a reserve of drinking water for the fleet and train a dozen bulldozers and construction equipment for specific work in case of emergency for building an airfield for the British aviation. Simultaneously with the “baptism of fire”, Admiral Sandy Woodward warned that he had taken action in the expansion of the “prohibited area” and the airspace. Forced by circumstances, Great Britain Foreign Minister, John Nott, announced that “the required forces landed with helicopters. During the first phase of this operation, our helicopters had damaged an Argentinian submarine.”⁵² After the clashes there were fatalities on both sides, “but London denied”.⁵³

The reactions to these dramatic events were mixed: while the Common Market countries and western European Parliament reaffirmed their solidarity with Great Britain, the neutral position, Mexico, Canada, Italy, France and Denmark asked the parties to refrain from military confrontation; at the other pole, in Peru and Brazil, several thousand people had volunteered to fight for the cause of Argentine. Then, the President of Peru came with a peace proposal for 72 hours; all countries participating in the O.A.S. meeting vehemently criticized British intervention in the islands and asking for the use of provisions requiring mutual assistance of the TIAR, request with which Alexander Haig, U.S. Secretary State for External Relations, said he did not agree, arguing that “it would not be proper or effective.”⁵⁴

The voice of reason, the logic and the concessions have disappeared when the battleships cannons began to shoot and the aircrafts with vertical take-off began to throw torrents of bombs devastating strategic areas of the archipelago. By torpedoing an Argentinian battleship with 1042 Argentine sailors on board, meant more than 600 dead,

⁵⁰ Brian McNair – *Op. cit.*, p. 264.

⁵¹ Stelian Țurlea – *Evoluții în conflictul argentiniano-britanic*, în revista „Lumea”, București, nr. 19 / 6 mai 1982, p.8

⁵² Stelian Țurlea – *O nouă fază*, în revista „Lumea”, București, nr. 18 / 29 aprilie 1982, p. 11

⁵³ Ibidem

⁵⁴ Ibidem

which, someone find sadly “amount to nearly half the population of disputed islands.”⁵⁵ Journalists, TV and radio broadcast producers, analysts and political commentators have quickly noticed the change in the evolution of the conflict: in less than one month after the start of it, passing to the statements of operetta, cheap propaganda, censorship and information manipulation, to bloody battles and human drama. That's how the situation was described then by foreign policy commentator: “The verbal greetings, the harsh warnings, the press releases and the counter press releases, the sequence of incredible circumstances on the dispute for minuscule-picked islets haunted by frozen winds, but placed in an interesting point for the obsessed spheres of influence strategies, negotiation which seemed like an absurd dialogue, the deaf, were followed by the onset of fighting. Some thought it would be only a war of nerves, or at most a political chess, where the pawns are represented by ships and aircraft. Others derided the deal, considering it an episode of operetta in a time when the planet has too many serious worries and authentic dilemmas. The operetta with South American rhythms, operetta with carnival uniforms, existed only in the commentators’ imagination. What happened in the Malvinas or Falklands (because the protagonists named differently the Islands) belongs to a drama with real characters. Lives are at stake, the young people forced to die for a piece of land flooded by ocean waves, an island in a political account, military and (possibly in the future) economically. In the trap of the event and because of the underestimation of the stakes, important political interests were found. Rhetorical exercises were not enough to save the appearances.”⁵⁶

The war from the frozen south was seen initially as a peripheral incident ranging from emphatic, false patriotic and emotional manifestations of the Argentines and the rigid impenetrable pride of the British, to degenerate then soon in violent clashes and bloody battles, resulting in destruction of goods and military equipment and what is more dramatic, with numerous human victims!

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⁵⁵ M. Ramură – *Șapte zile*, în revista „Lumea”, București, nr. 19 / 6 mai 1982, p. 8

⁵⁶ M. Ramură – *Art. cit.*, în revista „Lumea”, București, nr. 19 / 6 mai 1982, p. 8

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COMMUNICATION BETWEEN UNIVERSITY TEACHERS AND STUDENTS – BASIC ASPECT IN ACHIEVING ACADEMIC PERFORMANCES

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Abstract: *This paper is based on an analysis of difficulties present in didactic communication in the Romanian university system in the frame of the present law and of the new field strategy (Law no.1/2011). An inventory of communication barriers which has come out through the analysis of the perception of students from the Faculty of Sociology and Psychology of the West University of Timisoara regarding aspects of success and failure in interpersonal communication between them and the teachers in this institution will be presented. Also, some suggestions will be made as proposals and solutions meant to eliminate the communication barriers in the didactic interaction in the university system.*

Keywords: *didactic communication, analysis, university system, students, barriers*

Didactic communication through its diverse forms (interpersonal, group and even mass) has contributed to assign clear strategies necessary in the present Romanian education system. This was possible due to the effort made by significant specialists who published in the field literature of Romanian language (L. Soitu, V. Dospinescu, V. Prelici, G. Vaideanu, C. Salavastu, D.Salavastu, D. Saucan, S. Marcus, N. Mitrofan, A. Neculau, etc.)

The present time exigency, the new strategic and legal frame, the ranking of universities, correlating university education with labor market, the higher assertivity level of students require an improvement of communication competencies of the actors involved in university education system.

The National Education Law sustains the canon of basing decisions on dialog and consulting by respecting the right to an opinion of the students as a direct beneficiary of the education system (Article 3). The same law states at article 199 that students are considered partners of the higher education institutions and equal members of the academic community. In this context interpersonal communication in academic environment has a top position. We accept in this way what Lidia Cristea wrote in her study „The quality of communication in higher education” namely that *the sense of education is given by communication while the quality of education is given by the quality of communication.*

The practical part of this paper has the purpose of making an inventory of the communication barriers identified in the Faculty of Sociology and Psychology of the West University of Timisoara based on the teacher- students interaction (the results have been obtained by applying two questionnaires on a group of 267 students during the academic

year 2010-2011). We also found very useful the intimations made to the vice dean who is in charge of students' problems during the last 4 years, starting with 2008.

The most frequent occurring communication difficulties were the following:

1. Magistrocentric approach – those situations in which the teacher does not interact with the students, but he teaches knowledge, he has a monologue and in the best case he addresses some rhetorical questions which he answers himself in a pseudo- dialog (Săucan, 132). The referral is made to those teachers who read their courses without using interactive work methods or without using auxiliary techniques for teaching (overhead projector, retro projector etc.).

2. Semantic barriers- determined by the choice of words made by the teacher, so that the concept gets a different meaning from one student to the other. Here we refer to the usage of Anglicism's without a proper filter, of an unjustified high number of neologisms, of semantic in consequence's. To illustrate this last case we can refer to an other study done between 2006-2009 which has showed that when referring to the persons who should get support from the social workers teachers name them: beneficiaries, clients, assisted peoples or applicant. We also assist here at a methodological incoherence of teachers who do not properly organize their teaching activities.

3. Barriers which depend on the status of the interlocutor and here we refer to the superiority attitude arrogance and irony that have been reported to the dean's office since 2008. It is adequate to include here also the barriers raised by criticizing and moralizing students during teaching activities: lectures and seminars but mainly during evaluation in the exam period. We also encountered two cases of intimidation by the teaching staff towards the students which have escalated to true interpersonal conflicts. The authority style and the criticism in the academic teacher-students interaction (present in 12% of the answers given by the 267 students interviewed between 2010-2011) are situations which affect the quality of the educational process and the solutions have to be found by the academic teaching staff and by the head of department, dean, vice dean, ethics commission.

4. Stereotyping by the teacher with tendency to make differentiation based on the specialty field the students is studying their level of study, the teachers' previous extracurricular experience, and the students' previous academic achievements. At the deans office there were several intimations regarding teachers' attitude to treat differently students who are year leaders, are in the school council or are leaders of student organizations. All above mentioned elements may lead to demotivation of the students.

5. One more particular barrier in communication is that given by the uninterventionist method of the academic staff (the laissez-faire style) when the objectives of the teaching activity is not achieved due to the lack of the teachers involvement and participation.

6. Barriers due to the in consequence of the academic staff – referral is made to the requirements announced at the beginning of the semester and giving up on them or establishing other evaluation criteria during the exam period. Also establishing autocratic

evaluation rules is included here. This means that the evaluation made by the academic staff is not transparent, involving subjectivity or putting good marks to all students undifferentiated by the fact that they have accomplished their responsibilities, tasks, course or seminar attendance.

7. Communication barrier due to improper interaction through electronic mail. Regarding the intimations students who are attending distance learning there are situations when the teacher does not answer to the student's email or they give insufficient feedback. In these cases the students will hesitate contacting the teacher and the opportunity of getting information is lost, which is absolutely necessary for the tutorial activity.

All seven barrier categories are indicators of communication behavior that blocks the quality of the teaching process.

According to the present strategies of the Romanian university system now the students are in charge of making teachers evaluation at the end of each semester. This could contribute to eliminate these difficulties.

It would be necessary that as results of these evaluations of the staff made by students the most important barriers of communication between teachers and students are made public both at collective and individual level at each department. We mention this because of the intimations of some students related to these period assessment of the teaching process and of the teachers they make in which they have pointed to some difficulties encountered in the teaching activity but which have remained without results or solutions communicated back to the students.

The inventory of barriers realized on the bases of the intimations from the students and questionnaires filled out by students of the Sociology and Psychology Faculty pointed out the need for identifying solutions based on the improvement of competencies in pedagogic communication and which can be activated via trainings summer schools conferences. The meetings with representatives of students' organizations and continuing to offer students the possibility to present their problems during time allocated for this purpose at the deans and the head of department' office on a weekly bases.

We remind here the recommendations named by Lidia Cristea „education of communication”, this supposes to install a new didactic of communication which consists in:

- ☐ valuing self-knowledge through communication resources;
- ☐ familiarizing with all forms of the communication process;
- ☐ discovering latent personal availability;
- ☐ activating communication abilities;
- ☐ discovering the communication resources of the others;
- ☐ best usage of the multiple channels of didactic issuance and reception;
- ☐ valuing complete communication etc

(Lidia Cristea wrote these in her paper „Quality of communication in higher education with referral to the Berlin Conference of September 2003, which stipulate the quality of the education act in view of ensuring, by 2010, the European Further Education Area).

The described barriers have represented benchmarks for the activity of the activities of the last three edition of summer school of the Faculty of Sociology and Psychology of the West University of Timisoara were solutions have been identified to make didactic communication in each department more efficient.

The present paper wished to identify and describe in a short form examples of communication barriers but also of the solutions which were found.

We continue to underline the importance of adopting the present strategy of the higher education system, the professional and responsible attitude of the academic staff but also the consulting of the students in relationship to the difficulties they encounter. In the academic year 2011-2012 the evaluation of the teaching staff made by the students, the usage of questionnaires applied on the students will help the teachers from the Faculty of Sociology and Psychology of the West University of Timisoara to identify and prevent the occurrence of communication barriers and allow so the improvement of academic performances. We intend to complete this paper on the bases of the identified solutions at the end of the present academic year.

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THE DISCOURSE OF ADVERTISING: THE RHETORIC OF THE BEHAVIOURAL MODEL

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Abstract: *The spot represents a modern form of communication in advertising discourse and its goal consists in persuasion and generation of human attitudes. Defined as a semiotic process, the advertising spot, illustrated in a study case of Cosmote, restores and also re-establishes the real, sometimes symbolic and mythic, by means of rhetorics, which preserves the winner's attitudinal pattern. By means of the semio-stylistic analysis, we plead for the effect of advertising images on the human psychology.*

Keywords : *advertising, spot, communication, attitudinal pattern, persuasion*

0. The advertisement is a modern form of the discourse of advertising. It has a key role in building individual and collective identity. The purpose of advertising is to persuade and generate the product purchase behaviour. Here lays, in fact, its enormous strength. It may persuade the human being to buy a product because it used that element of power that has managed to seduce the individual, turning him from the receiver of the message into the consumer. In its approach to achieve this goal, advertising uses any means: the ancestral fears, religion, complexes and frustrations, sensational, or sexuality cultivating a whole range of emotions that the purchase of the product can offer: pleasure, euphoria, happiness, joy, delight. Even if the ads have an ephemeral nature, their effect persists and acts on the most receptive part of the psychic: the unconscious. The field of advertising is one of a very special dynamism. The roles, the situations, the places where men and women are present in the advertisements, the gender messages sent explicitly or implicitly - through non-verbal language, by colour, proximity, etc. are constantly changing. The evolution of gender models promoted by advertising is closely related to their development in society. The messages of the images of advertisements reflect the cultural values of the dominant groups. The advertising is a socio-cultural language that reflects humanity throughout time. The advertising discourse is considered a symbolic means of communication, built from a series of symbolic and mythical elements and structures. Thus, an important role is played by the context. In fact, communication is contextual advertising, par excellence. In addition to the definition of the communication of advertising, we add the following principles: everything represents communication (verbal or non-verbal), the communication of advertising is a continuous circular process, a symmetrical and / or complementary process and at the same time, a one-way process. The typology of the communication of advertising has as forms of discourse: the announcements, the advertisement and TV commercial - forms of advertising discourse (embodied in image advertised) that along with the journalistic

discourse (interview, news, account, story, portrait, investigation) define the journalistic style.

1. An Advertisement of *Cosmote*. Semio-stylistic interpretation

Conceived as a powerful advertising image, a superlative means of communication, the *Cosmote* commercial (company OTE Group, Greece), engages in the inflow the information considered absolutely mandatory to promote the product seen as a reference object propelled into the public offer (a target group interested in advertising). Once recognized as a semiotic process, the spot offers a decoding (interpretation) on at least three levels. Thus, a complete analysis of the complexity of the spot is interpretive and requires the following approaches: *syntactic- narrative, semantic and rhetorical*, and that is due to the fact that the material of the ad provides a relevant syncretism: the characters and calligraphy, the text and message, the image or the digital analogue, the harmony of the melodic line are all in agreement to establish a persuasive rhetoric and symbolic-mythical language which is innovative to marketing.

Cosmote ad that is broadcasted on national television channels, is falling within the **referential¹** advertising type according to which the reality is returned and restored, sometimes symbolically and mythically , through a rhetoric which preserves (as syntax) **the behavioural model of the invincible**.

The coordinates of the advertisement correspond to the solutions or responses given by the advertising questionnaire based on the quintet *W* [Roventă – Frumușani, 1999: 158]:

- *Who tells?* // ... the sender is the mobile phone company;
- *What to?* // ... about Cosmote offer;
- *Whom in?* //... the target-group is generous: it ignores the age limits, the profession / environment;
- *Which channel and with Which effects?* // ... by mediating the spot –a complete and comprehensive depiction of the advertising image

2. The Syntactic- Narrative Approach. The Behavioural Model

The isotopy of the advertising discourse, proposed by the advertising statement which is compositionally structured on the narrative that sums up sequences, events from human life, but also by an assertion of the idea of triumph, of momentum, culminating in the apotheosis of invincible courage, promotes a narrative discourse.

The narrative scheme follows the principle of simultaneity. Therefore, the advertising discourse syntax of this commercial is apparently dichotomously organized:

¹ *Cosmote* also promotes advertisements illustrative for the **ironic discourse** (even humorous!)

(1) **for you !**



(2) **for us !**... once *Cosmote* means „connection to life”!



There is an interesting psychology of the group that includes *Cosmote* as the personalized universe and an identity just promoted! It is a plea for the syntax **of the behavioural model**, developed, as we shall see, on the characterological and behavioural semantic fields. The behavioral model proposes time as the only generator of existence... *ephemeral*²; hence it is imposing itself as the core of the speech syntax. For the beginning the temporal coordinate is clearly defined: **a year of life**, an anniversary year!



The temporality appointed by the phrase "one year" covers, or even better said restrictively devours an anthropic space consumed at the level of the human of needs, the ambitions triumphantly completed similarly to a grand work of art! It is "a year" of challenges.



„Challengers”/ challenges to those who ignore barriers of any kind, the optimistic, romantic, etc. motivated in their actions, finally, to the strong character. Therefore, the presence of an attitudinal scale is clear ... of an exception addressed to "you": "for you!" This first behavioural section is developed simultaneously with the isotope of “friendship” – a group attitude, solidier in opinion and action, a triumph admitted at the end of the advertising narration by the phrase "connecting to life"!



² The connotation discussed here refers to the symbolism of time!

Through what? How ? Through ...



The behavioural model can be rendered by the diagram below:

Enunciating the temporal agent - ONE YEAR ...	Presenting the temporal saving agent – the same ONE YEAR ...	Solving the temporal conflict– ONE YEAR...	Generalizing the benefit
individual & ephemeral time (perishable)	universal & eternal time	„Passing- by ” or 3X FUN , fatidic event-related	IN TOUCH WITH LIFE
The amount of the behavioural attitudes as response to the challenges: daring, bold, optimistic, sure, motivated, triumphing, romantic → strong & enduring character if they were not threatened by the ephemeral: individual time "one year" ...	written in / as HISTORY: since THEN → NOW „one year” = 2000, year & minutes for communication	The amount of activities as a response to the collective juncture "together": work, relaxation, party, dialogue, friendship, emotions ...	Focus on life !
... FOR YOU !	2000 ...!	FOR US !	COSMOTE !

The last line of the behavioural model table, resulted in the imperative to connect to the mobile network: *Cosmote!* In fact, the advertising discourse presented updates a narrative of events, which presents temporal, causal and final relations and an argumentative scheme advocating the benefits obtained by connecting to *Cosmote!* It is worth noting the process of arranging two simultaneous images in the foreground showing one part of the message. Only together the images help to read the statement because the two parts are calling one another in the flow of life. For example, as shown in the images containing the emotional message:



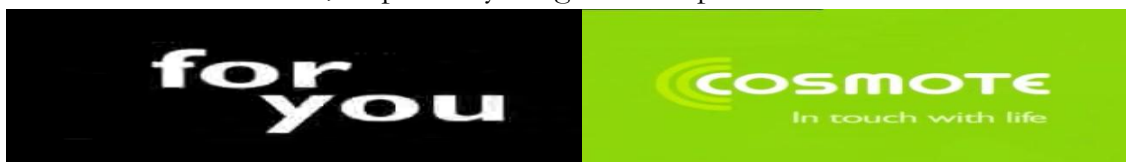
The consequent process of "cut-up" or "the cut" (cutting) corresponds on a rhetorical level, to the syntactic parallelism. The narrative scheme can be summarized by the phrasal archetypal version, a sort of model of the advertising discourse: **E** (announcing the time as an agent with double status: database, events preserving attitudes, strong characters and also the as an individual agent: individual time) + **P** (presenting the saving agent: the universal time, which "solidary" preserves the events at the level of humanity) + **R** (the initial remedies of the individual, ephemeral time throughout history: one year generically speaking: a year echoes of the behavioral triumphs) + **C** (the beneficial conclusion of connecting to life, to reality: *Cosmote!*)

2.1. The Semantic Approach

Referring to the discourse semantics for the advertisement in question, one must note the presence of the semantic fields having as their core: the time, the attitude and the action, the isotopes imposing the mobile telephone network as *praxis* (object) and as *semios* (sign of the telephone network).

As *praxis*, *Cosmote* is anticipated through the mediation of simultaneous representative images of the temporal and semantic fields of the anthropos - attitudes, actions, equivalent simultaneity and syntactic parallelism in rhetoric. Therefore, as an object, *Cosmote* operates as a network simultaneous with the need to anchor in / from communication, to an anthropic environment stimulated by attitude, gesture, action, signs, in one word: communication! As *semiosis*, *Cosmote*, through its slogan „**IN TOUCH WITH LIFE**“, becomes a sign of communication that ignores not only space but also time! "Cosmo (s)" - the universe - & "te (...-ri-to-ry," topos) becomes the component of the universe of communication "a promised land" beyond time!

The isotopy of the *ephemeral vs. eternal* temporal is visually highlighted by the tone of the colours: *white / black*, respectively the *green* of hope.



Interesting is the initial onset of *Cosmote* slogan: why not the vestiges of the Cosmic Eye



The three concentric semicircles seem to resume representation of waves captured from the universe, the cosmos: *Cosmote* is nothing but the magnet or the gap where attitudes and anthropic actions shall be continuously stored! "The electromagnetic waves" anticipate knowledge, communication.

The entire narrative grammar guides the ad's purpose towards the projection of the self in the universal time, towards *illo tempore* where the party (the group fun) is registered in the collective memory as a brilliant moment "fun"! three times "fun"!



The final sequence, built on the so-called „*mise en abîme*”³ technique – the picture frame that resumes an image that reflects the same experience, and thus the inference contained with the infinite joy of spending time with friends, this last sequence contains the exclamation FUN! as ultimate expression of joy to communicate with the Other!

