

ALTERED

An undergraduate student journal – Volume 3



Edited by Fiona Handley, Nicole McNab and Laura Gubby



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Foreword

In reflecting upon another year of superb student achievement, I am reassured by the excellent work of the students, here at the University of Winchester. Undergraduate papers herein, demonstrate the high quality of work our students produce, through the encouragement and mentoring of University staff.

One of the highlights of the third ALFRED was the high number of students who submitted excellent work, and those selected should feel especially proud. Subsequently, the University plans to look at other mechanisms where good student work can be celebrated and shared, both locally and nationally. In doing so we will further communicate across disciplines, and raise aspirations of students wishing to publish/disseminate their work.

Many students who submitted a paper to ALFRED have now finished their degrees and are approaching graduation with a satisfied feeling of a job well done. The publication of student work in this way will help those students to be distinctive when looking for further study and employment opportunities, adding something unique to talk about within interviews. In this tough economic climate that our graduates will find themselves, I hope they will use this experience (and many others unique to the Winchester Experience) in helping them to achieve their ambitions and dreams.

My only hope is that the number of submissions to ALFRED grow year on year, and we continue to acknowledge and reward student work and effort across this institution and beyond.

Yaz El Hakim

Director of Learning and Teaching

The Students' Perspective

This undergraduate student journal represents the high quality of work that University of Winchester students continue to produce and is a perfect example for new and existing students seeking top marks in their assessments, and of the resources and expertise that the University provides to help produce work of this calibre.

With the journal now in its third year of publication, this is further evidence of the support that students receive in reaching their full potential and the excellence in learning and teaching at the heart of the University's mission.

I greatly encourage all students to, not only, strive to the best of their ability but to be aware of the support networks available to further their achievements so to increase the opportunity of giving themselves a head start in this current competitive market.

A huge thank you to those who have made this publication possible for another year and I hope for the consistent success of this project for many years to come!

Seb Miell

Winchester Student Union President

Editorial

Fiona Handley and Nicole McNab

The 2011 edition of ALFRED has been tremendously exciting to work on. We have 17 papers from across all the Faculties of the University, and have an excellent representation of the undergraduate courses that we run. It is fair to say that this year we have suffered from an embarrassment of riches. For every paper that we have been able to publish here, we have had to turn away two others. In total, we received 60 submissions, a real sign that students at Winchester are keen to get involved in the scholarly community and are proud of their work and are keen to share it.

The quality of the papers sent in was outstanding, and more than ever, we were excited, surprised and educated by the work submitted. With each batch of ALFRED papers we get an insight into the variety of teaching and courses that take place across the University, and each year reveals more subjects of interest. We always enjoy reading such a wide variety of work, and we hope you will too.

As with previous editions, contributions have been chosen because they show some elements of excellence, whether in terms of original research, writing style, or synthesis, and this year we've decided to represent as wide a spread of papers from the different departments as we can, showing the diversity of subjects that the University of Winchester has to offer. There are, of course, some areas of research in some disciplines which are hard to disseminate in written form, but never the less we hope we have given a good representation of the kind of projects that students are involved in.

The papers have been grouped by Faculty, with four papers from Arts, four from Education, Health and Social Care, four from Business, Law and Sport, and five from Humanities and Social Sciences. In terms of content, two papers, by Helen Adlam and Amy Brunton, give us some insight into what students experience as part of their studies, and demonstrate elements of self-reflection which are becoming increasingly important in student learning. Papers by Merima Dzanic (submitted as an FYP) and Richard