The last messages located on the optimistic green, captures gratitude of the mobile company for the confidence shown. The message is built on the same principle of the shift of direction by overlapping the messages, but this time, there is a sequence that ends the communicative triangle:



... It seems that out of the behavioural model expressed by the syntax of the discourse, relevant is the attitude of trust, belief that you are actually the advertising agent. In conclusion: „Connect yourself to life!” ... because you are part of the universe, you yourself as a cosmos ... an attitudinal one!

2.2. The Rhetoric Approach

The discourse of the advertisement for *Cosmote* is of an epideictic (laudatory) nature. The cronotopic argumentation - for individual & universal time, namely the universe of "communication" as unlimited space - is specific to the epideictic, symbolically indexed by *Cosmote*'s advertising hyper-sign "**Cosmos**" & / as "territory" or "your cosmos!"

2.2.1. The Iconic Rhetoric

Privilege of plenary experiences, the discourse of advertising used to promote the mobile phone company, is promoting human values, virtues, maximum emotional states, attitudes recorded in a possible code of ethics which tends to become an influential framework in personalizing the object of this commercial: *Cosmote*! Therefore, the images and messages "hide" the mechanisms of the iconic and symbolic rhetoric. Depending on the rhetoric operation (adjunction, deletion, substitution, permutation) and the relationship between the constituent elements of the discourse of advertising (identity, similarity, difference, opposition, false counterparts) [Rovența-Frumușani, 1999: 169-170], in *Cosmote* commercial, we can inventory the following rhetorical iconic figures:

³ Actually, the image could be interpreted as „a story within a story” ... just like in Boccaccio's *Decameron* , or, why not , as in Sadoveanu's stories from *Hanu Ancuței*!

The relationship between constituents	The rhetoric operation			
	Adjunction	Removal	Substitution	Permutation
Identity	Repetition : 3 x fun		The hyperbole: flight, weightlessness	The Inversion: strange positions (body in flight, view from above, from behind)
Form and content similarity	Comparison: the time which personalizes, humanizes	-----	Allusion to the temporal dichotomy: individual vs universal time; „for you” vs „for us” etc. Metaphor : the whole behavioural model ...	Homology: the birth of a child & that of the mobile telephony
Difference	Accumulation of images and meanings to advocate for behavioural model	----	Metonymy: states, attitudes, represented by the engaging holistic of the kinetic image (flight, movement, sports, etc. dialogue.	Asyndeton : image in shifted bands
Opposition of form and content	The antithesis : you / we	----	-----	
False homologues, paradox	The paradox of temporality		-----	-----

2.2.2. The Linguistic Rhetoric

The rhetorical-linguistic approach offers the opportunity for a complementary perception of the image accompanied by the linguistic text, word, syntax and iconic rhetoric. The text is written on two lines consecutively exposed to reception. The images that support the text message are different: they are complementary to the idea embodied in the whole message. For example, the images contain different text in the foreground, while in the background there is the other part of the message.



Only together the texts become a speech on liberation, on flight seen as a Dionysian state!

On a *semantic level*, the interpretation will be made having as a starting point the rhetoric figures of speech prevailing in spot: the *metaphor* and *metonymy* that assume the linguistic text by a word order positioned at the forefront of kinetic framework. The text of the advertisement is a metaphorical and metonymical cumulus. The metaphors are approaching the behavioural model built by the accumulation of states in response to the challenges - "The Challengers": the metaphor of the flight releasing positive energies, desires, frustrations; Dionysian state built up with the help of *inversion*, thus the permutation taking place together with the hyperbolic space to which they aspire. Complementing the metaphor of flight is the sky, image which leads to that "visual nirvana" (Bachelard) – a sign of the apolonic!

Likewise, the metonymy serves to surprise the defining sequence pattern for the behavioural model: that metaphor of flight, of the release of the Dionysian state, maintained by the metonymy of the action, of the event that connects man to life.

While the first section of the advertisement ends, as noticed with the expression of individuality "for you", of the identity that aspires to an alternative, the second section is controlled by the phrase "for us" referring to the idea of group, community, of challenge in friendship. The object of this challenge is the slogan - „**IN TOUCH WITH LIFE**” – supported by the *logo*: the image of the universal eye that is given the *Cosmote* lexeme which certifies an identity and a possible otherness (for us!) in the universe of communications and communication! The generous interpretation triggered by the iconic rhetoric and the syntactic-narrative level of the commercial, is now possible due to the complex *polisemantism* ⁴ found at the level of linguistic terms present in the speech. Another linguistic procedure, together with polysemy, is composition. For example: even the company's logo: *Cosmote*, whose meaning I have mentioned in our analysis: "Cosmos" + / "cosmic territory"! Meaning universe! Or why not: cosmos + telephony → *a universal telephone network!* The repetition of the temporal lexeme: „a year” contains itself the antinomy meaning too: + / - restriction or limitation vs. endlessness. „One

⁴ The temporal polisemantism has already been analyzed in the syntactic-narrative interpretation of the advertisement.

year” / „a year”, repeated and accompanied by either the junction „*together with*” having a collective meaning, of solidarity, or by the temporal deictic: „*then vs now*” or the numeral of the present: *2000* – a restrictive temporal sequence, as year or minute, which seems to advocate through *antinomy* the paradox of leaving the extent of restriction and inclusion in the universal time, by a status of universal identity!

At a **logical-syntactic level**, what is relevant is the *inter-text* and the *syntactic determinations in semantic "arborescent" networks* that circumvent consecutive message plans, which have already been commented. As inter-text, we mention the imperative challenging statement: "the revolution starts!" an interesting form of present only in the Romanian language - to realize the importance of time for history, as a recorded event! The advertising announcement inserted into the image of the commercial is also seen as an inter-text, as an event worthy to remember: It is a "personal" inter-text of recognition, of the company's promotion.

The syntactic determinations are exemplified by the construction of the phrase: „a year”/„one year” which have the cumulative role of attitudes and states manifested through COMMUNICATION!



The revelations of the **symbolical-mythological code** are also interesting in this advertisement: *the dionisiac vs the apolinic, the sky, the fire, the water, the land*, and then the symbolism of the value *white vs. black* or *green*. Some aspects have been previously interpreted. Others may be subject to infinite symbolic inference, once the ad, the advertising, the speech and the advertising image are being symbolically built.

The sound level or the soundtrack is original but not necessarily due to the artistic expressions of the text sung but rather due to the rhythm, harmony and the imperative appellation: *in order to be always the winner, release your positive moods! Lift me up!* Hope, longing and desire to respond to the challenges are backed by the soundtrack of the song: „*Lift me up!*”... that we could translate by the imperative: „***Set me free!***” and not word by word: „*Raise me up!*” **Moby**'s band song has lyrics full of hope, which encourage a dynamic tone, a certain pace of events depicting the same type of human being: the invincible one! LIFT ME UP !

Plain talking

Like strung-out old stars.

Served us so well

Take us so far

Travelled through hell

Broken down cars

Plain talking

We know how it felt.

Lift me up, lift me up	Making us bold	Sweeter than tough.
Higher now up now	So strong out and cold	
Lift me up, lift me up	Feeling so old.	Lift me up, lift me up
Higher now up now.		Higher now up now
	Plain talking	Lift me up, lift me up
	Has ruined us now	Higher now up now.
Plain talking	You never know how	

The advertising image maintains the hope to connect to reality: **KEEP YOUR STATE!**



KEEP YOURSELF BETWEEN APOLINIC & DIONISIAC!

CONCLUSIONS: Whether they know it or not, the ads have a major effect on most people. This is why major producers invest huge sums in advertising. Advertising remains a privileged means of communication. It combines words, images and sounds in an attempt to seduce, which works every time. Indisputably. In decrypting the meanings of an advertisement, the individual uses all his knowledge, the entire dowry of images and feelings that they summed up over his existence.

Today, advertising is an active, exciting area which meets with a surprising dynamic. The creators of advertisements always manage to overcome more and more limitations in their attempt to persuade. The creation of advertisements is a continuous struggle with the daily, with the dull, and the insignificant. It seeks to get us out of the dullness of everyday life and to create other worlds, infinitely more fascinating. High quality advertising requires originality, a lively spirit and finesse in the formation of attitudinal models. Advertising is an evolution; a continuous rise. **Advertising is a genuine form of culture.**

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LES ROUMAINS EN ESPAGNE. REFLEXION MEDIATIQUE

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Abstract: *The article studies the mediatic reflection of the Romanian community from Spain, considering that migration may no longer be perceived as instantaneous and unpredictable phenomenon, but as one with multiple determinations (historical, behavioral, economic, social, etc.) as well as with various forms of manifestation. Thus, the author argues that the immigrant acts as a representative of his or her country of origin in a different cultural environment, in a different civilization, while the country of origin continues to be responsible for his or her socio-cultural condition as well as for the way its image is reflected in the media of the country of adoption.*

Keywords: *immigration, exile, media, community, diaspora*

Les dernières décennies, la migration internationale s'est imposée comme un phénomène qui a restructuré et a redimensionné la population de l'Union Européenne, en se constituant comme source principale de croissance démographique.¹

La première décade du XXIème siècle a connu de grandes vagues de migration, autant à l'intérieur de l'UE qu'aussi au dehors. Ainsi, en 2008, le nombre de ceux qui ont migré vers et dans les états membres UE s'élève à environ 3,8 millions, en comparaison avec seulement 2,3 millions d'émigrants des états UE. D'ici résulte la croissance de 1,5 millions de résidents en faveur des états européens.

Ainsi, nous remarquons que le phénomène de l'émigration représente aujourd'hui l'un des grands problèmes, respectivement des provocations du XXIème siècle.

Un autre effet du phénomène de l'émigration que les états d'immigration le supporte, constitue la croissance de l'hétérogénéité culturelle, effet ressenti dans les problèmes parus dans le projet d'harmonisation des relations sociales. Une telle situation,

¹ Pour le phénomène de la migration consultez : Nicoleta Daniel Andreescu, Aurel Teodorescu, L'émigration des roumains en but de travail après 1990, Ed. Yes SRL, Bucharest, 2004; Dana Diminescu, L'exercice difficile de la libre circulation: une introduction dans l'histoire de la migration récente des roumains, dans La sociologie de la migration. *Des théories et des études de cas roumaines*, Ed. Polirom, Iași, 2009; V. Drăgoi, C. Alexandru, La migration et l'asile dans le contexte de l'adhérence de la Roumanie à l'Union Européenne, ed. Ministerului de Interne, București, 2002; David Goldblatt, David Held, Anthony McGrew, Jonathan Perraton, *Des transformations globales, politique, économie et culture*, traduction Ramona-Elena Lupașcu, Adriana Straub, Mihaela Bordea, Alina-Maria Turcu, Ed. Polirom; Istvan Horvath, Remus Gabriel Anghel, la Sociologie de la migration. *Des théories et des études de cas roumaines*, Edition Polirom, Iași, 2009; Jeff Huysmans, *The politics of insecurity: fear, migration and asylum in the EU*, Ed. Routledge, Londra, 2006; Peter Stalker, *Workers without frontiers: the impact of globalization on international migration*, Ed. Lynne Rienner Publishers, Londra, 2000; Dumitru Sandu, *Les mondes sociaux de la migration roumaine à l'étranger*, Polirom, 2010; La sociologie de la migration. *Des théories et des études de cas roumaines*, volume coordonnée par Remus Gabriel Anghel et Istvan Horvath, Polirom, 2009

combinée avec une dose de l'intolérance (racisme culturel) des sociétés majoritaires, peut générer la marginalisation sociale et des tensions interculturelles. Bien sûr, grâce aux certaines pratiques infractionnelles rencontrées parmi certains immigrés, la migration peut créer aussi un sentiment d'insécurité pour les citoyens de certaines localités. Mais, il y a des cas spéciaux, quand parmi les émigrants nous rencontrons aussi beaucoup de gens honnêtes, des ouvriers, des étudiants, des intellectuels, des fonctionnaires.

De crainte de l'impact que l'émigration peut avoir au marché de travail, comme serait par exemple la croissance du chômage parmi les autochtones, on peut également naître des tensions entre les nouveaux venus et les gens du pays. Pour les pays d'immigration, il y a aussi beaucoup d'aspects positifs: le profit des employeurs, qui tirent profit du travail bon marché des émigrants ; puis, les émigrants représentent un facteur de vivacité de l'évolution démographique, spécialement dans les sociétés où on peut parler d'un vieillissement de la population, beaucoup de secteur économiques des états de l'Ouest deviennent dépendants du travail des émigrants. Jean Philippe Chauz, le porte-parole de l'Organisation Internationale de la Migration a déclaré à l'Agence de Presse Reuter : *Sans quelques immigrants légaux, les européens seraient obligés de travailler plusieurs heures, en prenant leurs retraites plus tard et, probablement, ils devraient aussi renoncer à quelques retraites d'état et des assurances médicales, parce que moins de travailleurs payeront moins de taxes et moins de contributions au système. L'immigration est un avantage!*

Mais, ce phénomène, outre qu'il représente une solution possible de dépassement des situations de crise, il apporte encore une série de conséquences négatives : une perte massive de capital humain pour le pays d'origine des émigrants, une crise de la famille (le taux des mariages et des natalités baissent), des problèmes d'adaptabilité, l'acquisition d'une nouvelle identité).

Dans leur complexité, les problèmes de l'émigration, sont surpris dans le mass-média. En ce sens, j'ai parcouru le quotidien *Le Roumain d'Espagne*, publication représentative pour les émigrants de la Péninsule Ibérique.

On pose la question pourquoi j'ai choisi l'Espagne comme objet d'analyse. Au cours de vingt dernières années, l'Espagne, d'un pays important d'émigration, est devenue un pays d'immigration. Après sa transformation en membre de la Communauté Européenne en 1986, une période de croissance économique a transformé l'Espagne dans une destination convoitée pour la migration de travail. En 1987, à peu près 300.000 de migrants se sont enregistrés, pour que dans les dix suivantes années leur nombre arrivent à 500.000.

Dans les cinq dernières années, après les Etats Unis de l'Amérique, l'Espagne est devenue le deuxième pays d'immigration du monde, en recevant en moyenne par an à peu près 600.000 d'immigrants. Confrontées avec le fort flux des immigrants, les autorités espagnoles ont essayé tout au long des années, de répondre aux provocations générées

par le nouveau phénomène², sans trouver quand même, des solutions toujours viables à la multitude de problèmes parus, d'autant moins après le déclenchement de la crise.

Tout comme les sources officielles retiennent, en Espagne vit une communauté de 830.000 de Roumains, l'une des plus grandes communautés, après les latino-américains et les maghrébins. Les sources non-officielles indiquent une chiffre de plus d'un million. La majorité des Roumains sont venus en Espagne dans les dix dernières années, ils étant répartis sur tout l'entier territoire de l'Espagne, avec de grandes concentrations de population dans la région de Valencia ou à Castellon de la Plana (où vivent environ 24 000 de Roumains). Par rapport à la population de la ville, qui a environ 180 000 d'habitants, le dernier c'est un très grand pourcentage. Parmi les émigrants de cette localité, les Roumains représentent la minorité la plus consistante, où le nombre des émigrants est de 38 000. De communautés importantes nous rencontrons aussi à Coslada de Madrid, où habitent 22 000 roumains, à Alcala de Henares où se trouvent 20 000 émigrants roumains, ou à Torrejan de Ardoz, ayant 8 500 émigrants roumains. Parmi les régions, la plus grande est la région de Madrid, avec 218 000 Roumains, puis la communauté valencienne avec 150 000 roumains et Catalonia, avec 100 000 Roumains.

Pour une radiographie plus exacte des réalités roumaines de l'Espagne, nous avons parcouru la quotidien intitulé *Le Roumain de l'Espagne*, les numéros des trois dernières années, 2009, 2010 et 2011, période marquée par les effets de la crise économique. Je considère que ce quotidien est un miroir fidèle des réalités roumaines. Réalisé en excellentes conditions graphiques et doublé par un marketing intelligent, il a été publié en plus de 25 000 exemplaires. Ce quotidien est baromètre de la problématique des Roumains en Espagne.

En ce qui concerne la thématique, les problèmes générés par la crise occupent le plus grand espace. Ainsi, le n° 19 paru le 27 janvier 2010, par la réduction des salaires et par l'apparition du phénomène du chômage, enregistre une détérioration des conditions de la vie. Une étude réalisée sur un échantillon de 3 283 d'immigrants montre que la moitié d'entre eux ont un salaire entre 600 – 1 000 d'euros. Généralement, les salaires sont plus petits avec 10 % que dans l'année précédente.

La situation des émigrants roumains reflètent les phénomènes généraux de la crise en Espagne, des centaines de chômeurs (plus de 40 % d'entre eux en 2011) et une diminution drastique des salaires. Selon les données officielles, au niveau de l'UE, l'Espagne se trouve parmi les états les plus affectés par la crise, 20 % des citoyens espagnoles. Dans le cas des Roumains résidents, le chômage a affecté un pourcentage plus grand de personnes³. Bien sûr, les chômeurs sont enregistrés officiellement, mais probablement, leur nombre est plus grand. Un article paru au mois de janvier 2010 montre que pendant la crise le nombre de ceux qui travaillent sans contrat a augmenté de

² Oana Ciobanu, Tim Elrick, *Politiques de migration et des stratégies des migrants transnationaux entre la Roumanie et l'Espagne*, dans La sociologie de la migration. Des théories et des études de cas roumaines, Ed. Polirom, Iași, 2009

³ *Le Roumain de l'Espagne*, n° 45, février 2011, p. 3.

18,4 % à 22,3 %, mais aussi a augmenté le nombre de ceux qui ont un contrat temporaire de travail⁴.

Pour les Roumains, en général pour les émigrants, une conséquence de la crise a été aussi la baisse des fonds pour l'intégration des immigrants, tout comme a mentionné le ministre régional de l'intégration, Rafael Blasco, dans la région de Valencia. En compensation avec la baisse des fonds, par l'intermédiaire de quelques associations charitables, les gestes concernant l'aide des personnes défavorisées se sont multipliés.

Pendant l'année 2010, est rappelée fréquemment la Banque des nourritures de Castellon, affiliée à la Fédération espagnole des Banques de nourritures. En Castellon, il y a 300 de familles restées sans moyens d'existence et qui sont les bénéficiaires de tels aides. Une grande partie des pages du quotidien sont destinées aux problèmes identitaires, en reflétant la préoccupation des communautés des Roumains en Espagne pour maintenir la langue, les coutumes, les fêtes officielles, les éléments identitaires qui leur conservent la nationalité.

En provenant d'un pays dans lequel l'église est considérée l'une des institutions les plus sûres de la vie publique, les communautés des Roumains ont réussi de créer plusieurs chapelles et églises. Ainsi, le quotidien *Le Roumain de l'Espagne* enregistre fréquemment la consécration d'une chapelle, l'acquisition d'un espace pour la religion, en général celle orthodoxe, à laquelle appartient la majorité des émigrants.

A Madrid, où est concentrée une grande communauté de Roumains, en 2010 on a commencé la construction d'une cathédrale. Aussi, dans l'idée de la conservation de l'identité, les communautés roumaines cultive les coutumes liées aux fêtes de Noël et de Pâques. Spécialement le Noël est une fête vécue avec émotion, avec la tradition des chansons de Noël, qui se pratique dans les lieux publics ou dans la maison des fidèles. Presque toutes les associations culturelles de Zaragoza, Madrid, Barcelone, Valencia, Toledo, Castellon organisent les concerts des chansons de Noël autant roumaines qu'espagnoles ou universelles.

Même s'ils se trouvent à quelques milles kilomètres de leur pays, et quelquefois ils manifestent leur frustration d'avoir quitté leur patrie, les communautés roumaines organisent la fête de la Journée Nationale de la Roumanie ou d'autres journées du calendrier national qui évoquent des événements de l'histoire des Roumains ou une série de personnalités du panthéon national. Ainsi, chaque année, le 15 janvier est marqué comme jour de naissance du poète Mihai Eminescu, considéré le poète national des Roumains, tout comme Cervantes ou Lope de Vega pour les espagnols. Il est évident que le quotidien *Le Roumain de l'Espagne* accorde une place spéciale pour remarquer la préoccupation des communautés en ce qui concerne le maintien de l'identité, en relatant beaucoup d'informations sur ce thème. Par exemple, dans le numéro 23, paru au mois de mars 2010, on relate qu'une famille de Roumains de Séville a apporté une maison de bois de Roumanie, une maison spécifique à l'architecture traditionnelle des paysans roumains⁵.

⁴ Idem, n° 19, janvier 2010, pp. 12-13.

⁵ Idem, n° 23, mars 2010, p. 14.

Presque toutes les communautés invitent fréquemment des chanteurs roumains de la musique populaire ou d'autre genre.

Dans les pages du quotidien, une attention spéciale s'accorde aux aspects qui mettent en évidence les faits positifs des communautés, les succès remportés par les Roumains de l'Espagne, la notoriété qu'ils réussissent d'acquérir. Par exemple, une salle de sport de Séville porte le nom de la grande gymnaste Nadia Comăneci, le succès remporté à Toscana par Mihnea Ignat, le chef d'orchestre de la Philharmonie de l'Université d'Alicante, le succès et la notoriété du peintre roumain Augustin Ghebaru, avec la collection *Vis Flamenco*.

Préoccupé de transmettre des messages positifs, le quotidien surprend l'attitude des autorités vis-à-vis des Roumains, en générale une attitude positive, de tolérance : *la Mairie de Toledo accorde de l'appui aux Roumains pour pouvoir célébrer les Pâques*⁶. *Les Roumains se sont fait une image de gens travailleurs* – déclare le maire de Torre, Jean de Ardoz ; *Les Roumains ont donné un coup de main, en contribuant au développement de la ville de Castellon et ils ont une contribution dans le dépassement de la crise économique* – selon Carmen Amaros Granell, conseiller au Département de Bien-être Social et de Création d'emplois à la Mairie De Castellon. *Madrid ne serait ce qu'il est à présent, sans les Roumains* – déclare Gabriel Fernandez Royas, le vice-ministre d'immigration. En général, se sont des titres qui transmettent des messages positifs pour la communauté de Roumains.

Généralement, le quotidien insiste sur les aspects positifs en ce qui concerne l'image des Roumains en Espagne ; en comparaison avec la presse de la Roumanie, qui enregistre les aspects négatifs des communautés. Bien sûr, dans ce quotidien sont relatés aussi les faits répréhensibles ou l'attitude quelquefois hostile de certaines forces politiques de l'Espagne, par exemple le cas de l'organisation *Espana 2000*, parti d'orientation néonaziste⁷.

Pendant l'année 2010, spécialement dans les derniers mois, une attention spéciale s'est accordée à la mobilisation des Roumains pour la participation aux élections locales, ayant comme devise *Tu as choisi l'Espagne, tu choisis maintenant ton maire*⁸. La campagne électorale a eu comme conséquence le fait que plus 102 182 de Roumains ont participé aux élections de 22 mai 2010 en Espagne, même si la population ayant le droit de vote enregistre plus de 650 000 du total de 830 000 de Roumains.

Pendant la campagne électorale promue aussi par le quotidien *Le Roumain de l'Espagne* ont apparu fréquemment les déclarations des leaders politiques à l'adresse des Roumains, la mise que certains accordent pour leur vote. Pour le quotidien, la participation des Roumains aux élections représentait une chance de marquer son identité, de transmettre aux politiciens espagnols que les Roumains s'inquiètent, de vraies impulsions à l'intégration des Roumains dans la société espagnole. Puis des messages mobilisateurs : *Le vote est une obligation vis-à-vis de la famille ; Ne rater pas la chance de montrer que*

⁶ Idem, n° 23, mars 2010, p. 5.

⁷ Idem, n° 21, février 2010, p. 4.

⁸ Ibidem, p. 4.

*les Roumains ont une éducation démocratique et ils sont des citoyens invisibles qui paient les impôts et ils consomment, mais ils n'ont rien à dire*⁹.

La publication des Roumains en Espagne enregistrent bien sûr aussi des événements de la vie quotidienne, des préoccupations majeures des communautés, la vie en famille, le mariage, le baptême, tout ce qui complète l'univers de la communauté.

En guise de conclusion, la migration ne peut pas être appréciée comme un phénomène instantané, imprévisible, la circulation des personnes a de multiples déterminations – historiques, comportementales, économiques, sociales – des manifestations les plus diverses, ce qui nous persuade que la présente construction européenne ne peut pas exclure ce phénomène, ci inclus la migration informationnelle, la communication. La migration représente un problème d'une grande actualité, avec de multiples problèmes, des conséquences autant pour le pays d'origine des émigrants que pour le pays de destination, mais aussi de communication, d'image. L'émigrant est le représentant du pays d'origine dans un autre milieu culturel, dans une autre civilisation, mais le pays d'origine est encore responsable, autant pour sa condition sociale, culturelle, qu'aussi pour son image, pour la manière dans laquelle il se reflète au pays d'adoption, dans le mass-média.

⁹ Idem, n° 42, décembre 2010, p. 3.

THE PERSPECTIVE OF COMMUNICATION IN THE PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIP

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Abstract: *Parent-child communication is extremely useful for the harmonious development of children, for learning of social models, but also for the socialization between parent and child. Although most children of our times are exposed to various models, parents remain the most valuable and important models for children, which is why it is necessary to define the role of communication in the parent-child relationship for the optimal interaction between them. The purpose of this study is twofold: on the one hand, it focuses on presenting the elements of success in parent-child communication, and on the other hand it tries to identify the main barriers that may interfere with parental communication process.*

Keywords: *parent-child communication, children development, socialization, models*

1. Conceptual preliminaries

The parent-child relationship can be considered one of the most significant in the spectrum of human relationships, because it involves broad and complex feelings, emotions, states, events and actions. For this relationship to be successful, a lot of willingness, patience and communication, both from parents and from children, are involved.

“Communication is a process by which information is exchanged between individuals through a common system of symbols, signs and behaviours.” (Agabrian, M., 2008, 16)

Within the family, the child learns best to communicate both directly and indirectly, so that, by any action, he/she develops his skills.

“Communication is what provides emotional and intellectual provisions and similar ways to respond to expectations and requirements.” (Dewey, J. apud. Dobrescu, P., 1999)

Social skills possessed by parents help and ensure effective communication with their children and meet the requirements of the children involved in the interaction.

Communication is a system made up of several components called subsystems. These subsystems are the factors that influence the system, both inside and outside, continuously. These subsystems of communication can sometimes be barriers to the parent-child communication process, which reduces efficiency and fidelity of the message or can even obstruct its transmission. We propose to describe some of the potential barriers involved in parental communication:

Disturbance of listening

Parental communication (communication between parent and child) involves two complementary skills and abilities, the transmitter and receiver. This implies, besides the ability to convey the message correctly and in an appropriate context, that there must be a skill of learning in order to understand the person that you are talking to, that helps us decipher what he/she is trying to tell us.

Parents and children practice three types of listening that differ by purpose, as well as by the quantity and quality of the feedback provided:

a. *Listening for message content*, which helps understanding and retention. It does not matter if the receiver agrees with what the sender transmits. Important at this stage is to understand the message.

b. *Critical listening*, which already involves direct interaction in order to discover which is the view of the interlocutor. In this phase the information received and, in an analytical filter, the important elements of the message are evaluated.

c. *Empathic listening*, which helps us to perceive the message sent by the transmitter in order to understand feelings, needs, expectations and desires, and to evaluate the message, whether or not it is shared by the receiver.

Stereotypes

Stereotyping is frequently found in oral communication. Stereotyping in parental communication is the "label" or a "default" image that parents and children have in their minds, which has an impact on the reception, the encoding and the transmission of the message.

Cultural stereotypes generate, in an indirect way, preconceived images and false ideas about those with whom we communicate, which generate prejudices that turn into communication barriers because underlying behaviours and negative emotions, in a way, directly affect social relationships.

The parent is often not aware that his own behaviour generates within the child a reality that does nothing but confirm expectations in the relationship with the child.

Lying

In a world of inverted values, lying can be perceived even as a form of human communication which is necessary, contemporary and updated within interpersonal communication, parental communication and mass communication and is related the need of individuals to defend themselves and to adapt to different roles and social contexts

Effective and durable parental communication must be based on truth and not lie. Parents must provide attitudes and actions to their children with the help of words, as well as the idea that the truth remains, however, the safest lie.

2. Study design

To find which is the role of parental communication, but also to present the elements of success in parental communication and the barriers involved in it, we undertook an investigation which uses questions with an analytical function that intend to propose reflection on parental communication.

Designed as a direct investigation and made with students - operators from Social Department of the West University of Timisoara, our survey was based on a questionnaire with 16 questions, whose answers allowed the theoretical systematization of the data obtained by transposing the personal impressions of the subjects. The questionnaire explores the habits and attitudes that parents have in communicating with their own children.

The subjects investigated are parents with one or more children. The lot of parents investigated comprises of 50 married persons, between 25 and 55 years old, 28 female and 22 male individuals from the city of Timisoara, Timis county.

Research hypotheses

Assumptions on *empathic listening* were as follows:

- If it exists in the relationship between parent and child, then communication between them is more efficient.
- If it does not exist, a blockage can occur in the parental communication.

Assumptions on *honest communication* were:

- If it exists in the relationship between parent and child, then communication between them is more efficient.
- If it does not exist, a blockage can occur in the parental communication.

Assumptions on *trust in communication* were:

- If it exists in the relationship between parent and child, then communication between them is more efficient.
- If it does not exist, a blockage can occur in the parental communication.

Operationalization of concepts

Empathic listening- helps us to hear not only words but also makes us understand the transmitter's feelings, needs and desires so we can evaluate his/her view, whether or not we agree with it. Through empathic listening, we let the other talk, without judging feelings and without giving advice.

Honest communication- is the ability to convey through words and gestures, the whole of the message in a fair and open way, without transmitting only half of the truth. Honesty is the trait and ability of individuals to tell the truth.

Trust in the communication – is the attitude which accompanies the message, sent by the transmitter to the receiver, and vice versa, through words, gestures, mimics, in which

the other perceives and understands that he/she can feel confident when communicating the message. It is a more profound form of communication.

3. Interpretation of results

We present a series of questions and data on which we conducted a statistical processing within the study made on the investigated group:

Question 1- When my son speaks to me, do I listen carefully?

This question obtained the following responses: 79% of subjects chose *always*, while 21% opted for *sometimes*.

Question 2- In our family, empathic listening to the child is most important?

This question obtained the following responses: 55% of subjects chose *always*, while 45% opted for *sometimes*.

Question 3- I believe that spanking is the best way to make my child listen to me?

This question obtained the following answers: 5% of subjects chose *always*, while 15% opted for *sometimes* and 80% have opted for *no*.

Question 4- After a contradictory discussion with my child, I happen not to talk to him more often?

This question obtained the following answers: 4% of subjects chose *always*, while 40% opted for *sometimes* and 56% have opted for *never*.

Question 5- Do I always say what I think when talking to my child?

This question obtained the following answers: 84% of subjects chose *always*, while 8% opted for *sometimes* and 8% have opted for *never*.

Question 6- When my child does not listen to me, do I get angry or start to cry?

This question obtained the following answers: 7% of subjects chose *always*, while 35% opted for *sometimes* and 58% have opted for *never*.

Question 7- In my family, what is mostly emphasised is communicating with the child?

This question obtained the following answers: 89% of subjects chose *always*, while 9% opted for *sometimes* and 2% have opted for *never*.

Question 8- Before I say anything to my child, do I look into his eyes?

This question obtained the following answers: 70% of subjects chose *always*, while 26% opted for *sometimes* and 4% have opted for *never*.

Question 9- Am I always willing to communicate when my child tries to speak to me?

This question obtained the following answers: 86% of subjects chose *always*, while 12% opted for *sometimes* and 2% have opted for *never*.

Question 10- Do I think that my child needs and wants are more important than my own needs and desires?

This question obtained the following responses: 82% of subjects chose *always*, while 18% opted for *sometimes*.

Question 11- Do I realize that, although wrongly, my child has good reason to behave as such?

This question obtained the following answers: 10% of subjects chose *always*, while 74% opted for *sometimes* and 16% have opted for *never*.

Question 12- If I would be more authoritative with my child, would he/ she love me less?

This question obtained the following answers: 2% of subjects chose *always*, while 52% opted for *sometimes* and 46% have opted for *in no way*.

Question 13-Do I happen to hide the mistakes of the child from my spouse?

This question obtained the following answers: 10% of subjects chose *always*, while 48% opted for *sometimes* and 42% have opted for *never*.

Question 14- Do I generally refuse the requests of my child when he/she does not behave properly?

This question obtained the following answers: 20% of subjects chose *always*, while 74% opted for *sometimes* and 6% have opted for *never*.

Question 15- Every time when my child has a problem, does he/she not hesitate to ask me help?

This question obtained the following answers: 52% of subjects chose *always*, while 40% opted for *sometimes* and 8% have opted for *never*.

Question 16- Do I refrain from punishing the child until I am sure that he/she is the guilty party?

This question obtained the following answers: 73% of subjects chose *always*, while 16% opted for *sometimes* and 11% opted for *never*.

Following statistical correlations we obtained the following results:

- We can say that there is a significant correlation between empathic listening and effective communication between parent and child (Pearson coefficient = 0.39, df = 48, $p < 0.005$). The probability of obtaining this correlation by chance is less than 0.045 ($p < 0.005$).
- We can say that there is a significant correlation between openness and effective communication between parent and child (Pearson coefficient = 0.03, df = 48, $p < 0.004$). The probability of obtaining this correlation by chance is less than 0.004 ($p < 0.004$).
- We can say that there is a significant correlation between the parent-child trust and effective communication between parent and child (Pearson coefficient = 0.39, df = 48, $p < 0.005$). The probability of obtaining this correlation by chance is less than 0.005 ($p < 0.005$).

4. Conclusions

Without claiming to have general validity, our study allows us to at least outline a partial picture of reality on the role of parent-child communication and the relationship barriers which can interfere with communication between them.

- Following the survey we can see that emphasis is put, in a rather high proportion, on the communication between parent and child;
- There have been three significant correlations found between empathic listening, honesty, trust and effective communication between parent and child;
- Communication has an essential and well-established role in the parent-child relationship;

- Through communication, the parent can suitably understand the child and the child, by communicating with the parent, learns more social models and, in turn, learns the ability to communicate;
- True parental communication is not limited to an exchange of words, ideas, information, but it is accompanied by emotions and feelings.

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AN INTEGRATED MODEL OF COMMUNICATION AND CHANGE – A TRANSDISCIPLINARY APPROACH

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Abstract: *Transdisciplinarity proposes a disciplinary continuum through which it analyses a phenomenon according to several levels of reality ¹.*

We shall approach communication starting from a simple communication model. Then, through a systemic point of view, we shall deepen the perspective, allowing the model to be valid not only at the individual level of reality but also at the group level.

We shall have a unitary approach of the change proving that the group change and the individual change undergo the same steps. We shall then describe the characteristics of the steps and finally a personal integrated communication and change model.

Keywords: *communication, change, model, integration, transdisciplinarity*

1. A basic model of the communication process

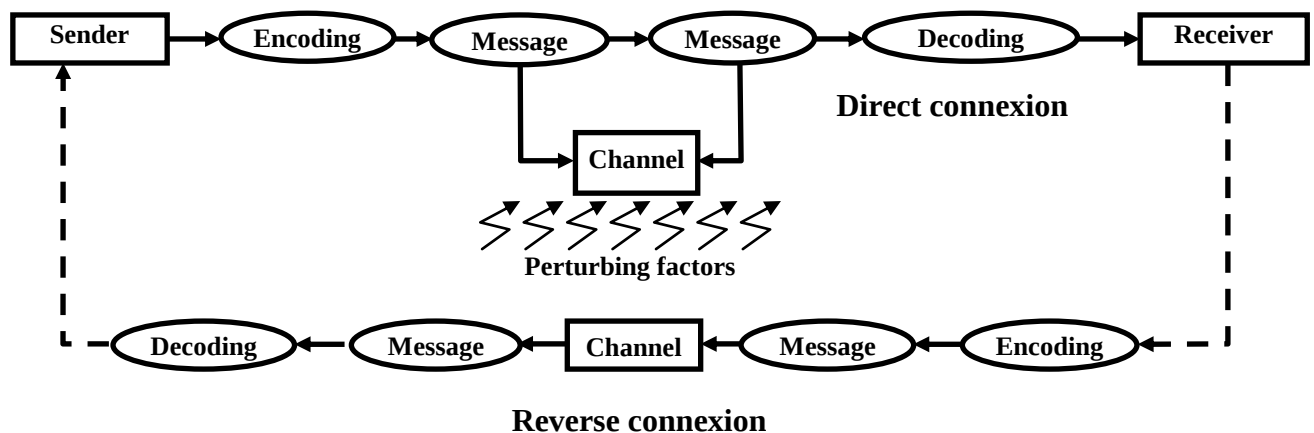


Figure 1. Norbert Wiener's model ²

We shall take as reference point the communication model introduced by Norbert Wiener because the other models assume entirely its components.

This traditional model considers that the **sender** is the one initiating the communication and sends a **message** to **receiver**. Wiener's innovation is that a correct and complete communication implies also the existence of **feedbacks**. The communication channel (oral, written, radio, etc.) is indispensable for transmitting the

¹ Nicolescu, Basarab, *Manifesto of Transdisciplinarity*, New York: State University of New York (SUNY) Press, 2002.

² Nicolescu, O., Verboncu, I., *Management*, Editura Economică, București, 1997, p. 335.

message. The reception and understanding of the message may suffer because of **perturbing factors** which act on the channel.

2. Systemic approach of communication

Multiple communication cycles

In practice, a communication act limited to the succession **sender → message → receiver → feedback** is rare; even the most common form of communication implies in fact the role alternation between sender and receiver, resulting in communication cycles. This will end with an effect on both the receiver and the sender. In this sense, sender is not necessarily the one initiating the communication, but the one who exercises the major influence within the communication act.

Each communication act produces an effect³, meaning a change which can be **deliberate or not, short or long term** and can be: **cognitive** (the information acquired, its analysis and synthesis etc.), **affective** (emotions, sentiments, attitudes etc.) and/or **behavioural**.

For a more complex change, it is necessary to have a cognitive transfer extended through a cycle of communication processes. The communication **effects** are processes, activities, behaviours, determined by the communication process and depending on its content and quality.

Cognitive system

We shall consider sender and receiver to be **cognitive systems** because in the communication process there are not only message encoding and decoding functions but also complex message **processing** and **structuring** functions, based on **previous knowledge**. We define this **cognitive system** as representing the *knowledge potential of an entity and its set of knowledge; based on this set of knowledge, on the one hand, the messages sent are created and encoded and on the other hand the received message are decoded, understood and interconnected.*

Supraordinate system

This supraordinate system creates the major direct or indirect impulse on sender and receiver and it is eventually the one the effect of change/communication of individual actors reflects upon. It offers and structures the knowledge of sender and receiver, so that they can interact. It offers identity to the subordinate cognitive systems.

A supraordinate system has physical and cognitive components, which in the case of a person may be the working group or the organisation for which this person works, the education institution where this person studies, the family, the religious community, etc. A person is simultaneously part of multiple supraordinate systems. Frequently the

³ Prutianu, Ștefan, *Manual de comunicare și negociere în afaceri, vol. I, Comunicarea*, Editura POLIROM, Iași, 2000, pp. 40-42

relationship between a person and the supraordinate system takes the form of an official act approving or sanctioning the relationship: there are labour contracts, study contracts, birth or marriage certificates, etc. For a company, the supraordinate system is the social and economical environment. A company also has to draw up official papers in order to exist in this social and economical environment.

The supraordinate system always has a component unknown or non-integrated by the receiver and this component is the **real source of change**. The supraordinate system offers not only a **motivation** for change but also an **objective** to reach through the change. Focusing on the previous example, increasing the competitiveness of the company is a motivating objective that can be reached by introducing information technology.

The subordinate system shall make efforts to better integrate into this system and thus for the integration of these unknown components, so that we can state that the supraordinate system is one of the **main causes of communication and change**. For example, for an employee, the non-integrated element shall be composed of the set of knowledge that the other employees of the company have; for a traditional company lacking experience in the field of high technology, the non-integrated element may be the information technology.

Cognitive filter ⁴

There is a cognitive filter which prevents a person to enter into contact with anything he or she does not know. In a group, this filter is based on the group rules, expressed for example by statements such as: “we shall not listen to those who are not like us”. Psychologically, we can observe that, sometimes, the information relevant for the receiver is either improperly received, being suppressed, or received with a disproportionately big attention, for example information of wide interest which form a "halo" influencing the rest of the message. An example of such “halo” may provoke the information on extremely tempting possibilities of a business opportunity, information which hides the risk and difficulties that such a deal would suppose.