Foord also centralise the personal experiences of the authors in the journeys of self-development that a University education should be about. Two papers from Education directly address important current topics, Becky Craggs' on teaching modern foreign languages and Stephanie McDonnell's on the sport education model (submitted as an FYP), while Ben Burden's paper on the Human Rights Act, and Charlotte Clark's and Alex Marie's reports look at current issues in law and business. While David Moore's paper (submitted as an FYP) examines the Saville Inquiry into Bloody Sunday. Ryan Hale's on ADHD and Ricky Piper's on Francis Fukuyama's end of history prognosis shows how controversial issues are being dealt with by students. Previous editions of ALFRED have always had at least one article on women and gender, and Martin Well's paper on Eliza Haywood continues this in this vein, with Richard Lewis's paper on reality falls within the tradition of exceptionally thoughtful work emanating from Education. Michael Aldridge takes us to India, and the role of pilgrimage in Hinduism, while Naomi Humphreys stays much closer to home with her discussion of the effects of the Civil War in Winchester. One paper that we just had to include is Natasha Pitre's on the Nine Dot Problem. Not only is it a sound piece of psychological research, but finding the solution to the problem is part of the fun for the reader.

So, we hope that we have brought together a selection of creative, scholarly, and interesting pieces of work that will inform, but also entertain you. Take time to browse through the edition, because every page has something of interest.

Thanks are due to many people, including the design team at SRM and members of staff who encourage their students to contribute. However, a special thanks must go to the students who put their work forward, without whom ALFRED would not be such a great success.



Graduates of 2011... What Comes Next?

Amy Brunton

THAT time has come. The time every student in their last term in their last year at University dreads. My mother has sat me down, lulled me into a false sense of security by offering tea and homemade cake, and then bulldozed all my hopes of a quick chat and a catch up, “Amy, you need to decide what you’re doing once you’re finished in June”.

The excuses begin pouring from my mouth, “but its only March, I haven’t even really started – I mean I’m still not completely finished with my dissertation...” And so on and so forth until the cake goes stale and the tea turns cold.

But she’s right. I need to decide. I need to find out what lies in store for me once the safe and cosy jumper of University gets ripped off my back. So off I go to begin this monstrous task of finding out what I shall be doing for the rest of my life.

Where do you start though, if you don’t know what you want to do for the rest of your days? I never wanted to be a doctor, can’t stand bones, couldn’t be an accountant; can’t divide ANYTHING and there is no way I was becoming a lawyer...is anyone aware of how hard these people work?!

I am a journalism student, who loves writing but is not so keen on the fickle and underpaid world of a struggling journalist, so I have to think of other ways to use this written skill that I’ve developed.

Off I plod to the careers centre at my University, no I wasn’t aware that they existed either, but there they are with a whole library full of guides and prospectuses and folders chock-full of information for me to peruse at my leisure. The staff are beyond helpful, offering workshops and one-on-one time for students. All you have to do is ask.

One thing my search taught me was that experience is vital, without that nobody will look at you. So I spent a few weeks organising an internship for my Easter holidays, I was to be an unpaid Marketing Intern for a start up company. Before I started I had dreams of creating amazing marketing material and by the end of my time there being put in charge of multimillion dollar marketing campaigns and they would beg me to stay and offer me the big bucks... big dreams I know, but hey you got to dream big to win big!

I’ve always thought that Marketing could be something I could really enjoy, and this internship would give me the chance to decide that... wouldn’t it?!

Oh how wrong I was. I turned up eager, and early on my first day, like a big sponge, ready to absorb everything there was to know about marketing. Slight problem though, you cannot learn the ins and outs of the world of marketing, if there is no one there to teach you. That’s right, I was the marketing intern for the invisible marketing team. I didn’t even get to be a dogsbody making tea for everyone, because you can’t make tea for a team that isn’t there!

I spent a lot of time asking the office manager “is there anything I can do?” to no avail. But I stuck it out for the four weeks in the hope that the promised Marketing Director would turn up at any minute – they did not.

Nevertheless, it was four weeks of experience to put onto my CV. Which is better than nothing, right?

So, after realising that my dreams of a first time intern turned marketing superstar were dashed my search then moved on to

www.prospects.ac.uk, a great website providing information, advice and opportunities to students and graduates.

I scoured the recruitment pages in search of the perfect post uni job opportunity, and applied for anything that looked remotely promising. Being warned left right and centre that the unemployment rate for graduates is dismal and depressing and that I would be spending the rest of my days on the dole or asking “would you like to supersize that?” I expected that all my hours spent applying would lead me nowhere, and I would be just another sad, sorry statistic.

Well, unexpectedly the job search paid off! Now, I have made this all sound quite easy I think, but it wasn't. After applying for as many graduate positions as possible, I eventually heard back from one graduate recruitment company who put me forward for a fast track management position, working for a large multinational corporation. I went through three very tough interviews, spent hours upon hours revising about the company themselves and their business strategies. It was a lot of hard work, but I clearly made an impression because after waiting for four excruciatingly long days I finally heard back that I had got the

job, on the condition that I leave University with a 2:1.

So the hard work doesn't stop there, I now have to spend my last month as a student working as hard as I possibly can to make sure that I get that 2:1.

A recipe of determination, hard work, blood, sweat and tears went into getting not only a job for when I leave University, but that could lead into a very successful career. It is tough, and a lot of disappointment is met along the way, but do not give up. Start your search as early as possible, use all the resources that are on offer to you at your university and online and do all that you can to prove to the 'real world' that you have what they need, that spark that has been missing from their company all this time.

It's a nice feeling, in fact, a truly wonderful feeling when you can shove two fingers up to the latest graduate unemployment statistics and say, “Hey, Cameron, I'm not one of those! I shall soon be a fully-fledged taxpaying employed graduate!”

Amy achieved a 2:1 honours degree, and has started a graduate fast track management scheme with JTI.

A Degree in Creative Writing: For what it's worth...

Helen Adlam

Last year Louis Menand wrote an article for *The New Yorker*, entitled Show or Tell – Should Creative Writing be Taught, in which he said, “Creative writing programs are designed on the theory that students who have never published a poem can teach other students who have never published a poem how to write a publishable poem.”¹ His comments struck me as being precisely the kind that undermine the perception of the creative writing degree, not just within the realms of academia, but in the wider arena as well. Could there really be some truth in what he said, I wondered? Does it matter if there is?

Creative writing as a taught subject gained recognition when Malcolm Bradbury and Sir Angus Wilson began their MA course at the University East Anglia in 1970. Since then the popularity of creative writing courses has risen steadily from its beginnings in workshops and adult education colleges, through module options within English literature degree courses, to the full blown single honours degree – with perhaps the greatest growth occurring since the 1990s.

Although creative writing has grown in popularity, Steve May points out that in the UK it is still “a young subject,” often, he continues, “perceived by academics to have a very low importance.”² He notes a stark contrast with the USA, where courses in creative writing began as early as 1897 at the University of Iowa, and where the subject is held in high regard. Juliet England says, “the place of creative writing in universities, specifically, has long been mired in controversy, particularly in Britain”³. But why should this be the case? Graeme Harper writes extensively on this subject, wielding his high academic literary style as his key weapon in the battle to prove that creative writing is not a ‘soft option’. He says, “the human activity of creative writing has been poorly represented, often poorly considered

and generally poorly understood” and that, “Creative Writing [is] defined almost entirely by product, rather than production”⁴.

Does Harper have a point? Does the sometimes poor perception of the value of creative writing stem from the fact that the process of writing is not understood; that the only measure of success for the graduating student is the end result, that gold standard of becoming a published author? John Barth says that the success of a creative writing degree is often measured by the amount of published writers it produces, which, he states,

*... is the wrong measure, I think. How many undergraduate majors in history, economics, philosophy or literature expect or even wish to become professional historians, economists, philosophers or literary scholars? As a Chesapeake waterman said about the fact that only one in a million blue crab eggs gets to be an adult crab, “It’s a damn good thing; otherwise we’d be arse-deep in crabs”.*⁵

But even if you do want to be a published writer, surely enrolling on a single honours degree course is going a bit far? Steve May points out that many people ask, “Why take a course when you can write perfectly well in your spare time?”⁶ His response is that creative writing is all about practising and practising and that, without formal teaching, you could find yourself practising and practising wrongly; “It is a fallacy that practise makes perfect” he says, “because if you practise doing something the wrong way, bad habits will simply become ingrained and we’ll get better at doing it wrong”⁷.