Cognitive subsystem

A communication process does not involve the entire cognitive system of a person, all his or her knowledge and abilities. Inside the cognitive system of the person changed, communication leads to the creation of a cognitive subsystem, managing both his or her own information sent during the communication process and the information received. We define this **cognitive subsystem** as *the entire set of information on the topic discussed which are brought in the field of conscience by the actor of communication, by the receiver or by the sender, in order to be cognitively processed during the change process determined by the communication act.*

The importance of this element results also from the following:

⁴ Blythe, T., & Associates, *The teaching for understanding guide*, San Francisco: Jossey- Bass, 1998, p. 10.

- the perceived relevance of a message sent by the receiver depends upon the quantity and quality of the information the receiver was **motivated** to gather;
- if the **communication field** is not explained enough by the sender, it will be impossible for the receiver to manage correctly the information received and to create a corresponding cognitive subsystem, being in a state of confusion if his or her cognitive system has the knowledge and abilities to be able to communicate.

The contextual system

We understand the contextual system as a physical and cognitive system which has a direct influence upon the communication during the time it takes place. We define this contextual system as a *complex set of factors imposing a certain way of developing for the communication process*. This contextual system includes the communication physical channel, but it is more complex and *includes also the psychological and physical environment of communication, including the results of previous interactions between the sender and the receiver*.

For example, during a conference, this universe of influences is the conference rooms, but also the opinions about the speakers, the atmosphere of the conference as a whole, the significance and importance of the conference, etc. For the same example, unlike the contextual system, for a participant at the conference, the supraordinate system is composed of the other participants at the conference which have a role in the organization of the event, a special socio-professional statute and develops particular relationships with them.

The contextual system does not have only a perturbing influence, it does not represent only noise as in the traditional communication models, but in most of cases it also has a good influence on the communication act. The contextual system may be considered as a **third actor** in the communication act, which can be influenced by the other two actors, but who can also influence them. For example, the contextual system includes the atmosphere created during a negotiation process; it can be a tense atmosphere, like in the case of a negotiation under time pressure or it can be a relaxed atmosphere like in the case of a business dinner in a classy restaurant. If it is clear that the atmosphere influences the sender and the receiver, they can also influence the atmosphere, in the example provided by asking a time extension or, respectively, by asking the restaurant manager to change the music played.

Interinfluences

Due to the introduction of this contextual system which interposes between the two actors of communication, we shall replace the “traditional” role of the **perturbing factors** which influence the communication unilaterally with the **interinfluence** of the contextual system on the one hand and the two communication actors on the other hand. We used the denomination “interinfluences” instead of “noise” also because we deal with a large series of influences: **physical** (a slammed door, a broken telephone, spectacles with stained lenses, etc.), **psychical** (a previous experience, prejudices, lack of knowledge,

etc.), **semantic** (differences of technical, literary or poetical language, slang or different meanings of words).

These contextual influences may create a different image of the message, which can give it the characteristics of:

- **Point of interest**, *by reducing the psychological filtering* through the fact that it gives the message and the sender a sense (halo) which activates the interest of the receiver.
- **Blind point**, *by focusing the psychological filtering* of some of the suppressed aspects, more specifically the aspects a certain person does not want to perceive, considering them unpleasant or unessential.

In the contextual system there may be other entities who want a role of sender and receiver and can influence or even divert the communication process.

Intra-communication

In the cognitive systems of the communication actors, the intracommunication takes the form of a process by stages. The message is the source of process in the receiver, and the feedback shall produce the same succession of stages for the sender. We shall further explain these stages after analysing the change process.

3. The Bullock-Batten model

In order to create our own chronological model of change, we shall take as main reference the four phase planned change management model created by Bullock and Batten⁵, due to the fact it was the **result of integration of 30 different models** of change management and it can be applied in almost any circumstance. For the correct understanding of the essence of the steps we shall also take into consideration other group change models.

We shall describe the four phases of the model proposed by Bullock and Batten⁶:

1. The exploration phase supposes to become awareness of the need to change, to search exterior assistance, to conclude consultancy contracts.

2. The planning phase supposes to collect information which insures a correct “diagnosis” of the needs, to establish the goals of the change and the actions to reach these objectives, as well as to obtain the support of the decision making factors.

3. The action phase supposes to implement the changes, to obtain the support of all the affected employees and to assess the implementing activity.

4. The integration phase is composed of actions which consolidate the changes so that they become a part of the normal activities of the company (strengthening behaviours, reducing the need of change support from consultants.)

⁵ Bullock, R. J. & Batten, D., *It's just a phase we're going through: A review and synthesis of OD phase analysis*, Group and Organization Studies, December Vol. 10 (4), 1985, pp. 383-412.

⁶ Millward, L.J., *Understanding Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, London: Sage, 2005.

4. Carl Gustav Jung and the Four-Step Model of Individual Change

Just as in the process of **intercommunication** we can communicate with the outside, with the others, in our mind, we use language in a very personal manner, inside, to give sense to the world through **intra-communication**. **The Intra-communication** allows us to communicate with different aspects of our existence and with our consciousness, for example with our thoughts and feelings, sensations from the world outside and our intuitions on these⁷. This intra-communication often takes place unconsciously and can occur with certain parts of our psyche that are unconscious. Swiss psychologist Carl Gustav Jung described four archetypes that govern the process of change toward discovering the unconscious part of the psyche (a process called "individuation" ⁸): the Shadow, the anima / animus, the Mana-personality and the Self. These archetypes appear to influence the individual who is subject to change by their appearance in dreams and mythological productions such as myths and religion.

The Shadow. This archetype corresponds to the initial stage of change, when the subject of the change has to be made aware of the fact that the system of ideas they have had so far is not satisfactory. The name "Shadow" is given to suggest something that goes beyond perception and it is the dark side of the psyche that has not previously been brought to the light of the consciousness. For this reason, it can be seen as an undeveloped, primitive side of the personality and the individual often understands it as a negative side, since it goes in the opposite direction from that which so far has led to prosperity, which has made a positive contribution to the welfare of the individual⁹.

Anima/animus. After the stage of return in the opposite direction (Shadow), the agent of change needs the affection of the changed one, needs to play a key-part in the preoccupations of the latter. The conquest of this central role is essential, as it is only from this position that one can exercise enough influence to be able to change someone. On behalf of romantic love art has been created regardless of the age and geographical area, and Jung states that the image of the opposite sex is the gateway to the inner world.

The Anima is the feminine archetype of the masculine unconscious and the personification of all mental feminine tendencies of a man. These feminine aspects of the male psyche are, for example, gentleness, delicacy, tenderness, patience, receptivity, proximity to nature, easiness to forgive and so on¹⁰.

Animus is the masculine archetype of the female psyche and the personification of the masculine psychological traits of a woman, such as the ability to state her view in an assertive manner, the willingness to take control and attack, the fighting spirit and so on.

The Mana Personality. At this stage, the man meets the Wise Old Man archetype and the woman meets the Great Mother archetype. These archetypal images

⁷ Cooper, P.; Bilton, K.M., *Attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder: a practical guide for teachers*, David Fulton, London, 2001, p. 2.

⁸ Jung, C.G., *Psychological Types*, Collected Works Vol.6., par. 757.

⁹ Ackroyd, E., *The Shadow*, 2004, <http://mythsdreamssymbols.com/shadow.html>, accessed May 28, 2011.

¹⁰ Ackroyd, E., *The Anima – Animus*, 2004, <http://mythsdreamssymbols.com/animaanimus.html>, accessed May 28, 2011.

are symbols of power and wisdom that reside in the depths of the psyche and spring from the archetype called the "Mana Personality", which faces the ego with a super-ordinate force.

When the Mana Personality archetype is integrated, life is enriched with the wisdom that is not accessible through the intellect, but springs from the Collective Unconscious. Then, the conscious and the unconscious complement each other, and the revelation of the Wise Self occurs in a harmonious way. This means that the two worlds, the conscious and unconscious, are not seen as opposites, but cooperate and complete each other as parts of one and the same psyche.

The way in which this archetype works in the human psyche is relevant to the study of the change in the following manner: The Mana Personality finds solutions to problems that individuals face and, similarly, the phase of the change corresponding to this situation is the phase in which problems are solved.

If the Mana Personality is "the craftsman" of a harmonious interlacing between the conscious and unconscious world, the third stage of change provides a mutually beneficial blending between the interests of both sides involved in the change¹¹.

The Self. The Self is both the centre and the psychological all. It is the archetype that encompasses and coordinates the other archetypes¹².

The Self is the last stage of individuation, it expresses the genuine identity. Similarly, in the last stage of the change process the identity of the person under change is formed and includes the knowledge assimilated throughout the change process. The Identity resulting from change includes the knowledge for which the change occurred and these give it an integral, applicable aspect.

As a general conclusion on the study of individuation, we believe that the similarities between change applied in management and spontaneous, individual change produced by the Unconscious is explained by the fact that, very likely, **the change will have the same structure both in the individual and in the group sphere.**

5. The characteristics of the change stages

5.1. The stage in which the cognitive „border” is crossed

The first stage of the communication process involves the separation of the receiver from the object that they focused on before or, in case this is an in-depth communication, even from the previous structure of meanings. This occurs by suggesting, more or less explicitly, that what you say is something new, worth being received or if this is an in-depth communication, something that cannot be interpreted in the light of the old knowledge, of the old cognitive system, which shall enable you to perceive the new information without having been interpreted in the way accepted so far.

¹¹ Ackroyd, E., 2004, *Mana Personalities*, <http://mythsdreamssymbols.com/mana.html>, accessed May 28, 2011.

¹² Whitmont, Edward C., *The Symbolic Quest: Basic Concepts of Analytical Psychology*, New York: Putnam, 1969

It thus produces a weakening of the internal cohesion due to invalidation of the current one, which results in cognitive de-structuring.

5.2. The step of the positive relationship with the agent of change

The sender can produce a change only if the message is correctly and positively received. In this regard, the sender will link the message to the needs of the receiver, thus mobilizing the resources of the latter in order to process the message, that is to motivate the latter for what we have called the creation of a cognitive subsystem.

5.3. The stage of the optimal combination of information

Once the message of the sender has been established as a reference for the receiver, this message is taken into account by the decision-making centre, which processes the multiple pieces of information involved in the confrontation between the sender and the receiver. This centre is invested with authority to mobilize information resources and with power to build an optimal solution for the problem, which is the harmonization between the two sides that come into contact. The problem solution is assessed based on the degree in which the needs of each side have been met and depending on certain regulatory milestones.

5.4. The stage in which internal coherence is re-established

The last stage involves, as the first, relations between the two worlds, the inner and outer one (the subsystem at the same level of integration and the supra-ordinated one), in order to establish a harmonic state with the solution found in the previous paragraph. Thus, what occurs is:

- **a restructuring** of the cognitive subsystem as a whole and of the filter;
- the cognitive homogeneity reached allows for the **formulation of a feedback**;
- if the communicative aim is not just **cognitive** or **relational**, but it is a command or is aimed at triggering a behavioural change, an outer **EFFECT** may also occur.

It may happen, however, that the changed receiver is no longer effective, cannot integrate into the supraordinated system. The cause of the change is no longer a current issue, and the cycle repeats.

The following table shows an example of application of the integrated communication-change model for two levels: individual and organizational, that is, informal and formal communication.

Table 1. Example: parallel between informal communication and organizational change

Stage	Conversation between two acquaintances who meet by chance	Organizational change
1	Cognitive destructuring is felt as an initial embarrassment. Greetings are standard phrases that „break the ice” (cross the communication barrier). The other person is observed in all external stimuli and the messages both interlocutors send are received .	The barrier to change is removed by shaking the attachment to old regulations. Cognitive destructuring is manifested through uncertainty, depression, anarchy, defying authority. The agent of change is noticed from among the external stimuli and its message is picked up .
2	With the standard-phrases such as: „how are you?” a speaker expresses affection, mutual interest and the desire to relate , thus motivating the other person to speak and opening the way for the transfer of new information. The speakers will try to adapt to each other looking for a topic of common interest.	The agent of change acquires a higher status and comes to represent an ideal within the group, becomes the „focus” and exercises an influence that unites the group members so that they emotionally open to change and novelty. What the agent of change wishes is discovered and accepted, as all group members are aware what it may consist of.
3	They will bring up the latest news and events, thus making the connection with the old information that is updated , in combination with the new one. The most relevant events will be indicated, allowing the two speakers to reach a shared interpretation and attitude, deeper than the one before the verbal interaction. The way in which the speakers communicate causes their relational strings to weaken or strengthen.	Exercising influence works both ways, adjusting the methods of the agent of change and changing habits, the matrix of thought, identity, beliefs, the organizational culture, etc. The interests, information, needs etc. are shared , reaching a mutually accepted solution. Change makes the informational under-layer of the group to change, which leads to an evolution or involution of the number of the group members, of the knowledge, wealth or prestige of the group.
4	They conclude with the final courtesy. The body language of the two is in harmony if the meeting was a pleasant one. The conversation then concludes and the two separate, each mentally rearranging the new information. An intra-communication appears in the cognitive restructuring, which many times uses expressions belonging to values and preferences and which suggest decision making, creating stability, homogenizing and uniting the inner cognitive system.	There is an increased sense of unity. Identification with the group is very clear. Change is integrated into the organizational culture of the group , stabilizing change and creating limits that separate the group members from those outside the group, structuring a group personality which helps that group integrate in the outer world. Only the groups with a coherent image of themselves can integrate in the outer world, regardless of the nature of the group (formal or informal) or of its size or aim.

6. A personal integrated model of communication and change

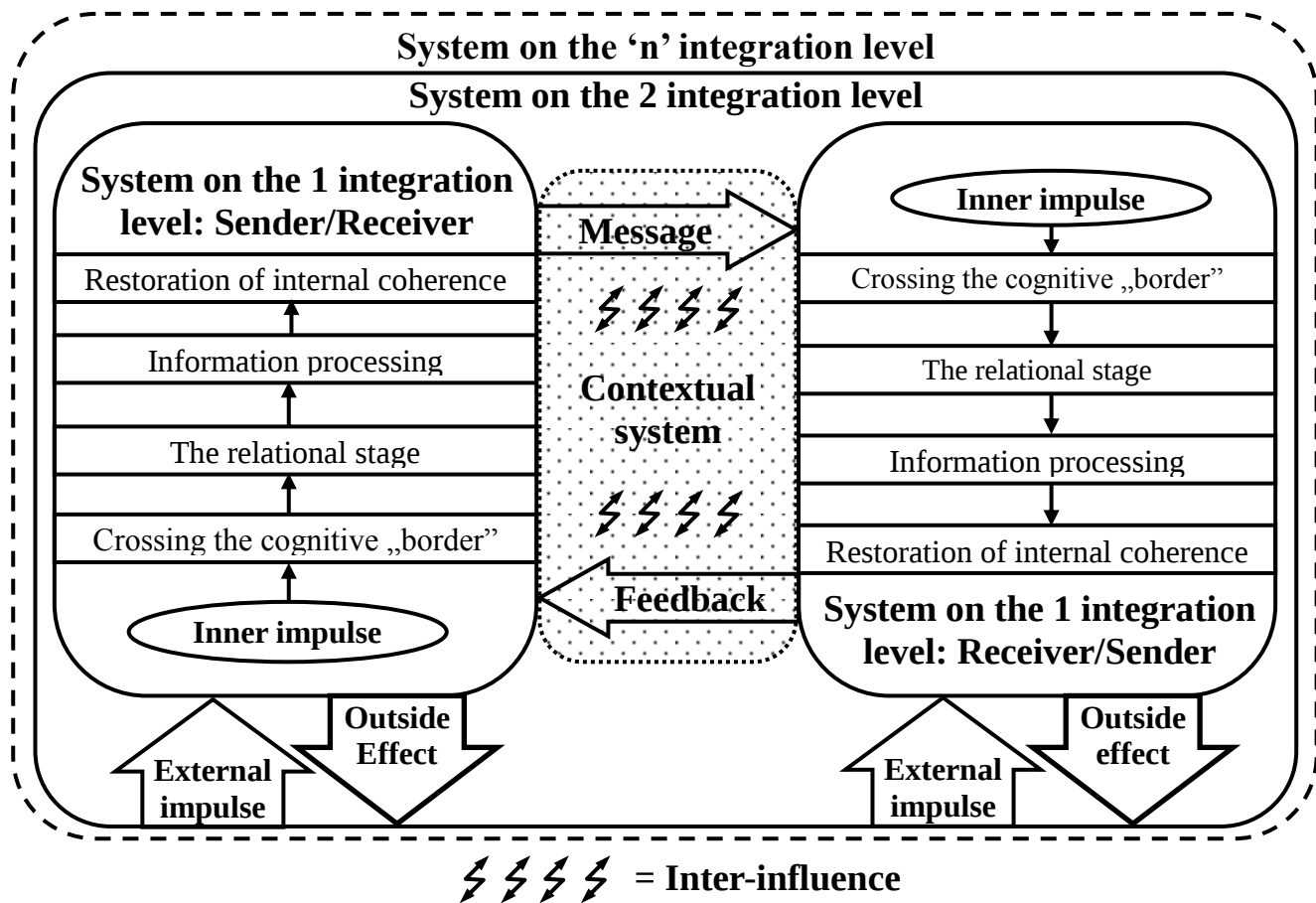


Figure 2. An integrated model of communication and change

The model captures the dynamics of change induced by communication, highlighting the four stages of change, as well as the fact that it does not communicate only systems on the same level of integration, but also subordinated and supraordinated systems.

7. Conclusion

We consider that the integrated model of communication and change can contribute to an unification and systematization of knowledge concerning communication and change, thus creating a deeper understanding in these respects. The limited length of this paper does not allow us to detail in order to prove that the 4-step model of change can be the basis for other models that are either condensing this one by a lower number of steps, or are widening it by using more steps.

For example, the brainwashing process consists of 3 steps¹³ – unfreezing, changing, refreezing – but includes in its first step the first two stages of our model.

¹³ Ficeac, B., *Tehnici de manipulare*, Editura NEMIRA, Bucuresti, 2004, pp. 87 98.

Public speech also includes 3 parts – introduction, body, conclusions – but, again, the introduction includes the first two stages of our model.

Among the models of change that include a greater number of steps, which can be reduced to the 4, we give the example of the 12 steps of Alcoholics Anonymous.

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THE IMAGE OF THE TURKS IN THE GREEK DAILY PRESS DURING THE 1987 AEGEAN CRISIS. THE CASES OF THE NEWSPAPERS *ELEFTHEROS TYPOS* AND *MAKEDONIA*

Dr. Oana-Camelia STROESCU

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Abstract: *The research we refer to is intended as an analysis of the events that marked the Greek-Turkish relations in the spring of 1987, focusing on the Greek daily press' cover of the Aegean crisis. Our purpose is to demonstrate that the Greek dailies Eleftheros Typos and Makedonia produce and perpetuate stereotypes on Turks through textual and visual messages at least for the duration of the crisis. The front page articles of these major dailies contain textual messages that stereotype Turks by their concentration, frequency and omissions.*

Keywords: *Eleftheros Typos, Makedonia, stereotypes, Turks, textual messages, visual messages, crisis, comparative view*

The term stereotype derives from the Greek words στερεός (*stereos*), meaning "firm" or "solid" and τύπος (*typos*), meaning "impression", hence "solid impression". Stereotype was originally a printing term that later became a popular belief of other social groups and individuals. As researches show, media stereotypes reinforce and magnify personal stereotypes (Lester, Ross, 2003, p.3). In other words, media produce and perpetuate stereotypes and we aim at remonstrating that this is the predisposition of the Greek media in 1987. These "pictures in our heads", as Walter Lippmann called them, are images, representations, concepts and beliefs that have a strong quality: they can be reproduced very fast. Stereotypes seem to form an integral part of the journalistic discourse as they facilitate a wide access to simplified knowledge.

We have chosen to present, in a comparative view, the position of the major Greek dailies in the Greek-Turkish crisis of 1987, to analyze how these dailies covered the crisis on their front page for a period of three months (February, March and April) and how often they stereotype the Turkish people. Stereotypes on Turks appeared from individual or collective experience with the Turkish people and, as history shows, from the intergroup conflict. As a prejudicial thinking, stereotyping simplifies the world by assigning general group characteristics to members of that group, forms an inaccurate opinion of people and has its springs in the unwillingness to rethink one's attitude or behaviour.

According to Teun Van Dijk, a Dutch linguist conducting studies mainly on critical discourse analysis, news production is not a direct result of events, but a form of discourse process. Hence, the process of news production takes place as a reproduction of the discourses obtained from different sources, either primary or secondary. Along with the discourse analysis, ideas, meanings and ideologies are brought to light. Hence, the front page's analysis shows that the front page title has bigger audience than the

article itself and a major impact on the readers, depending on the size of the letters, on the words choice and syntax and, eventually, on the selling points the newspaper is promoted. Titles not only inform, they also have the power to orient the public in a specific ideological direction and the use of stereotypes makes this process even easier.