More importantly, however, May says that learning creative writing at degree level needs to be about more than just the ‘product’. Indeed, for creative writing to be considered as an academic, rather

than vocational, subject by the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA), it has to be about the process as well, the all-important self-reflection and learning outcomes. “The QAA demands a rigorous process of validation”, May says, “so you have to do more than produce work, you have to reflect on that work and the processes involved – put it into context. This is an added strand to learning the craft that you get with a degree”⁸. The National Association of Writers in Education also offers a comprehensive list of skills to be gained from a degree in creative writing – from developing “robust artistic practices”, through “skills in team working” to “the capability of working independently, determining one’s own future learning needs” – all of which make comforting reading for the creative writing undergraduate.⁹

May also stresses that a degree in creative writing allows for a sense of progression which is not usually achievable through workshops and adult education classes alone. Doing creative writing at university level is a much broader education than attending other kinds of writing class. To be successful you must know what others have done before and elsewhere; have the conceptual skills to plan something of your own; have the executive skills to make that thing; and have the analytical skills to understand and contextualise what you have done.¹⁰

However, May makes the fundamental assumption that creative writing is, in fact, a subject which can be taught. There are undeniably those who would not agree – Menand for one. He says that The University of Iowa’s workshop, which he claims is the most renowned in the world, has produced sixteen Pulitzer Prize winners and three recent Poet Laureates, but that the University claims no credit for the success of these writers, “We continue to look for the most promising talent in the country in our conviction that writing cannot be taught, but that writers can be encouraged”¹¹ their website states. Similarly, Fiona Mountfort, a journalist who attended an intensive five day writing course, concluded in her article, “Can people really be taught how to write? The obvious answer is no”¹². And yet May believes that “if you can teach painters and musicians ... why can’t you teach writers?”¹³ – a big if perhaps?

Judging literary success is, of course, very much down to the individual. Are you hoping to be the next Hilary Mantel or Ian

McEwan, or to publish a reasonable commercial novel and a few short stories? John Barth says, “[what] the writing people have in mind when they put the question, ‘Can it be taught?’ is not usually *The Waste Land* or *One Hundred Years of Solitude* ... it is your average pretty-damn-good literary artefact as published by *The New Yorker* or *Esquire*”¹⁴.

I did wonder if the perception of creative writing as an unteachable subject stemmed from the notion that there are many who believe true writing is a purely ‘unconscious act’? Natalie Goldberg believes that writing in its most honest form comes from the subconscious. In *Writing Down the Bones* she says, “First thoughts are [...] unencumbered by ego, by that mechanism in us that tries to be in control, tries to prove the world is permanent and solid, enduring and logical ... there is no logical A-to-B-to-C way to become a good writer”.¹⁵ According to Dr Abi Curtis, Malcolm Bradbury wrote an introduction to Dorothea Brande’s 1934 book, *Becoming a Writer*, which “‘situates the guide within a Freudian understanding of the unconscious ‘the implication is that writing cannot be ‘consciously taught’. It has to be ‘discovered from within’”.¹⁶ The teacher’s role thus becomes more psychoanalyst than writing tutor, helping students to access something that is already inherent within their psyche. Perhaps we don’t need creative writing classes at all, just a few sessions on the psychoanalyst’s couch? Juliet England suggests that, “creative writing took off earlier and faster in the USA, [perhaps because] it shares some common ground with the psychotherapy business – something the Americans are more comfortable with than the British”¹⁷? She may have a point.

On balance, I think Stephen King summed up the debate best when he said,

*While it is impossible to make a competent writer out of a bad writer, and while it is equally impossible to make a great writer out of a good one, it is possible, with lots of hard work dedication, and timely help, to make a good writer out of a merely competent one.*¹⁸

So what happens once you’ve graduated in creative writing with no desire to become a published author? Have you wasted your time? Personally, whether I decide to write or teach or do

something completely different, the creative writing course has been invaluable. It is as though I have finally been handed the instruction manual for a huge, unwieldy construction project I have been battling with for many, many years. The proof that all those fragments of story, experience and opinion can be pieced together to form a whole. Not that having the instructions means that completing the thing is a foregone conclusion, but it suddenly looks more likely than ever before.


Steve May fully accepts that there are students who will decide that a career as a writer is not for them. He says, "If you have tried and can reflect on your experience and analyse why you don't want to pursue writing further, you will have learned a great deal, both about writing and about yourself."¹⁹ I know two students who, after graduation, will be taking up PGCE English courses next year – what could be more powerful for a teacher of English Literature than to understand, not only the product, but the process as well? Think of the added insight the future students of those teachers will gain into the process through which literature is crafted. A degree in creative writing can also be a foundation for a career in feature journalism, and May cites case studies of students whose creative writing degrees have helped them gain employment working with children and other related careers.

So where does this leave Menand and his argument that creative writing programmes merely churn out teachers who teach other creative writers? Well, May writes wholeheartedly in favour of the teacher of creative writing who has come up through the ranks of academia and is not necessarily published. "Are writer-tutors the best kind of tutors?" he asks. "Far from it. For a start, not all writers are good teachers."²⁰ He suggests that the unpublished academic who is passionate about writing has a lot to offer the student of creative writing. As much, if not more, than the writer who writes 'intuitively' but who cannot explain their process in a teachable format. Does it matter, then, if creative writing programmes are teaching students who have never published a poem "how to teach other students who have never published a poem how to write a publishable poem"?²¹

Personally, I can't see that it does, especially if it leaves room for the rest of us to become writers – after all, "it wouldn't do to be arse deep in crabs," would it?

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Theatre Through the Bullet Hole: Theatre and national identity in Bosnia and Herzegovina

Merima Dzanic

Introduction

Theatre has always been viewed as a mirror to society. The role of theatre in our constantly changing world creates an important dialogue, which inevitably makes us aware of ourselves and our role as a society. When society finds itself in turmoil as a result of natural disasters, economic collapse, civil conflict and war, can theatre bring something that reaches beyond entertainment? What role does theatre take on, and can it change or dull the distress in society during testing times?

Europe experienced a crisis close to home when the War in the former Yugoslavia broke out in the beginning of the 1990s. The cause of the conflict involves several factors, including economic crisis and extreme political leadership leading to an escalation of nationalism, and a rising emphasis on ethnicity as a central part of identity. There is a gap in the elaborated literature which, even 16 years later, still has very little to say on the state of theatre and art in Bosnia and Herzegovina (hereafter Bosnia) during the War. While war broke out, a unique cultural life flourished in several parts of the country, in particular Sarajevo. What also has to be acknowledged is that the War in Bosnia was a consequence of civil uproar. Bosnia lost its sense of national identity when it parted with Yugoslavia. The ethnically diverse population, who lived together in peace for over 50 years, started a tug-of-war over territories and rule.

This paper critically assesses the functions of theatre in this time of crisis, exploring themes of identity and nationalism and the link between these and the theatre in Bosnia. Sixteen years after the War ended, I returned to Bosnia for the first time to undertake this research. The information presented here has been collected from brochures, reviews, articles and informal visits to theatres in Sarajevo and Banja Luka, as well as an interview with Safet Plakalo from the Sarajevo War Theatre.

In the aftermath of the War, Bosnia is still strongly divided by ethnic criteria, creating a rough segregation between the Croat, Bosniak (Bosnian Muslim) and Serb populations. Currently, the Bosnians, the majority of whom are Bosniaks and Croats, still maintain that Serbia was the aggressor in the War, while the authorities in Serbia and the Serb Republic (the area of Bosnia with a high proportion of Serbs) are calling for acknowledgement from Bosnia for the atrocities committed against Serbs in Bosnia.

During the War

On a cold January morning I finally arrive in Sarajevo, the capital city of Bosnia. I hop on the old tram which will take me towards the city centre. Getting to Sarajevo and moving around the city with ease, I first find it hard to believe that a decade and a half ago the city was besieged. As the tram stops in front of a pale yellow building, I am shocked at the sight in front of me. The building looks a bit run down, and colourful graffiti is covering the entrances. A few TV antennas hang on several windows of the building. At first glance it looks like any other building, but a bit further up, what seems like hundreds of smaller and bigger black dots decorate the dirty yellow wall. I realise that they are bullet holes.