Eleftheros Typos

Eleftheros Typos (in English: 'The Free Press') is a daily evening newspaper published in Athens, Greece, founded in 1983. Back in the eighties, it was one of the top sales papers in the country. As the analysis of the first page of the Greek daily Eleftheros Typos shows, its ideological place seems to be in the conservative area, with a clear affinity for the New Democracy Party, which was in the Opposition in 1987, the year we here analyze. Thus, the newspaper criticizes the policy of the Greek government. One can observe that the trend on the front page is to approach the daily issues of domestic politics, but in times of crisis there is an increase in the number of articles on Greek-Turkish relations and the Greek government's foreign policy.

The sources of information used by this daily are predominantly the primary and national ones. It should be noted that in some cases, the editors may call upon secondary sources (other publications in Greece and / or from other countries), but only when the information serves the prevailing view in connection with the problem tackled. This publication focuses on the story (feature) and the headlines dominating are negative and printed with large letters, which make the front page attractive.

As above mentioned the language of the published texts reveals that the newspaper backs the Opposition and criticizes the Papandreou's government. Back from the beginning of the Prinos oil affair in Greece, Eleftheros Typos uses strong and accusative titles. On February 10th 1987¹, the front page title shocks: They hide the dirt of the oil game. Another title is the one of the February 20th edition: Prinos, sacrifice for Turkey. The real reasons for the acquisition of the oil reserve². The editors believe that the Greek Prime Minister, Andreas Papandreou, tries to avoid exercising any of the country's sovereign rights in order not to disturb Turkey. The Greek daily frequently uses quantities and numbers to express the intensity of the problems presented. Thus, in its edition of February 22nd, the title on the front page says Desertion worth 700 billion! This is the price we will pay for Andreas' cowardice³. The article talks about the 300 million barrels worth 700 billion which represent the oil reserve in the eastern area of Thasos Island and which will be sacrificed to the Turks by the Greek Prime Minister. It also presents the declaration of Konstantinos Mitsotakis, the leader of the strongest Opposition party, the New Democracy, that warns Turkey not open its appetite for oil

¹ Eleftheros Typos, Athens, no.1156, February 10th 1987.

² Eleftheros Typos, Athens, no.1165, February 20th 1987.

³ Eleftheros Typos, Athens, no.1166, February 22nd, 1987.

due to the Greek government's delay in actions and lack of power in the decision making process.

On February 25th, the editors write about the Greek government back out from the Prinos nationalization procedure: They back out from Prinos nationalization⁴. The newspaper states that this event demonstrates once again the moody politics of the PASOK government, which contradictory decisions manage to cause international waves and to mix the country into new, dangerous and expensive adventures. The Greek government is perceived as apathetic to Turkey's actions and one can observe some interesting terms used to describe its policy: back out, bazaar, capricious, compromise, forget, moody, sacrifice. At this moment it is clear that Eleftheros Typos editorial line does not identify with the government's policy.

In March 1987 things happen to be even rougher; the diplomatic tension between Greece and Turkey is getting deeper and on March 3rd edition of Eleftheros Typos, a most expected title can be seen on its front page: Threat in the Aegean⁵. It is considered that the Turks are launching clear and continuous threats by sending their research vessel Sismik I for oil prospection in the most sensitive area of the Aegean Sea continental shelf.

The Greek government is perceived as a weak one that backs out when facing the Turkish defiance, while, in antithesis, the Opposition dears. The New Democracy Party (from now on referred to as the Opposition) accuses the Government of leading the Turks to Thasos Island⁶. Supporting the leader of Opposition, Konstantinos Mitsotakis, the editors affirm that Papandreou has created a monstrous national problem by letting the Turks get as close as 10 miles to Thassos and his image has become the one of a crumpled lion or of Karaghiozis (a shadow puppet and fictional character of the Greek folklore). As afore mentioned, the Opposition is perceived as bold and responsible and its opinions are often promoted, in antithesis with the government of PASOK, which seems to be irresponsible and incapable of managing the situation and protecting Greece's sovereign rights: *We dare! The New Democracy Government will proceed with oil prospection in Thassos!*⁷ Mitsotakis plays the PM's role and blocks the national frontiers for the Turks, saying that New Democracy Party will proceed with oil prospection in the disputed area east of Thassos.

At the end of March and the beginning of April, the bilateral tension reaches its peak. More dramatic than other newspapers on the Greek market, the daily Eleftheros Typos' technique is to use strong to violent front page titles to demonstrate the diachronic threat coming from Turkey: Tension in the Aegean. Piri Reis⁸ and Turkish war ships approaching Thassos⁹, The Turks are tramping in the Aegean. A submarine arrived

⁴ Eleftheros Typos, Athens, no.1169, February 25th, 1987.

⁵ Eleftheros Typos, Athens, no.1173, March 3rd, 1987.

⁶ Eleftheros Typos, Athens, no. 1174, March 4th, 1987.

⁷ Eleftheros Typos, Athens, no. 1177, March 7th-8th, 1987.

⁸ Piri Reis, Sismik and Hora are one and the same Turkish research vessel. Hora is the Greek name for the Turkish research vessel.

⁹ Eleftheros Typos, Athens, no. 1188, March 20th, 1987.

to Lavrio¹⁰, War clouds. While the Government feeds national division¹¹, National drama and a lot of adventure¹². Using nouns like adventure, attack, bazaar, betrayal, cloud, comedy, compromise, cowardice, deceit, desertion, dirt, division, drama, game, play, scandal, tension, threat, war, adjectives as capricious, moody, secret and verbs or verbal constructions like accuse, approach, arrive, back out, clean, dear, feed, forget, go (away), hide, sacrifice, tramp, typewritten with very large letters, sometimes occupying the whole front page, is a technique often used by the Athenian daily Eleftheros Typos.

Another technique is to use negative declaration of Turkish high military officials to emphasize Greek government's lack of rapid response or inactivity. On March 27th edition, the information about the Turkish threat is quite disturbing: it is said that Turkey is threatening to proceed with oil prospection in the Aegean and General Kenan Evren and other high military officials are taking control of the situation. These declarations are used in order to demonstrate that the information is objective and come from both sides of the Aegean and also to show that, in the end, the victory is neither Greek nor Turkish. The use of these declarations is harmful, as they are perceived by the readers as the official position of Turkey as a state and not as individual declarations. This assertion leads to stereotypes, as Turkey is seen as a country that provokes threats and is ready for conflict and war.

A detail observed in other publications as well is the use of the name Hora for the Turkish research vessel, as it was used in the 1976 bilateral crisis for the same vessel. It seems this name has become a stereotype in Greek-Turkish relations, as it underlines that the Turkish threat is continuous, stirs up old and negative memories and induces the readers the same mood as in the 1976 Aegean crisis, regardless the new circumstances. As a general rule for this newspaper, the events are exacerbated. Turkey seems to take advantage of the Greek's weakness and the enemy's victory is gained by the weaknesses of the other. As seen in other Greek newspapers of that period, it appears to be a dominant stereotype: the Turks are perceived as provocative, ready to attack and ready for a bilateral bazaar (negotiations) regarding the Aegean continental shelf issue, while the Greeks are considered as defenders of their sovereign rights and of the international law. Even if the public's reception is a "varied and messy experience" (McQuail 2009, p.398), these stereotypes are easily and widely absorbed in times of crisis.

Makedonia

Makedonia is a daily morning newspaper published in Thessaloniki, Greece. First published in 1911 by the "courageous professor" (Karykopoulos 1984, p.145) Kostas Vellidis, in times of the Ottoman occupation of Thessaloniki, the newspaper had state-of-the-art equipment (Karykopoulos 1984, p.145).

¹⁰ Eleftheros Typos, Athens, no. 1190, March 23rd, 1987.

¹¹ Eleftheros Typos, Athens, no. 1193, March 27th, 1987.

¹² Eleftheros Typos, Athens, no. 1194, March 28th-29th, 1987.

As the other newspapers that are the subject of the present analysis, Makedonia emphasizes on the Greek-Turkish relations between February and April 1987. Its non-tabloid lay-out permits the display of a larger number of articles than those of other newspapers. It uses primary sources of information and is the only newspaper that has in general a neutral position towards the developments in the Greek-Turkish dispute. Compared to other dailies on the Greek market, Makedonia is not too critical to the Opposition, but to the nationalization of Prinos itself and questions whether there will be prospection after the Greek state gains control over Prinos oil reserve: The North Aegean oil will become state property¹³; Prospection has been delayed since 1981. Will there be prospection east of Thasos after the nationalization? In an area that belongs clearly and exclusively to the Greek continental shelf¹⁴. It appears that the Greek Public Oil Enterprise's offer has been rejected by the foreign consortium as offensive: Clear response to the Government: Prinos Consortium doesn't negotiate selling the shares¹⁵. As expected, Athens informs that if the consortium doesn't accept the proposal it will take all the legal measures in this sense: Political reasons impose Prinos' purchase¹⁶.

Although Makedonia is a high quality newspaper, stereotyping the Turks remains an important characteristic of this daily, but it not as obvious as in other publications. The editors believe that Özal's declarations justify the Greek government's position and underline Ankara's expansionist views: With his declarations, Özal reveals once again his expansionist views. The Government says no dialogue can take place¹⁷. One can easily see that the editors of the daily Makedonia tend to focus on the persons (Özal, Papandreou, Mitsotakis or Turkish high military officials) and not on the country. The reader has the feeling that stereotyping is intended for the Turkish people as a whole. Turkish policy is seen as the new-ottomanism, deceitful, treacherous (in Greek: δόλια) because Turkey's dictatorship means violation of human rights, which is against all fundamental elements of Europe as a community. On the front page of March 6th edition, the main article entitled New provocations from Ankara. Turkey claims all Aegean. And threats to take all measures if Greece doesn't stop its activities east of Thasos¹⁸ presents the Turkish threat and Greece's immovable position and reminds that the Greek prime minister calls for Turkey to come to The Hague instead of making dialogue with propagandistic declarations.

The study of Makedonia's front page shows that the Other's motives are not promoted and national interest prevails. As seen in other Eleftheros Typos, Turkey's actions are seen as provocations, while Greece's are seen as defence actions and attempts of reaching a détente. The editors explain that Greece does not avoid dialogue, but the future dialogue cannot have as basis neither the occupation of Northern Cyprus by the

¹³ Makedonia, February 19th, 1987.

¹⁴ Makedonia, February 20th, 1987.

¹⁵ Makedonia, February 25th, 1987.

¹⁶ Makedonia, February 27th, 1987.

¹⁷ Makedonia, February 4th, 1987.

¹⁸ Makedonia, March 6th, 1987.

Turkish army nor the Turkish territorial claims in the Aegean. Furthermore, the latter could lead to the division of the Aegean. The older issue of Northern Cyprus¹⁹ is now linked to the Aegean dispute and this increases the difference between Greece and Turkey at public opinion's level, as Turkey is seen once again as the state that carries out illegal actions.

After announcing that the Turks are planning Researches around our islands²⁰, in the Greek continental shelf, Makedonia writes that Özal backed out at midnight²¹, saying that the Turks will not go in the disputed areas if Greece conducts research in its territorial waters. Once again, the editors point out that Turkey provoked the dangerous crisis, while the Greek government acted with calm and determination, willing to build the peace in the area. At the same time, the language of the front page article is not neutral as in other editions nor is it negative and violent as in other publications. At this point it is necessary to give some examples to illustrate the above: this government will not knee, we do not beg for the US and NATO arbitration but we call upon them to face their historical responsibilities, as they accept and cover Turkey's illegal actions²².

The change of plans in Ankara's policy on the Aegean is underlined in Makedonia's next edition: Ankara backs out at international pressure. Calm and relaxation²³. While Özal sends his peace message to Athens, proposing Papandreou a meeting, Makedonia informs that the Greek government refuses to give any detail about the message while analysing its content. This assertion leads to stereotype: as Turks are perceived as deceitful, any message must be treated with suspicion. At the beginning of April, the newspaper reveals that Özal's proposition was to sign a non-aggression treaty with Greece and Papandreou's answer was that only NATO could guarantee such a treaty²⁴. As a response, Özal sees small chance of rapprochement in Papandreou's answer²⁵.

The editors mention that the Government agrees with the bilateral dialogue and does not turn the key to cooperation, but Turkey is demanding dialogue on all Aegean issues²⁶. Athens makes clear that the dialogue will not be based on the Turkish claims²⁷.

The 1987 Aegean crisis ended before turning into a major conflict and the immediate consequences were good for the neighbor countries. The main issue of the dispute – the delimitation of the Aegean continental shelf – was not solved, but the two Governments engaged themselves on the way of constructive dialogue and good neighboring.

¹⁹ The 1974 occupation of the northern part of the island by the Turkish army.

²⁰ Makedonia, March 26th, 1987.

²¹ Makedonia, March 27th, 1987.

²² Ibid.

²³ Makedonia, March 29th, 1987.

²⁴ Makedonia, April 9th, 1987.

²⁵ Makedonia, April 10, 1987.

²⁶ Makedonia, April 9th, 1987.

²⁷ Makedonia, April 10th, 1987.

The research shows that the Greek press indirectly sustained the bilateral conflict by creating and promoting stereotypes about the Turks. In all the Greek daily political newspapers, the stereotypes in Greek-Turkish relations refer to the hostility and offensiveness of Turkey, which is perceived as a state that takes advantage of the Greek Government's goodwill. Turkey's actions are presented as offensive and the Greek Government's decisions are considered wrong because they lead to compromise. In this sense, Turkey's actions may show the fact that the Aegean Sea is perceived by Ankara as an area of claims and therefore, the Greek side may be perceived as a pole of negotiations and compromises. Turkey's actions and motives are considered *claims*, a term that strips from the start the Turkish arguments of any possible legal validity. Instead, Greek actions are deemed legal and, naturally and obviously, they purpose to defend Greece's national interests and sovereign rights.

Further research and analysis are required in order to compare it with other Greek daily newspapers of nationwide distribution.

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PERSUASIVE STRUCTURES IN EDITORIALS

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Abstract: *Editorials are by definition persuasive types of newspaper articles, therefore, the editorial writer's linguistic choices are never 'innocent'; they manipulate their readers' interpretation by the choice of words and structures which may foreground or background pieces of information or may reflect a certain view of the world. This paper is designed to provide a better understanding of the power that editorial language may have on public opinion.*

Keywords: *persuasion, manipulation, linguistic strategies*

Introduction

Persuasion and its mechanisms have fascinated researchers since antiquity and the process has registered shifts in focus throughout time. In the 21st century, persuasion has become part of our existence; consciously or unconsciously, people appeal to a wide variety of techniques (verbal and non-verbal) to convince others of their position or viewpoint. Persuasion is present in both private and public spheres and has come to govern interpersonal relations of any kind. The public categories which make full use of persuasive strategies are politicians and mass media.

Irrespective of the types of newspaper they all host editorials as representative articles of each publication. There are indeed variations from one newspaper to another but editorials display a particular kind of persuasive public discourse influenced by the ideology of the newspaper and cultural factors such as the national culture of the editorial writer and the social environment in which he lives and works.

Language use in general and newspaper editorial discourse in particular can be approached from various angles. Irrespective of the approach, their study is complex and fascinating because editorials are purposive types of written texts with the editorial writer in an authoritative position attempting to validate or influence the readers' views on a certain topic.

Objectives

This paper is designed to provide a better understanding of the impact that editorials, as carefully crafted and sophisticated samples of public discourse, have on a large audience. We are mainly preoccupied with the position of editorials among other newspaper articles as well as with ways the editorial writers create meaning and communicate it to the reader by means of linguistic strategies.

The second half of this article approaches persuasion in its linguistic manifestation. There are particular devices and strategies suited for each media. The newspaper editorial tries not so much to inform but to bring insight into issues that are of interest or strongly debated at a particular time. As we have considered mainly the editorials published in broadsheets (or 'quality papers') it is important to highlight their intrinsic goal: to convince a category of educated and relatively informed readership of a certain point of view.

Editorials: definition and characteristics

Editorials enjoy universal prevalence in publications of all types: broadsheets or tabloids, dailies or weeklies, for general public or specialised in a particular field of study (business newspapers, health and lifestyle publications etc.). It may be clearly marked as 'editorial' (see the *Guardian* online edition, *Adevarul, Romania libera*), but it may also be referred to as a 'leading article' (generally in UK, see *The Independent*), or simply 'leader', published on the 'Opinion and comment page' (American press) inside the newspaper or in the 'Opinion section' of the on-line editions (*The Independent, Adevarul, Romania libera*). The British broadsheets generally do not mark it in any specific way in published editions, apart from headlining it according to the topic. On the contrary, the editorial is clearly marked in Romanian newspapers. Specialists make a distinction between personal editorials which are by-lined with the writer's name, and institutional editorials which are unsigned.

The editorial page has a complement 'op-ed page' (abbreviated from 'opposite the editorial page'), which consists of article or articles, usually written by journalists who are not affiliated with the newspaper's editorial board and sign their articles. The first modern op-ed page is attributed to the American journalists of the 1920s, who realized that the page opposite the editorial page was full of potential and was not entirely exploited. As readers regarded opinion as more interesting than news, the journalists provided them with what they wanted. In the context of the rise of other forms of mass media (radio and television) which somehow threatened the print media, more and more newspapers began including subjective and opinionated journalism, improving even growing their op-ed pages. They have served to expand or to complement the editorial page of a newspaper.

It is beyond doubt that editorials have a singular, privileged position among newspaper articles. Danuta Reah argues that they exist in order to 'allow the newspaper (usually in the person of its editor) to comment, give news and draw conclusions from the day's event.'²⁸ As opinion articles and as official views of the newspaper, we can state that editorials represent the 'backbone' of the respective newspaper, defining its direction. Paradoxically, the editorial writer's medium is ephemeral as it is written for the public of

²⁸ Danuta Reah, *The Language of Newspapers*, New York, ed. Routledge, 2002, p. 45

the same hour. Moreover, the language of an editorial published in a broadsheet is generally regarded as 'a model of press language', as Fowler²⁹ underlines.

If in the past the editorials were not always assigned a special position or page in the newspaper, nowadays this particular type of newspaper article is usually located in a fixed position, always on a left-hand inside page, referred to as the 'leader page', 'editorial page' or 'opinion page', as previously mentioned. It has particular typographic characteristics (being set in larger-than-normal type, frequently inside panel rules), which makes it stand out of from the rest of the page and thus be easily found. Regarding the length of the editorials, it varies depending on the newspaper, though the chosen newspapers contain editorials that have 5 to 8 paragraphs, which seems to be a standard length.

The editorial page follows the front page regarding its importance in the economy of the newspaper, which is not surprising at all considering its basic purposes: to explain and analyze. The editorial must transmit a message to its readers, hence its significance and a widespread effort along history to attract famous journalists and transform the editorial page into a page of reference, into a landmark of the newspaper.

The editorial, as a distinct type of newspaper article, employs specific discursive features as well as argumentative and linguistic strategies. The particular genre to which a text belongs determines its rhetorical parameters such as structure, vocabulary, syntax, argumentative moves etc. For instance, editorials basically follow the same pattern (irrespective of the editorial writer or the newspaper that publishes it): there is always a generating piece of information already known to the reader from the news column and a large explanatory material representing most of the editorial; the language choice in editorials is generally determined by the type of newspaper which publishes it, broadsheet or tabloid, because each of them addresses to a different category of audience; the choice of syntactic structures may serve various purposes because there are always more ways in which to express the same message and when one chooses to foreground a piece of information, then automatically other piece of information remains in the background or is omitted;

There are always different ways of expressing the same message. Fowler underlines that 'differences in expression carry ideological distinction (and thus differences in representation')³⁰. The audience is offered a re-construction of an event or situation, a reflection of 'facts', which is never value-free and which is based on language as a key concept in this process.

We are particularly concerned with the most frequently used techniques in editorials to highlight the ways press language fulfils its specific purpose: to persuade readers of a particular standpoint. Linguistic choices are never 'innocent' especially in the case of editorials as a representative type of institutional articles. They manipulate their readers' interpretation by the choice of words and structures, of strategies, which may

²⁹ Roger Fowler, *Language in the News*, London, ed. Routledge, 1991, p. 40

³⁰ Roger Fowler, *Language in the News*, London, ed. Routledge, 1991, p. 4

foreground or background pieces of information and thus reflect a particular view of the world. We see the 'strategy' as the bridge between the initial intentions and the final goal created by means of various resources, in our particular case, by means of language use choices.