This random building is only one of many buildings of similar condition which are still scattered around the city. Suddenly the various stories that I have heard, and the dozens of books that I have read on the War and the siege of Sarajevo, come to life in front of me. The War was here, and it has left its ugly traces across the city, despite the efforts made to rebuild.

Apart from the minus degrees, bullet adorned buildings and torn pavements, the city is a sight to behold. Roman, Austria-Hungarian and Turkish influences are still apparent in the architecture and

style of the city, affirming Sarajevo as a multicultural city. Two decades ago this very aspect of the city, and the country in general, was what started the War.

While talking to several different people, questions about identity and the nation are still a hard topic to discuss in public. From my experience, this was just as much due to the controversy surrounding the topic, as it was to the distorted views on identity which many seemed to struggle with in Bosnia after the disintegration of Yugoslavia and the subsequent war. The atrocities in Yugoslavia have been characterised as ethnic conflicts, a civil war in the whole of Yugoslavia or Bosnia-Herzegovina, and a war of aggression in Bosnia by Serbia and Croatia. With the War in Bosnia in particular, came an ultimatum on identity. The people of Bosnia were forcefully reduced to one dimension only – the nation. It must be acknowledged that nationalism did not happen overnight in Bosnia. Signs of national disintegration began to show within the Yugoslav society whilst still under Tito's rule. From the political spectrum to the churches, media and especially in cultural circles, nationalism and nationalistic ideologies began to slowly emerge (Gordy, 1999).

April 5 1992 marked the beginning of the longest siege in modern warfare history. Serbians and Bosnian Serbs invaded the city, shelling it with artillery and mortars. Sarajevans were trapped in the city, cut off from food, water and medical attention, which cost thousands of civilians' lives. Several atrocities against humanity were committed, ranging from ethnic cleansing to mass rapes and executions (Shoup and Burg, 2000 p.129-185).

Amidst all the daily cruelty committed against the Sarajevans, a unique cultural life came to flourish. The War brought an overwhelming focus on the arts in Bosnia. Hundreds of theatre performances were staged, film festivals were held along with concerts and even art exhibitions. Some exhibitions of artwork which were composed of material from the War were being held – *The Witnesses of Existence* exhibitions were being held at the Obala Theatre when the building was destroyed by bombings. As the ruins became a shelter for the public to avoid snipers, the director of the theatre, Mirsad Purivatra, decided to turn it into a unique arts centre (Tehrani, 2007). Countless performances were staged among the frontlines and shelters throughout the

city. In Sarajevo it seemed that theatre was being made possible everywhere, in front of impressively large audiences. The Kamerni 55 theatre alone had 28 premiers, while simultaneously hosting other cultural events and activities such as music concerts and prayers for peace (Kamerni Teatar 55, 2011).

When the War engulfed the country, theatre in particular took over a very important role within society, and thus became an almost biological need – one could almost argue that theatre rivalled the need for water. It became food for the mind, giving people the chance to digest something else other than the daily sights of brutality, and a chance to maintain their humanity. People wrote plays and staged them, some from amateur, others from professional theatres or both (Klaić, 2002 p.156).

Many international artists braved the snipers and travelled to the city. Amongst them was the American author, Susan Sontag, who famously staged Samuel Beckett's play *Waiting for Godot* in Sarajevo in 1993. She explained that staging the play in Sarajevo, for Sarajevans, brought a new dimension to her contribution (Sontag, 1994 p.87). The play has been staged in various places in the world in societies in turmoil, some with the purpose of communicating a change within these societies. Choosing to stage Beckett's famous absurdist play in a besieged Sarajevo, was the most appropriate play a foreigner from a Western country could have staged. It reflected the hope of the citizens who eagerly waited for the West to intervene and save them from the assaults. *The Washington Post* even dubbed the play the name "Waiting for Clinton" (ibid., p.88).