According to Austin, language is a form of action³¹; action is viewed as a strategy adopted by a speaker to achieve a particular goal or intention. Editorial writers present a particular view of the world as they see it and in line with the editorial policy of the newspaper they represent; this is what makes these journalistic products distinct from other articles. Newspapers have always been regarded as opinion formers. The editorial content of prestigious dailies expresses the opinion of an influential part of society, and this opinion is read and commented by the elite. In the case of the prestigious Romanian and British dailies (Adevarul and Romania Libera on the one hand and the Guardian and The Independent on the other hand) their audiences definitely comprise the national elite that are educated and relatively informed people. Text producers appeal to a wide range of strategies not only to attract readers' attention, but also to persuade them to share the same viewpoint. Owing to the vast competition which text producers face, they go to great lengths in order to convince readers to buy the product and become constant readers. This is mainly achieved through language trick but elements such as layout, position in the paper, graphology of headlines, the prestige of the (editorial) writers are not to be ignored. Therefore, the ways journalists make use of language and even manipulate it to serve a specific purpose are aspects that cannot be neglected.

Aspects of Manipulating Interpretation

There is a common assumption regarding media texts according to which they are a mirror of reality. But they constitute, as Fairclough puts it, 'versions of reality in ways which depend on the social positions and interests and objectives of those who produce them'.³² Events, situations, people can be represented in such texts in many various ways and such choices depend on what one wishes to include or exclude, foreground or background always in line with an initial communicative purpose. The linguistic techniques employed in press language in general can be persuasive at different levels: phonetic, lexical and morphological, semantic and pragmatic.

Barbara Johnstone considers that the ways of talking and writing 'produce and reproduce ways of thinking', and they 'can be manipulated via choices about grammar, style, wording, and every other aspect of language.' Every linguistic choice will determine a particular interpretation which mirrors a way of thinking and a view of how the world is organized. 'Every choice is strategic, in the sense that every utterance has [...] a way of seeing the world that is favoured via that choice and not via others'.³³ She argues that discourse producers need to make a series of choices, grouped as follows:

³¹ J. L. Austin, *How to Do Things with Words*, Cambridge, Massachusetts, Harvard University Press, 1962

³² Norman Fairclough, *Media Discourse*, London, Hodder Education, 1995, p. 104

³³ Barbara Johnstone, *Discourse Analysis*, Oxford, Blackwell Publishing, 2002, p. 45

- 1) choices about the representation of actions, actors and events
- 2) choices about the representation of knowledge status
- 3) choices about naming and wording
- 4) choices about incorporating and representing other voices.

1) Choices about the Representation of Actions, Actors and Events

Both English and Romanian allow the description of the same event in general in many different ways. Obviously, each linguistic choice carries different significance and thus may favour a certain interpretation. The most relevant examples in this respect are passive voice and nominalization.

Passive Voice

Passive voice is a common choice in both English and Romanian. While the active voice emphasizes the doer of the action (the agent), the passive voice plays emphasis on who suffers the effect of the action (the patient). The latter is preferred to the former when the encoder wants to focus on particular parts of the sentence as passive allows parts of the sentence to be brought in the foreground or in the background, or even to be deleted.

As a rule, passive is a common choice in headlines in both English and Romanian press for a number of reasons: headlines are space-limited - they must be short but in the same time they have to gain the maximum effect from the structures used; passive constructions save space and immediately introduce the topic. Agency is not necessary to be specified in the headline; it may be inferred from the context or introduced in the opening paragraph.

The agentless passive may be appealed to not only for brevity reasons but because of 'the official or bureaucratic nature of the events referred to'.³⁴ It is also specific to scientific texts because scientific facts or observations remain the same irrespective of who performs the action.

Nominalization

Nominalization is another way of manipulating the representation of events, actions or actors because it may highlight either the agent or the event by using in the role of grammatical subject nouns words that can be other parts of speech such as verbs or adjectives. Verbs and adjectives that are realized syntactically as nouns are called derived nominals; for instance, 'a walk' is derived from the verb 'to walk', 'pressures' from 'to pressure', or 'the poor' is derived from the adjective 'poor'. Fairclough defines nominalization as a sort of transformation which changes 'a process into a nominal (noun-like) entity'.³⁵

³⁴ Roger Fowler, *Language in the News*, London, ed. Routledge, 1991, p. 79

³⁵ Norman Fairclough, *Media Discourse*, London, Hodder Education, 1995, p. 26

Both passive constructions and nominalization may highlight or hide particular pieces of information; a lot of information goes unexpressed in a derived nominal, as compared to a full clause. Moreover, both transformations may carry ideological significance or, to put it in Fairclough's words, are 'ideologically motivated'.³⁶

2) Choices about the Representation of Knowledge Status

Barbara Johnstone considers that languages offer their speakers many ways in which to express their position as compared to the claim they make. We will consider adverbials, the verb 'to be' in present tense simple as well as a special category of verbs often employed in the press language.

The choice of adverbials such as 'clearly', 'obviously', 'undoubtedly' or 'without doubt' imply evidence, certainty, therefore a strong relationship between the speaker and its claim which is to discourage any kind of debate. On the contrary, the presence of words such as 'possibly' or 'maybe' show uncertainty – they represent a weaker type of relationship due to the speaker or writer's lack of enough evidence or confidence.

The choice of the verb 'to be' in simple present tense reveals the speaker's conviction that the claim is true and proves certainty, evidence and confidence. But there is another category of verbs such as 'to know', 'to suspect', 'to claim' or 'to think', frequently employed in editorials, which show the degree of speaker's confidence about the truth of a claim.

The editorial writer, as the spokesman of an institution, is automatically placed in an authoritative position. He is expected not to so much to inform but to shed a different light on a topic of wide concern already known to the readers. Moreover, the editorials published in quality papers (which we are interested in) address to educated readers, to elite classes who do not easily accept and come to share a common viewpoint unless convinced of it. Therefore, the editorial writer must be well-informed and prove a strong relationship with the statement he makes.

3) Choices about Naming and Wording

The way something is called may already represent a claim about it, therefore, choices about naming and wording represent 'claims about the world'³⁷ and may carry ideological significance (according to critical linguists and critical discourse analysts). Naming is related to the effect on the message on the receiver, to the feeling it stirs in the decoder. These feelings or attitudes towards the message are basically influenced by wording that is the structure of the words within a sentence.

Therefore, language choices are never innocent irrespective of the level we consider: graphic, syntactic or semantic. As argued above, the same idea can be expressed by means of different structure (active or passive voice, nominalization) or word-choice. Both Romanian and English offer a wide variety of syntactic and lexical possibilities; yet,

³⁶ Idem.

³⁷ Barbara Johnstone, *Discourse Analysis*, Oxford, Blackwell Publishing, 2002, p. 49

'there are not truly synonymous words or truly synonymous surface structures because they exist in any language to serve different functions'.³⁸ This means that language users are offered the possibility to choose the variants which serve best their purpose in the given situation or context.

Each language owns a huge meaning potential which means that any situation can be represented in a number of ways, therefore its meaning can be constructed in various ways. According to Dunmire 'The actual lexico-grammatical structure of a text [...] is of an analytic and rhetorical significance because it manifests the particular choices of a speaker or writer working within a particular social context and with a particular purpose.'³⁹

Syntax has become one of the major contemporary rhetoric's concern; it deals with word order and is relevant when analyzing the way in which a text creates meaning. Rhetorical critics see it not as a mere vehicle for correct use of grammar rules but it may shape a message in accordance with the producer's intentions, that is to foreground, background or even omit particular pieces of information. According to Fairclough, main clauses usually foreground information and subordinate clauses background it especially when the main clause comes first in complex structure.⁴⁰ The word order in a sentence can highlight one or more aspects, and can hide or even remove others, thus having the capacity to generate different responses in the readers and manipulate their interpretation.

4) Choices about Incorporating and Representing other Voices

All discourse is said to be multi-voiced or 'heteroglossic'⁴¹ as Mikhail Bakhtin puts it (1981.Cited in B. Johnstone, 2002: 49); this means that each discourse consists of bits and pieces of other discourses, styles, or voices. Fairclough also considers that 'texts transform and embed other texts'⁴²; thus, the meaning of each text is influenced by other texts the producer has got in touch with.

Intertextuality

There are many definitions of the term and many aspects which may be taken into discussion. To put it simply, intertextuality refers to the relationships that exist between texts; no text can be studied and completely understood in isolation but in relation to others. Intertextuality plays a central role in Fairclough's model of CDA for instance. He adds a social dimension to the general definition above: texts must be approached in relation to the social context as well. The main aspect we are interested is the way in

³⁸ Barbara Johnstone, *Discourse Analysis*, Oxford, Blackwell Publishing, 2002, p. 49

³⁹ Patricia Dunmire, "The rhetoric of temporality", in Johnstone and Eisenhart (eds) *Rhetoric in Detail*, Amsterdam, John Benjamins Publishing Company, p. 82

⁴⁰ Norman Fairclough, *Media Discourse*, London, Hodder Education, 1995, p. 119

⁴¹ Mikhail Bakhtin cited in Barbara Johnstone, *Discourse Analysis*, Oxford, Blackwell Publishing, 2002, p. 49

⁴² Norman Fairclough, *Media Discourse*, London, Hodder Education, 1995, p. 75

which voices are represented in the discourse. One's voice can be represented directly or indirectly or by what in traditional grammar is called 'direct speech' and 'indirect speech'. Direct quotation is marked in any written text by means of quotation marks which means that someone's original words are entirely preserved without any change in the verbal tenses, the person of pronouns, or deictic words such as *this*, *now* and *here*.⁴³ Indirect speech refers to reproducing someone's message without using the actual words. When a person's words are not reproduced directly, they are transformed either for brevity reasons or to fit the reporter's needs or intentions.

Almost each editorial contains both direct and indirect quotations, the latter in a higher percentage. Editorial writers often appeal to expert opinion to add more credibility to their own discourse; they also quote or make reference to public persons' words in order to defend or advance an idea. In the case of indirect quotation, the choice of the introductory verbs infers the reporter's attitude towards what is being reported (say, claim, pretend etc.). As a rule, the verbs 'to say' and 'to tell' are used to suggest neutrality towards the statements reported most of the time belonging to authority figures or groups (such as police, politicians or other community leaders). According to Danuta Reah, the verb 'claim' is frequently used by journalists 'to make comment that cannot be substantiated or to cast doubt on statements' whereas the verb 'to confess' is preferred when they want to exacerbate the doubt.⁴⁴

Conclusion

Irrespective of the type of newspaper, they all host a journalistic genre called 'editorial' having a similar basic communicative purpose. The editorial definitely has a privileged position among newspaper articles and has become an essential part of the conception of any newspaper.

Persuasion may take various forms in accordance with the channel of communication and the intended purpose. In editorials, persuasion attempts to influence to a certain degree audiences' opinion either by changing their thinking or behaviour, or by strengthening beliefs, positions, behaviours. Moreover, each choice the editorial writer makes is meant to generate different responses in the readers and manipulate their interpretation.

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⁴³ Norman Fairclough, *Media Discourse*, London, Hodder Education, 1995, p. 81

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THE ROLE OF COMMUNICATION IN THE SUPERVISION OF SOCIAL SERVICES

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Abstract: *Supervision represents the work-meeting between two or more experts, held in an environment negotiated and agreed upon by both parties, which aims to immediately improve direct communication in order to increase the capacity of the supervised to interact with clients in distress, keeping a level of professionalism and an open mind. On a long term, work meetings seek to continually train the supervised to aid in his/her professional development.*

Romanian professionals in social services are often required to spend considerable time in intense interaction and communication with other vulnerable persons. Very often, professional customer interaction is centred precisely on the client's current problems, such as psychological, social, moral or physical problems. The difficult problems of the client must be analysed, studied and understood by the specialist, who also has present solutions to the client. These problems are charged with feelings and resentments of fear, hatred, anger, despair, embarrassment and overwhelming honesty. The professional has to cope with such issues almost on a daily basis when working with clients from social services.

Keywords: *communication, interaction, professional development, professionals*

For professionals working continuously in these conditions, supervision is needed, because the level of stress is very high and also it is known that chronic stress is exhausting from an emotional point of view and that it can lead to the phenomenon of burnout.

The most appropriate method for this study was the focus group. Participants who were selected and invited to participate in the focus group interviews had as a common feature the fact that they work directly with children-clients of the social services in the Timis county. In designing the interview guide, the composition of the group and the duration of the focus group, which lasted about 60 minutes, were all taken into account. The working tool used in the focus group interview guide was comprised of 10 questions. Through the analysis and interpretation of the interview guide used in the focus group meeting with social services professionals working directly with children, the following results have emerged:

- All participants support communication to be the most important need of the specialist, followed by reflection, analysis and patience, both in direct work with clients as well as in the process of supervision;
- To perceive and understand more clearly their own concepts, tools, goals and limits, professionals need to communicate;

- Supervision is a type of "professional communication" aimed at direct communication problems with the client, but it also covers issues of cooperation in the context of the workplace through the benefit of the supervised individual and the institution in which it provides social services;

1. Conceptual preliminaries

Supervision is a dynamic process involving direct communication, which involves exchanges and interactions. Communication helps extensively the professional interaction process that occurs in supervision meetings between the two or more professionals, between the supervisor (who provides supervision and is designated to facilitate the development of professional skills in other specialists) and the supervised (who benefit from supervision) through a mutual and sustained effort. Supervision is conducted as a mutual reflection on professional issues and aims at reducing professionals' insecurities through constructive and positive comments, through the attitude of understanding held by the supervisor, through developing skills and knowledge to oversee analysis by using reflective questions, explorers, and the analysis of alternatives, through reflection and paraphrasing.

We can define supervision as "a professional alliance", as a way of accompaniment, through shared reflections of the professionals working with the human person. Otherwise, it aims to increase skills of working with people in difficulty or at risk and improving the working conditions of professionals to increase efficiency and job satisfaction, but also of professional exhaustion.

Supervision is an important resource and it meets the needs of occupational therapists, both the ones who are in training and also those with experience. Supervision is useful both to the supervised and his/her customers. The first goal of supervision is to protect customer interests.

Supervision is the professional meeting between two or more specialists, which takes place in an environment which was agreed upon both parties, with the immediate purpose of producing direct communication for the increase in the capacity of the supervised to cope with suffering clients, keeping a level of professionalism and an open mind, and, as a long-term purpose, to continually train the supervised in order to stimulate his/her professional development.

Professionals in social services in Romania are often required to spend considerable time in intense interaction and communication with other vulnerable persons. Many times, professional customer interaction is centred precisely on the client's current problems of a psychological, social, moral or physical nature. The difficult problems of the client, which have to be studied, understood but also solved at least at the level of suggestion by the professional, are charged with feelings and resentments of fear, hatred, anger, despair, embarrassment and overwhelming honesty. The professional has to cope with such issues almost on a daily basis when working with clients from social services.

For professionals working continuously in these conditions, supervision is needed, because the level of stress is very high and also it is known that chronic stress is exhausting from an emotional point of view and that it can lead to the phenomenon of burnout.

Working with people is nice but sometimes this work can become very complicated and very difficult. Working with people with special needs is even more difficult. Professionals working in institutions, rehabilitation centres (social workers, psychologists, professional educators, teachers, etc.) are predisposed to the development of the burnout phenomenon, given the clients with which they work, their problems, the high degree of difficulty of the activities they carry, but also the lack of spectacular results in the rehabilitation process.

Teachers, carers and people working directly with children are more prone to burnout because they face a high level of stress as the other professionals in social services, but often they do not receive encouragement from superiors and no feedback through which to be shown a degree of appreciation, respect and valuation. Compared with physicians or other categories of professionals working in social services, carers and even professional educators are considered to be lower class, in the organizational hierarchy, which makes their self-esteem drop even further.

Communication in supervision can mitigate the effects of occupational stress and burnout. Through the communication systems used in supervision, the supervisor can provide more support to supervisees (employees) during professional events filled with stress. If these events and stressful situations are recognized, the supervisor can provide emotional support and instrumental support to the supervised, which helps to reduce stress factors and favours a state of well-being.

The emotional support given by the supervisor to the supervised, consists of active and empathic listening, in the emotional communication with supervised, and in a manifestation of sincere concern for the needs of the supervised.

The instrumental support consists of a specific professional model that the supervisor gives to the supervised so that he/she can solve the cases encountered. This instrumental support actually offers specific experience in performing professional responsibilities.

2. Study design

The main purpose of this study is to discover the importance of communication in the supervision of professional issues in order to establish the need for supervision.

The most appropriate method for this study was the focus group. This technique is a qualitative one, used to deepen information on a specific issue when we are interested in the opinions, suggestions, feelings and reactions of selected persons.

Through the focus group interview method, qualitative data that capture opinions, suggestions, behaviours of individuals and not only quantitative information, is obtained. Thus we may learn in a simple and effective way how these people think, how decisions

are made at the individual level but also at a group level, how to communicate with customers and supervisors, etc.

Participants that were selected and invited to participate in focus group interviews and had the common feature of working directly with children-clients from the Timis county social services. We present some characteristics of the target group, participants in the focus group: of the seven people present, all are women, three have a university degree, and 4 have post-secondary school studies. All are experienced in working with children, at least 5 years old, and the average age of the participants in the group is around 40.

A consent form was developed that examined whether the subjects satisfy the requirements for research (to work directly with children in social services). The consent form was sent via email and is part of the information that present the objectives, the procedures used and the role of the members in this study and includes the following points:

- Brief description of the purpose of the study and its value for the target group;
- Understanding motivations for the election of the subjects;
- Description of the procedures and conditions: time and place of meeting, method of record information, degree of confidentiality and anonymity, description of the dissemination of information.

After confirmation of participation in the research, participants were asked to perform a practical task, to skim a page, sent by e-mail, which would help them prepare for group discussion. In this material a few aspects were briefly presented: what is supervision, the importance of communication in supervision and the need for the supervision of specialists who work directly with the child.

It has been suggested to the participants that the focus group interviews should take part at the West University of Timisoara. I was the group moderator and the group assistant who took notes during the interview was a student at the Department of Social Services in Timisoara. The professionals' request of being recorded on audio tape only and not on video was taken into account.

In designing the interview guide, the composition of the group and the duration of the focus group, which lasted about 60 minutes, were all taken into account. Even before the actual discussion, the moderator introduced the purpose of the study, explained the rules of the interview, mentioned that only one person should speak at any given moment and there are no right or wrong answers.

Immediately after meeting, the moderator and the assistant conducted together a summary of important points and key ideas of the entire interview, after which they compared the similarities and differences.

Results were analyzed by conducting the interview transcripts, followed by using the "spacious table" which is the classification result by category. The report was structured

around the main ideas being used and quoted but they surprised important aspects of the interview.

Working tool used in the focus group interview guide was comprised of 10 questions. The interview guide consisted of open questions which created a certain atmosphere of relaxation and comfort, introductory questions that helped participants to join the discussion topic and also to interact with each other, questions about providing important information and also have intended to lead participants to the key questions the group leading to timely responses with respect to the purpose of the study. Guide interview ended with a final set of questions were designed to result in an elegant way to end the discussion.

3. Study results

Through the analysis and interpretation of the interview guide used in the focus group meeting with the social services professionals working directly with children, the following results have emerged:

- All participants support the fact that communication is the most important need of the specialist, followed by reflection, analysis and patience, both in direct work with clients and in the process of supervision;
- In order to perceive and understand more clearly their own concepts, tools, goals and limits, professionals need to communicate;
- Supervision is a type of "professional communication" aimed at the direct communication problems with the client, but it also covers issues of cooperation in the context of the workplace in terms of the benefit of supervised individual and the institution in which it provides social services;
- To improve the intervention, professional focus group participants regard their training on a continual basis, self-knowledge, exchange of experience, continuous professional feedback as necessities;
- All participants said that they appeal to more experienced colleagues when encountering difficulties at work;
- Of the attitudes and skills which specialists called as necessary, but also very helpful in professional relationships, some are: communication, respect, cooperation, awareness of responsibility, active involvement, continual acquisition of information;
- Most focus group participants consider their work with children to be challenging and interesting, and they believe that if they would receive more professional supervision, on the one hand the quality of living standards of children would increase and, on the other hand, this "professional communication" with the supervisor could effectively help in their professional development on a long term.

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THE ROLE AND IMPACT OF TECHNICAL COMMUNICATION IN THE 21st CENTURY

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Abstract: *The discourse of engineering can be integrated into the world of technical discourse by taking into consideration its common linguistic features and the specificity given by the vocabulary in use. Bearing in mind the global socio-economic, as well as political context, we should take into consideration how factors pertaining to these realms influence communication in this field. Whereas Romanian is official language in this country, our country's accession to the European Union has meant an increased emphasis on the acquisition and use of other foreign languages, among which English seems to be a trendsetter.*

Keywords: *technical discourse, communication, globalisation*

Since the erection of the pyramids, engineers have challenged human ingenuity and creativity in creating ever newer and more useful instruments that make our lives easier. Elementary calculations, the study of interactions between physical bodies from the surrounding world have constituted the legacy of theory and practice that is still applied today, in a technology dominated world. Mechanics and materials science are constantly evolving, ensuring that human life is safer. Production systems have become automated requiring knowledge of things mechanical. Engineering has become the religion of man in the conquest of nature. IT specialists and mechanical engineers rule the world of machines and mechanisms, airplanes, space shuttles and devices ergonomically developed. All this development is based on laboratory tests that imply vast knowledge of mechanics, mechanism, machine parts, laws of physics – statics, dynamics and kinematics of the rigid, solid and fluid bodies. Intelligent materials and their applications also require knowledge of physics, mechanics and mechanisms in order to use them in optimum conditions. Renewable energies, although known for a long time, have been ignored but are starting to be the concern of engineers again in an attempt to create mechanisms that transform renewable energies into electrical or thermal energy. Industrial design would not function without knowledge of mechanical engineering and materials.

The discourse of engineering can be integrated into the world of technical discourse by taking into consideration its common linguistic features and the specificity given by the vocabulary in use. Our interest in this type of professional English rises from work background and experience in learning and teaching English for Engineering, as well as from observations made over the years regarding the characteristics of this type of discourse in Romania. It appears that the language of mechanical engineering is rich in foreign borrowings; it adopts mainly English as means of conveying information,

probably due to global tendencies of communication in mainstream international languages; and it is a type of discourse that blends various contexts, language users and communication rules that are specific to the field of practice of mechanical engineers. Engineering as a profession has re-gained its sought-after status that appeared to have been lost. In the contemporary Romanian society there seems to be high demand for engineers that will contribute to the improvement of productive industries in our country. Technical education is increasing and the number of specializations offered by universities seems to demonstrate the need for specialists in engineering fields. Bearing in mind the global social and economic, as well as political context, we should take into consideration how these factors influence the production and transmission of information in this field. Whereas Romanian is official language in this country, our country's accession to the European Union has meant an increased emphasis on the acquisition and use of other foreign languages, among which English seems to be a trendsetter. From this point of view, a direction of research that we propose to further investigate, beyond the limits of this paper, is the extent to which Romanian language users have integrated or adapted English into their system of communication in the field of mechanical engineering.

Technical communication and technical writing is understood as communication, both written and oral, with the purpose of informing and persuading people to perform some professional tasks. Rosenberg, Sanborn Pfeiffer, Pauley and Riordan are among the many authors who define technical communication in terms of purpose, context, structure and style.

In the broad sense, then, we can think of technical English as a type of text and discourse that shows how things are made, what lies beyond the process of making them, the purposes that they serves as well as the general laws that govern the making, scope and use of those particular instances referred to as things. Technical writing can be defined as a type of expository writing (sometimes persuasive writing) most often used to convey information (or to convince others) for technical or business purposes, writing to communicate specific information, as a description of a computer operation or directions for operating a videocassette recorder (VCR). Technical writers create documentation for a technology. Their responsibility, like graphic designers', is to effectively communicate a message. Technical writers are responsible for writing text that is helpful to its intended audience, accurate, readable, and accessible.

In nearly all forms of technical communication four elements play a crucial role in the creation of technical discourse: purpose and aim, audience, knowledge structure and argumentation strategies employed in the process of communication.

Technical communications are created and distributed by most employees in service organizations today, especially by professional staff and management. Writing well is difficult and time-consuming, and writing in a technical way and about technical subjects compounds the difficulties. The entire point of communications is to disseminate useful information. To be useful, information must be understood and acted upon.

Thinking about English in a technical age, we can affirm that technical communication has become an attitude, about the relationship between language and the social.

Approaches, which have been specifically developed within the English for Science and Technology setting, are mentioned below:

- Gopnik's study of the linguistic structure of scientific texts (1972) – concentrating on the structure of scientific texts rather than their vocabulary, paying attention to syntactic structures and transformations in articles in experimental biology and biochemistry;
- the text typology approach of Gläser (1990) and the Leipzig school - counting elements in a corpus of texts on different subjects and from different fields and statistically analysing them;
- Trimble's "rhetorical analysis" of English for Science and Technology (1985) – basically oriented towards teaching English for Science and Technology, primarily intended for pedagogical purposes, with a focus on teaching procedures. McElholm suggests that Trimble's approach is the better known attempt to analyse such texts, with some critical remarks regarding this discourse approach. Firstly, Trimble's analytical tools are confusing, secondly, argumentation is absent from his theory; rhetorical functions and patterns are not linked to grammatical phenomena, which are not systematically dealt with. Finally, Trimble never contrasted structures from English for Science and Technology texts with those found in ordinary discourse (McElholm 2002)
- Swales' genre analysis, which proposes a division of texts into different types within an overall linguistic frame, but is limited to introductions to research articles.

Further, the ongoing division between technical communication practitioners and academics should be explored by examining the conceptual metaphors that underlie their discourse in professional journals and textbooks. The conceptual metaphor theory as formulated by George Lakoff and Mark Johnson (1980) is a viable lens through which to engage in rhetorical and linguistic analysis. Academics and practitioners engage in radically different linguistic behaviours that result from the complex and often conflicting interplay of conceptual metaphors that guide their work. These metaphors carry assumptions about writers, texts, and communication that create covert tensions with the ethical value systems overtly embraced by both practitioners and academics.

Practitioners tend to use metaphors primarily centred around machines and money, objectifying both documents and people and reducing the processes of communication to a series of abstract mathematical influences. Academics participate in a much more complex conceptual system, embracing language about communication that favours metaphors of human agency, physical presence and complex social interaction. However, academics also participate in the abstracted, object-oriented metaphors primarily used by practitioners, leading to a particular discourse both advocating and at odds with humanist social values. Academics perpetuate the division between industry

and academy with their tendency to use conceptual metaphors that contradict their social and ethical imperatives. A more detailed linguistic analysis may be a fruitful way of understanding and perhaps addressing the long-standing tensions between academics and practitioners in the field of technical communication.

In 2006, in the book *New Trends in Specialized Discourse Analysis*, edited by Gotti and Giannoni, in its third section, “The Discourse of Science and Technology”, Khurshid Ahmad demonstrates how corpus linguistics methodology is applied in the study of metaphors in texts on particle and nuclear physics. Firstly, he claims that ‘scientists literally and metaphorically create a world of make-believe through a web of words – some borrowed, some invented, endorsing self-belief here and suppressing the beliefs of others there (Ahmad apud Gotti and Giannoni, 2006: 198)’. The way researchers phrase their thoughts and which words they choose may influence our perception. This potential of specialised discourse to shape our understanding of specific phenomena requires further interdisciplinary analysis.

Second, Ahmad concentrates on the rationale behind the use of metaphors in scientific journals (2006: 199). This aspect has been explored less frequently in comparison to texts in popular scientific magazines for lay people. According to Ahmad, the following have discussed these issues: Dubois in 1986, Fahnestock in 1986, Koskela in 1997, Myers in 1990; Ventola and Mauranen in 1992. In the same book edited by Gotti and Giannoni (www.peterlang.com), Susanne Göpferich touches upon the widely researched problem of incomprehensibility of popular scientific texts. She analyses how a group of subjects interpret popular science texts about diabetes with the help of optimizing verbalization using thinking aloud and log files. The thread of popular scientific texts is continued in Paola Catenaccio’s paper. She concentrates on various linguistic and rhetorical moves employed there and tries to account for the similarities and differences between them.

In order to analyse the type of discourse specific to science, technology and engineering we need to put the past and present research findings into perspective. Technical discourse in English has become a widespread medium for interaction in all countries, as English remains the world of international communication, in a globalised society. We shall focus on the aspect of the importance of English in technical discourse in Romania. First, let us review some opinions that have been expressed in relation to the functional classification of English language as a main component in the analysis of specialized discourses.

Special language and *specialized aim* are two entirely different notions. Scholarly work points out that confusion arises over these two notions. Mackay and Mountford (1978) state that the only practical way in which we can understand the notion of special language is as a restricted repertoire of words and expressions selected from the whole language, because that restricted repertoire covers every requirement within a well-defined context, task or vocation. On the other hand, a specialized aim refers to the purpose for which learners learn a language, not the nature of the language they learn (Mackay &

Mountford 1978). Consequently, the focus of the word 'special' in ESP ought to be on the purpose for which learners learn and not on the specific jargon or registers they learn.

Mary LaRoche wrote of technical discourse, seeing it as a “structure necessarily created by the writer out of the elements of the writing situation”. Her focus on the writer is not singular, as other researchers have noted that the author is of major importance. Robert Boltwood remarked that technical writing “provides information for people who will use it”, implying a twofold perspective on discourse. From the point of view of an author, the writer must be an authority in the field, and the audience will necessarily derive one and the same meaning from the given piece of discourse. In the same line of thought, W.E. Britton asserted that the “primary characteristic of technical and scientific writing lies in the effort of the author to convey one meaning and only one meaning in what he says” (Britton apud Baywood, 1965).

An account of what we understand by specialized discourse should also take into consideration contributions such as van Dijk's (2000), who emphasized the importance of knowledge in the shaping of technical discourses, hereby shaping the concept of context relevance in interpretation of meaning:

“A more sophisticated account of the role of knowledge in discourse processing is especially relevant in the account of specialized (e.g., scientific) discourses, whose production and comprehension crucially depend on various kinds of specialized knowledge. This is most obvious in the use of technical terminology, but also extends to many other aspects of specialized discourse, such as its preferred topics, overall format or text-schema, style, rhetoric, argumentation patterns, methods of proof and demonstration, the use of tables, figures and other non-verbal aspects of discourse, and so on. Indeed, the knowledge about specialized discourse properties is part of the very specialized knowledge of the experts”.

Considering all the examples above, when defining technical discourse, the following distinctions should be made. Firstly, technical and scientific writing is a broad field in which it is highly recommended that a division into subject areas be made, so that the reader is indeed focused on one interpretation. Technical writing, engineering writing, engineering English, scientific English, scientific communication are important subdivisions, yet not completely adequate to define our field of research. In a broad sense, technical discourse could be seen as discourse with subject matter in science, engineering and business. More specifically, technical discourse should be one that focuses on subjects that fall within the science of engineering. Among its characteristics would be – concern with scientific and technical matters, use of scientific vocabulary (with a special focus on adjectives and nouns) and conventional report forms, commitment to objectivity and accuracy, a wide range of task.

“Technical communication probes deeply into our human capacity to conceive and manipulate symbols – our linguistic capacity. It explores how language has made us and continues to make us into the sort of animals we are: an animal capable of improving itself

through technology, homo faber because we are homo symbolicus and vice versa" (Smith 1986)

Science has not been able to escape rhetoric, argument, and advocacy, because each scientific paper, when first written, is not immediately an unquestioned truth. In a scientific paper an author attempts to convince colleagues of some claim or set of related claims. At issue may be the identification of a phenomenon, the accuracy and veracity of data, the appropriateness of method, the general usefulness of a set of methods, the interpretation of data, or a new theoretical position. Scientific claims and methods must present themselves in competition with other claims, so an article must present good reasons why its claims should be taken as more accurate and more important than other claims in other articles. Although standards of scientific argument have been refined over the centuries, they are always directed at making claims persuasive. Standards of argument are often identified as methodological rather than rhetorical, because they have to do with finding and producing the most relevant and precise data or making the connection between data and ideas, but these nonetheless are issues of persuasiveness. The current standards have emerged because they have proven to be the most persuasive, trumping weaker arguments resting on less powerful data and reasoning.

The increasing number of journals and professional societies communicating knowledge escalated, supported by social and technological changes. As research and training became more specialized and academic, scientific publications became more esoteric, theoretical, and filled with specialized vocabulary. Currently the Web of Science, a major indexing service, reports on approximately 6000 major scientific journals.

This enclosure of science required substantial rhetorical work to define and maintain the social boundaries of science that allowed science to be internally regulated, to gain public authority over its areas of interest, and to garner public and commercial support for its endeavours. To convey the esoteric work of science to popular audiences, new journals emerged. As science and technology became more important for social, economic, and governmental institutions, many new genres and pathways of communication developed. To assist technologists in communicating with their peers, their corporate co-workers, and the public, technical writing instruction emerged as a university field in the twentieth century, and the technical writer became a major employment title in many organizations. As newspapers increased reporting on science and technology in the latter twentieth century, scientific journalism also became a recognized specialty.

The act of communication through language represents levels of cognitive and social activities. In terms of text in the field of E.S.T. there are clear differences that help us distinguish types of operations presented in them.

Expository texts are common in engineering discourses, since science and technology usually present general facts, rather than individual ones. The following is a fragment from an expository text:

“All matter is made from tiny particles called atoms. So far, scientists have discovered about 112 different types of atoms. A substance made up of atoms, which are all the same, is called a chemical element... For example, the gas oxygen is an element. So is the metal iron. A substance made up of different type of atoms joined together is called a compound. For example, water is a compound of the elements oxygen and hydrogen. The atoms of different elements can combine in so many different ways, to form many thousands of different compounds” (Pocket Science, 1999)

As we can see, the text presents objects, terms that have a clearly defined meaning in the field of chemistry. Furthermore, the text is concerned with the general properties of chemicals and not with one particular instance. They show the relationship between facts, the methods used to establish these facts. This is why in this kind of text one finds many definitions and classifications.

“The unit used to measure frequency is named Hertz, which is defined to be the number of cycles in one second. (This unit is named after Heinrich Hertz, a famous 19th century physicist.) If you increase the frequency of sound (there are more cycles in a second), you get a higher pitched sound. When you decrease the frequency, you get a lower pitched sound.” (<http://www.dosits.org/science/whatis/frequency.htm>)

“In acoustics, a sound is ... quantified by its frequency of vibration. However, scientists refer to another quality of sound called pitch that is a subjective measure of the combination of the frequency and intensity of a sound.” (<http://www.bartleby.com/64/C004/027.html>)

Expository writing is a mode of writing in which the purpose of the author is to inform, explain, describe, or define a subject to the reader.

“A typical mechanical differential contains a housing (or carrier), two side gears, and several pinion gears. A rotating driveshaft of the vehicle engages a ring gear, which is mounted onto the differential housing. The driveshaft drives the ring gear, which in turn rotates the differential housing. Pinion shafts attach the pinion gears to the housing so that, as the housing rotates, the pinion gears are driven. The pinion gears drive the two side gears, which in turn drive the axle (or half shafts) attached thereto.” (<http://www.freepatentsonline.com/WO2007111915.html>)

A well-written exposition is focused on its topic and listing events in chronological order. Examples of this type of writing are instructions, directions and instructions on performing a task. Key words such as first, after, next, then and last usually signal sequential writing. Personal pronouns may appear in this type of writing, which can be subdivided into:

- a sequence –a structure also known as ‘process or collection’, a listing of the order of steps in a process or listing of events in chronological order;
- a descriptive essay - that enables the reader to feel whatever is being described;

- a classification - an organizational strategy in which authors arrange groups of objects or ideas according to a common topic in detail;
- a comparison - showing how two or more subjects are similar or contrasting; this type of structure is often used in determining which is the better of two or more choices; cause and effect writing identifies the reason for something occurring and lists what occurs because of that reason (analysis), or depicts a 'causal chain', several events (causes) leading up to another event. (effect);
- expository dialogue.

As discussed by Larson, Longacre (www.sil.org), and McElholm (2002) the language characteristics of **expository texts** are: the use of present simple and present perfect simple; articles and nouns combine in a generic way; connectors which express cause, effect, result, objectives, contrast and concession are used

In linguistics, a text that refers both to the codification and the enforcement of rules governing how a language is to be used is called prescriptive. These rules can cover such topics as standards for spelling and grammar or syntax; rules for what is deemed socially or politically correct. **Prescriptive texts** are typically contrasted with descriptive ones, which observe and record how language is used in practice, and which is the basis of all linguistic research. Serious scholarly descriptive work is usually based on text or corpus analysis, or on field studies, but the term "description" includes each individual's observations of their own language usage. Unlike prescription, descriptive linguistics eschews value judgements and makes no recommendations.

The main aims of linguistic prescription are to define standardized language forms either generally (what is Standard English?) or for specific purposes (what style and register is appropriate in, for example, a patent?) and to formulate these in such a way as to make them easily accessible. Prescription can apply to most aspects of language: to spelling, grammar, semantics, pronunciation and register. Prescription aims to draw workable guidelines for language users seeking advice in such matters. EST being typically concerned with generic states of affairs, prescription that appear here are not specific. At the same time, prescriptive E.S.T. texts are normative, saying how things should be done, as in the following example:

“... in at least one embodiment, the guide slots 70 may be produced inexpensively, for example, by die casting due to the guide slots 70 functioning only to aid in assembly. The apertures 60 may also be produced relatively inexpensively, for example, by use of a drill and milling machine. The size and the location of the apertures 60 can be precisely produce to support a pinion gear assembly, such as, the spider pinion gear assembly.”
<http://www.freepatentsonline.com/WO2007111915.html>

According to McElholm (2002), their language characteristics are: the use of the imperative, the conditional, the future and the present subjunctive mood, impersonal constructions of the form *it is necessary that*, modal verbs like *must*, *should*, *need to*, *may*.

Argumentative texts try to discover problems and respond to them using logical and argumentative structures. Popular science texts and media argue for or against a

particular point of view, dealing with a problem and trying to persuade the audience of the correctness of the point of view or conclusion drawn, on basis of the arguments presented and the inferences made.

Their language characteristics are: use of logical and argumentative linking words, use of qualifiers, they contain inductive and deductive inferences and they contain hypotheses.

Narrative texts relate events or sequences of events in the past and in E.S.T. They are generally historical accounts, such as the history of the windmill, etc. Typically, an E.S.T. narrative would belong to popular science magazines:

“Since ancient times, man has harnessed the power of the wind to provide motive power for transportation. Likewise, the technique of grinding grain between stones to produce flour is similarly ancient, and widespread. Quite where and when these two came together in the first windmill is unknown, but a likely scenario suggests a Persian origin, from where (tradition has it) the knowledge spread back into Northern Europe as a result of the Crusades. However, since the Persian mills were quite unlike the early European designs it seems just as likely that the adaptation of wind as a power source was independently discovered in Europe, albeit at a later date.”

(<http://www.windmillworld.com/windmills/history.htm>)

We have found that their language characteristics are: use of adverbs of time and space, use of past tenses, temporal connectors, anaphoric or cataphoric reference.

Owing to the way that knowledge is structured in science, to the nature of the phenomena it deals with, **descriptive texts** are not very frequently encountered. Descriptive elements are usually found in **expository texts**, presenting concrete individual phenomena; the use of numbers is a typical indicator of a descriptive text, referring to a concrete reality in real time and space:

“In this diagram, the cross-head is connected to a drive rod that connects to one of three drive wheels for the train. The three wheels are connected via coupling rods so they turn in unison.” (<http://science.howstuffworks.com/steam1.htm>)

Descriptive texts include references to concrete places, use deictic expressions and indexical expressions, deal with spatial relationships between objects and with concrete persons and their actions. Thus, we have observed the following language characteristics: use of stative verbs, use of articles and possessive adjectives, use of the present tense simple, use of adverbs of space and time and last, but not least, situational reference.

A text may contain a mixture of the aforementioned types and in each text one of them will be the predominant mode of communication. The various linguistic features cover a range of microstructural (linguistic) phenomena that define the dimension of argumentation of E.S.T. texts as defined by McElholm. He proposed a table, “which also

indicates the genre or type of text frequently associated with a particular level of communication” (McElholm, 2002:153-154)

The importance of E.S.T. for international communication has meant increased interest in the analysis of E.S.T. and above all in the analysis of the structure of EST texts. To analyse E.S.T. texts it is necessary to have an overall theory of language and text that can deal with E.S.T. as part of its framework; a theory that can analyse grammatical and textual phenomena at all levels in an integrated way; tools to discover the overall structures of E.S.T. texts; analysis of representative samples of all the different levels and genres of E.S.T. texts; a framework to illustrate the functionality of E.S.T. texts belonging to different genres in the specialised contemporary contexts; an interdisciplinary approach to deal with the variety of sociolinguistic, grammatical, textual and cognitive phenomena encountered in E.S.T.

Among the questions that remain to be answered are: How do argumentation and rhetoric provide categories and structures for the analysis of EST? How do the linguistic, ontological, cognitive and epistemological dimensions intertwine in the analysis of E.S.T? How does specialised discourse shape our understanding of specific phenomena? What particular phenomena that have been explored less in E.S.T research need closer examination? (analogy, metaphor, metonymy, synechdoche)? How important are standards in text analysis?

In order to make plausible generalisations about the nature of E.S.T. texts, research in this direction should aim at establishing whether certain categories or genres have different structures (are popular science texts different from specialised articles) and how specialised vocabulary reflects and shapes a type of understanding of the world around us.

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BRANDS - TOOLS OF INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

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Abstract: *Brands have many meanings for a company and can be seen from different perspectives such as: economic, quality standards, production, distribution, international recognition; they are references to competition or new entrants on the market, and especially they have marketing and communication significance. From the multitude of communication tools used by a company, brands can encompass the most important communication aspects. To communicate them properly, there are carried out tests and pre-tests, image studies differentiated on the various types of consumer segments, evaluation of intangible assets, etc. For many multinational companies brands are tools - uniform or adapted – of global intercultural communication. In our paper we highlight aspects of brand development in the period 2001 - 2011 regarding various aspects and implications: brand value, brand ranking based on the industry sectors, brand country of origin, etc. based on data published annually by Interbrand using its own methodology in the report "Annual ranking of the Top 100 Brands."*

Keywords: *brand, different perspectives, multinational companies, tools, industry*

Introduction

A company communication policy has a major impact on the economic life. On the one hand it is about the consumption growth, growth that led to what nowadays we call consumerism, and on the other hand, it is about the measurement of firms' effort to attract new customers, maintain or gain market share or even to predict the "latent" needs of consumers. *The factors* that have led to the increasing importance of the companies' communication policy are as follows:

- economic (the increase of the marketing efficiency),
- social ('sophisticated' consumers)
- technologic (advertising on the Internet, "smartcards", etc.)
- political (freedom of the mass-media, changing attitudes towards advertising)

How to assemble the "pieces" of meaning, perception of communication tools based on various consumer variables (such as culture, country of origin, gender, etc.) are important for the company and hence for its communication policy. Thus, advertising agencies and implicitly leading brands (in manufacturing, distribution, etc.) should carefully consider the interpretation and perception among consumers of signs and symbols language used in advertisements or product design (for example of a car).

Worldwide, there are organizations that deal directly with companies' customer communications. Such as: **PIMS** - *Profit Impact of Marketing Strategy* that gathers information about advertising and marketing practiced by a large number of companies in

the U.S.A., **BARB** - *Broadcasters' Audience Research Board*, **IREP** – *The French Institute of advertising research and studies*, **CESP** - *Center of advertising media studies, the Bureau of advertising legal verification* -, *World Advertising Expenditures* which publishes the distribution of advertising costs on information means and countries, *BENN'S Media Directory*, *Zenith's Europe Market Facts*, *BIB World Guide* that publish information on advertising media by country, *Interbrand* which publishes a top chart of brands based on its own methodology and *Brand Directory* that has the same objective. The regular assessment of brands and publication of these "top charts" have influences on consumer purchase decision, on their preference regarding the product quality, as well as on the business partners of the valued companies etc.

Implications and Conceptual Considerations of Brands

According to **J. Pepper** [2005, p. 15-16], former manager of Procter & Gamble, a company whose brands are found in the top charts published by *Interbrand* and *Brand Directory*, one of the factors of the success of Procter & Gamble brand is the *ability to communicate products benefits with relevance and conviction* [2005, p. 15-16], next to [2005, p. 16-25]:

- a passion for providing new benefits to consumers
- a commitment to thoroughly and intimately understand consumer needs
- an ability to turn consumer understanding into winning strategies and business models
- an ability to connect and develop technologies inside and outside Procter & Gamble
- „champions ” who create and sustain great leadership brands

Kapferer and **Laurent** [1981] noted *six functions* of brands, namely: practical function, warranty, customization, playfulness, specificity, and the distinctive function and **Orson Helfen** [1981] lists the roles that can be achieved by a brand: a brand for all the products, for a product line, a generic brand plus a product complement, a product brand, the lack of a brand, distributor brand. **Scaramuzzino** [1986] mentions the importance of trade policy to present the product on the market, the influencing factors are: brand awareness, reputation of manufacturer, advertising campaign, sales promotions, price, commercial conditioning, packaging, etc.

According to **Ph. Kotler** [1997, p. 558], the brand significance includes: product features, product benefits, values, perceptions, personality and user.

Statistical Characterization of the Brands Intercultural Implications Worldwide

Consumers, regardless of their endogenous (perception, personality, attitude, motivation, etc.) and exogenous variables (age, income, gender, social status, education level, occupational status, reference group, etc.) wish to buy “branded” products and

services, perceived - according to numerous studies - as a guarantee of quality, trends, technology innovations. The other side, companies are striving through financial efforts to meet consumers' needs. This consumer need, however, has a "global" feature, respectively that the need in itself to hold branded products does not vary according to culture. Even those segments of consumers who cannot afford financially to purchase branded products buy these products as "second-hand", as it is seen on the car market.

All consumers know (from commercials, the rumors, the news on the radio or TV, publications, advertising banners of the national and international sporting events, etc.) the brands presented in Table. 1 - Top 10 brands in the world during 2001-2011 - data structured in this table being described further in detail and from a statistical point of view.

Table 1 - Top 10 brands in the period 2001 to 2011

2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Coca-Cola	Coca-Cola	Coca-Cola	Coca-Cola	Coca-Cola	Coca-Cola	Coca-Cola	Coca-Cola	Coca-Cola	Coca-Cola	Coca-Cola
Micro soft	Micro soft	Micro soft	Micro soft	Micro soft	Micro soft	Micro soft	IBM	IBM	IBM	IBM
IBM	IBM	IBM	IBM	IBM	IBM	IBM	Micro soft	Micro soft	Micro soft	Micro soft
GE	GE	GE	GE	GE	GE	GE	GE	GE	Google	Google
Nokia	Intel	Intel	Intel	Intel	Intel	Nokia	Nokia	Nokia	GE	GE
Intel	Nokia	Nokia	Disney	Nokia	Nokia	Toyota	Toyota	McDo nalds	McDo nalds	McDo nalds
Disney	Disney	Disney	McDo nalds	Disney	Toyota	Intel	Intel	Google	Intel	Intel
Ford	McDo nalds	McDo nalds	Nokia	McDo nalds	Disney	McDo nalds	McDo nalds	Toyota	Nokia	Apple

McDo nalds	Marl boro	Marl boro	Toyota	Toyota	McDo nalds	Disney	Disney	Intel	Disney	Disney
AT&T	Merce des	Merce des	Marl boro	Marl boro	Merce des	Merce des	Google	Disney	HP	HP

(Source: extracted from the annual reports - INTERBRAND – „2001 – 2011 Ranking of the Top 100 Brands” available at <http://www.interbrand.com/en/best-global-brands/best-global-brands-2008/best-global-brands-2011.aspx>)

Both data presented in Table 1 and the statistical characterization of the brands cross-cultural implications were elaborated using data published annually by Interbrand – “The top 100 brand” using its own methodology, as shown in Figure 1. Another company that publishes such a top chart is BRAND DIRECTORY which uses its own methodology for brands evaluation.

Interbrand's method looks at the ongoing investment and management of the brand as a business asset. This means that their method takes into account all the many ways in which a brand touches and benefits its organization - from attracting and retaining talent to delivering on customer expectations. The final value can then be used to guide brand management, so businesses can make better, more informed decisions. There are three key aspects that contribute to the assessment: *the financial performance of the branded products or services, the role of brand in the purchase decision process, and the strength of the brand.*

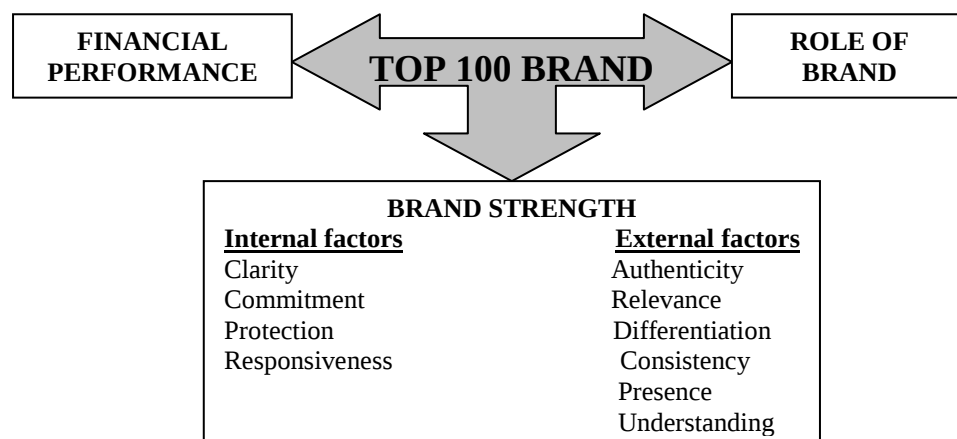


Figure 1 – Factors included in INTERBRAND methodology for the „Top 100 brands” (Source: adaptation based on <http://www.interbrand.com/en/best-global-brands/best-global-brands-methodology/Brand-Strength.aspx>)

Hierarchy of brands from "top 10 brand" (Table 1) or "top 100 brand" according to the country of origin of the brand is detailed and presented in Table 2, their evolution during the 11 years being an interesting one: U.S.A. has more than half of the top 100 brands in the world, but recorded a downward trend, from 62 brands in 2001 (recording a peak in 2002 with 65 brands) to 49 brands now.

During this period, European brands (from 30 brands in 2001 to 38 brands in 2011) and Asian brands (from 7 brands in 2001 to 10 brands in 2011) gained ground in this top chart. From the European countries with spectacular developments we mention: *France* (from 3 brands in 2001 to 7 brands in 2011), *Germany* (from 7 brands in 2001 to 10 brands in 2011), and *Switzerland* (from 3 brands in 2001 to 5 brands in 2011). The only European countries with brands in the "top 10 brand" are: *Finland* with Nokia brand (during 2001-2010), *Germany* with Mercedes in 2002, 2003, 2006 and 2007.

Table 2 - Hierarchy of region / country based on "Top 100 Brands" from 2001 to 2011

Region/country	2011	2010	2009	2008	2007	2006	2005	2004	2003	2002	2001
United States	49	50	51	52	53	52	53	58	62	65	62
Germany	10	10	11	10	10	9	9	9	6	6	7
France	7	8	9	9	9	8	8	8	7	5	3
Japan	7	6	7	7	8	8	7	7	7	6	6
Switzerland	5	5	4	4	4	5	5	4	3	3	3
United Kingdom	5	5	4	3	5	5	4	4	5	4	5
Italy	3	3	4	4	2	4	4	3	2	3	3
Netherlands	3	3	2	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	3
Canada	2	2	2	2							
South Korea	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	1	1	1	1
Spain	2	2	1	1	1	1	1				
Sweden	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	3
Finland	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Mexico	1	1									
Taiwan	1										
Bermuda									1	1	1
Denmark											1
Ireland											1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Europe	38 %	39 %	38 %	37 %	36 %	37 %	37 %	34 %	29 %	27 %	30 %
North America	52 %	53 %	53 %	54 %	53 %	52 %	53 %	58 %	63 %	66 %	63 %
Asia	10 %	8% 	9% 	9% 	11 %	11 %	10 %	8% 	8% 	7% 	7%

(Source: analyses and interpretations based on INTERBRAND – „2001 – 2011 Ranking of the Top 100 Brands” available at <http://www.interbrand.com/en/best-global-brands/best-global-brands-2008/best-global-brands-2011.aspx>)

Regarding the economic value of brands (Table 3), analyzed structurally for top ten brands in the world as well as for the 100 top brands in 2001-2011, we noticed a decrease of approximately 5% of the top ten brands in the total value of top 100 brands in the world, from 41.45% to 36.62%, the decrease being due to the growth on the one hand of the total value of top 100 brands, from 988,287 \$m in 2001 to 1258.151 \$ m in 2011 (Figure 2).

Table 3 - Brand value of „the 10 brands” and „the 100 brands” in period 2001 - 2011

Year	Brand value of the Top 10 brands (\$m)	Brand value of the Top 100 brands (\$m)	(%) of the top10/top100
2001	409,661	988,287	41,45%
2002	387,850	976,657	39,71%
2003	386,575	973,955	39,69%
2004	381,123	995,601	38,28%
2005	388,359	1045,065	37,16%
2006	396,569	1092,694	36,29%
2007	411,588	1155,707	35,61%
2008	424,934	1214,395	34,99%
2009	422,901	1158,304	36,51%
2010	433,125	1202,909	36,01%
2011	460,777	1258,151	36,62%

(Source: analyses and interpretations based on INTERBRAND – „2001 – 2011 Ranking of the Top 100 Brands” available at <http://www.interbrand.com/en/best-global-brands/best-global-brands-2008/best-global-brands-2011.aspx>)

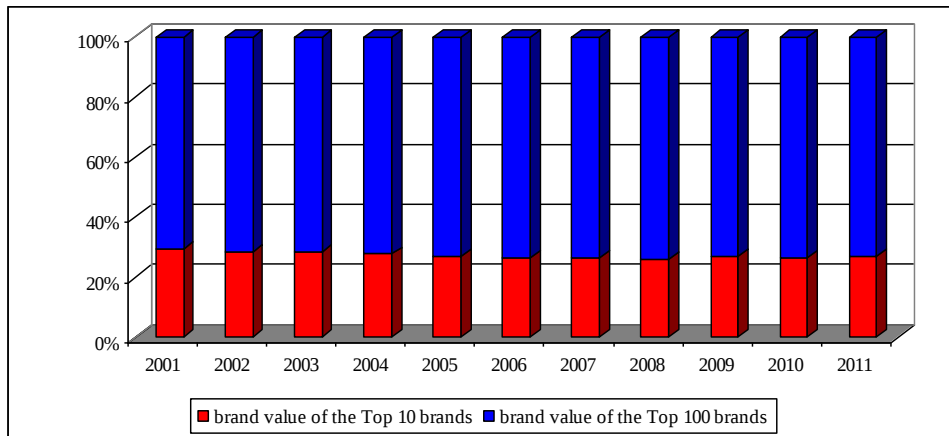


Figure 2 - Share of top 10 brands in total 100 brands in the period 2001 to 2011

Brand hierarchy depending on its industry sector is presented in Table 4, the evolution of entry and exit of the "Top 100 Brands" being characterized by the following (Figure 3):

- brands from *retail* and *leisure goods* sectors were only present in the top 100 in 2001, then “disappeared” from the top;
- other areas whose brands have left top 100 are: *telecommunications* (in 2003), *toy manufacturing* (in 2004), *Aerospace and Defense* (in 2005);
- areas of activity with the lowest number of brands in the top 100 chart (only 1-2 brands) are: *hospitality*, *pharmaceuticals*, *tobacco*, *transportation*, *home furnishings*, *energy*, *sporting goods*, *computer software*;
- most brands come from the *electronics* area (with a downward trend, however, from 18 brands in 2001 to 14 brands in 2011), *Financial Services* (with a dramatic upward trend, from 4 brands in 2001 to 14 brands in 2011), *automotive* (from 8 brands in 2001 to 12 brands in 2011);
- an evolution that follows the global economy course is that of the *luxury brands sector*, which had an upward trend until 2009 from 7 brands in 2001 to 11 brands in 2009, falling in 2011 to 7 brands in the top 100 brands.

Table 4 - Ranking the industry sectors of the "Top 100 Brands" from 2001 to 2011

Sector	2011	2010	2009	2008	2007	2006	2005	2004	2003	2002	2001
Electronics	14	13	14	15	16	16	16	15	16	17	18
Financial Services	14	14	10	13	12	9	9	9		6	4
Automotive	12	11	12	12	13	12	12	11	9	8	8
FMCG	11	13	14	12	13		13	14	13	13	10
Alcohol	7	7	3	4	4	4	5	5	8	7	10
Luxury	7	7	11	9	10	11	10	10	8	8	7
Business Services	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	4
Diversified	5	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	2
Beverages	4	4	3	3		3	3	3	3	3	3
Internet Services	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	
Restaurants	4		5	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	5
Apparel	3	3	3		2			2	2	2	2
Media	3	3	3	1	3	3	3	4	5	5	6
Computer Software	2	2	2		1	2	1	1	2	2	2
Sporting Goods	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Energy	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3
Home Furnishings	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Transportation	1	1	1	2	1	1	1		1	1	1
Tobacco		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Hospitality				1							1
Pharmaceuticals						2	2	2	2	2	2
Aerospace and Defense								1	1	1	1
Toy Manufacturing									1	1	1
Telecommunications										1	1
Leisure Goods											1
Retail											1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

(Source: analyses and interpretation based on INTERBRAND – „2001 – 2011 Ranking of the Top 100 Brands” available at <http://www.interbrand.com/en/best-global-brands/best-global-brands-2008/best-global-brands-2011.aspx>)

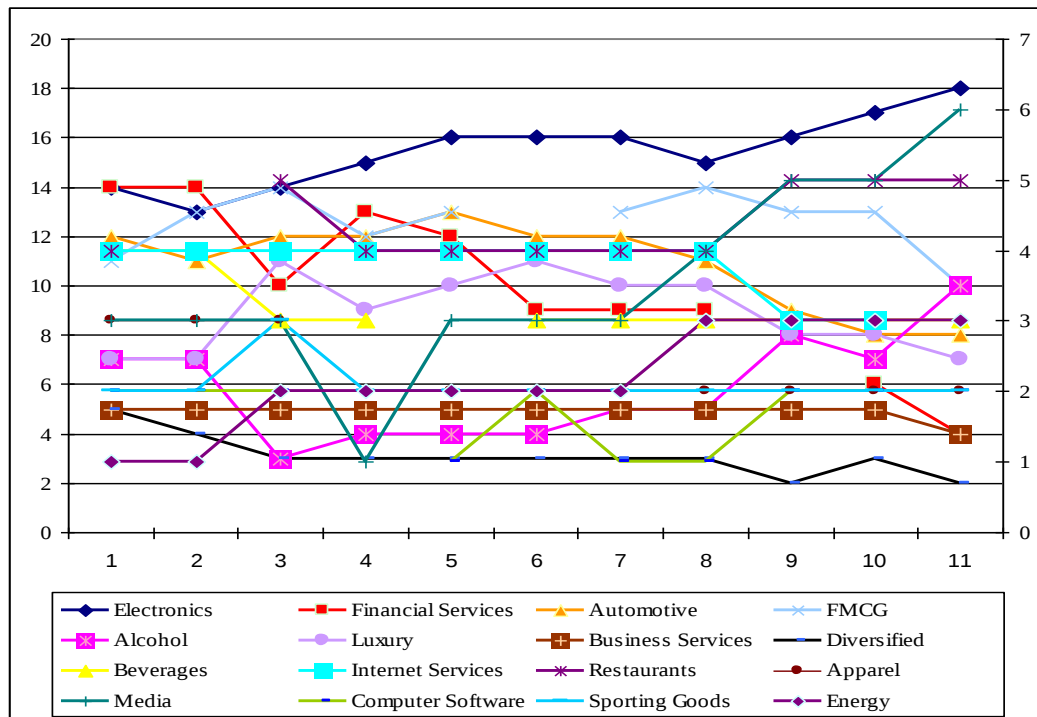


Figure 3 – The evolution of the industry sectors share of the "Top 100" brands during 2001 - 2011

Conclusions

As the brand significance includes: product features, product benefits, values, perceptions, personality and user, the regular assessment of brands and publication of "top charts" have influences on consumer purchase decision, on their preference regarding the product quality, as well as on the business partners of the evaluated companies etc.

U.S.A. has more than half of the top 100 brands in the world, even though it recorded a downward trend. From the European countries with spectacular developments we mention: France, Germany, and Switzerland and the only European countries with brands in the "top 10 brand" are: Finland with Nokia brand (during 2001-2010), Germany with Mercedes in 2002, 2003, 2006 and 2007.

The areas of activity with the lowest number of brands in the top 100 are: hospitality, pharmaceuticals, tobacco, transportation, home furnishings, energy, sporting goods, computer software compared to electronics area, financial services, automotive where most brands come from.

Even though there are differences regarding the industry sectors of the most "wanted" brands, the consumer need, however, has a "global" feature, respectively that the need in itself to hold branded products does not vary according to culture. Even those segments of consumers who cannot afford financially to purchase branded products buy these products as "second-hand", as it is seen on the car market. So, we can conclude that

the consumers' needs do not vary according culture but there is a global culture of branding communication.

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