While the Sarajevans were 'waiting for Godot' in a city where constant bombing and shortage of food and water were a daily reality, the first professional theatre since 1955 was established. The Sarajevo War Theatre (Sarajevski Ratni Teatar) was formed in 1992 as a form of spiritual resistance against the on-going assault on the city and its citizens. Starting off as an underground movement, it was a homeless theatre, taking shelter in the Youth Theatre first, before finally gaining its own theatre in 2003 (Plakalo, 2010).

I went to Sarajevo in early January 2011 to visit the theatre. There I met up with the founder and the first director of Sarajevo War Theatre, Safet Plakalo, for an interview. Plakalo wrote the first

authentic wartime Bosnian play *Sklonište* (*The Shelter*), which also was the first production that the company staged in 1994. Sarajevans braved snipers and hunger to come and watch the play, which was shown 27 times that year alone. These would often be performed in basements of other theatres such as the Youth Theatre, and in candlelight (*ibid.*). The play focused on two artists seeking shelter in a basement, discussing the ethics of putting on a play in the middle of the War. The play aimed to contradict the myth of the saying “when guns speak, the muses are silent” (Plakalo, 2011).

For the staging of *Sklonište*, Plakalo embraced the world of the grotesque. Choosing to use the style of grotesque for the staging of the production was according to Plakalo the only right and appropriate approach to take, “From experience, we knew that in tragic circumstances, it made no sense to create a tragedy, not as a genre, nor as a style, which is why we opted for the grotesque” (*ibid.*). In the same way as Beckett’s *Waiting for Godot*, the play took an absurdist approach, expressing the human condition in an irrational world. The evil here was not the central reality, instead the focus was on the irrationalities of world which in this case was the War. The theatre of the absurd is often seen as an urgent response to a perceived reality, thus making *Sklonište* in many ways a true war play. There is an element of protest within the grotesque; though Plakalo asserts that the play was not intended to ridicule the aggressors, but to ridicule the less fortunate circumstances which they were surrounded by. Thus, the grotesque element functioned as the speech of the sad laughter.

On the subject of the genres the theatre explored in its productions, Plakalo explained that no plays were staged which belonged in the genre of patriotic romanticism at the time. The characteristics of literary works in the Romantic era revolve around human love for nature, obsession with the exotic and nationalism (Burgess, 2009 p.81-85). This absence did not come as a surprise since any notions of nationalism were vehemently dismissed by many artists in the public space, as nationalism was essentially at the root of the War. Not to say that nationalism did not appear in any form of artistic endeavours during the War, on the contrary many practitioners and artists were in favour of the ideologies of the former Yugoslavia, longing for a past where Bosnians, Serbs, Croats and Jews lived in peace.

Furthermore, because the War forced an ethnic segregation amongst the population, many artists did not protest against the War, some even supported or stayed silent during extreme nationalist discourse. For example, the National Theatre in Belgrade remained silent when Bosnia fell under Serbian and Bosnian Serb attacks (Munjin, 2006).

When confronted with questions on identity and nationalism within the context of theatre, the Sarajevo War Theatre seems to be adamant in dismissing these notions on their stage. Safet Plakalo stresses that from the very beginning they fought against any ethnic labels, as these were not true to the Sarajevo spirit, nor the spirit of the theatre, “One of the main reasons we founded Sarajevo War theatre was to defend this indigenous Bosnian-Herzegovinian culture” (Plakalo, 2011). There is an issue here, as a war erupted because of the different ethnic groups fighting for what they claim to be the indigenous Bosnian culture. When part of Yugoslavia, many Bosnians identified themselves as Yugoslavs. As a result of this the nationalism amongst the three main ethnic groups was suppressed, thus avoiding questions around the indigenous Bosnian culture and notions of Bosnian nationhood. However, the War changed this, distorting the history of the origins of Bosnian culture, with each ethnic group having their own interpretation of the history of the nation. When being presented with this issue, Plakalo explains that the theatre interprets the indigenous Bosnian culture as one that has always been of a multi-ethnic nature, which is what the theatre was adamant in defending during the War and 20 years later still adheres to do (*ibid.*).

The firm dismissal of issues surrounding nationality and identity was a frequent occurrence within the creative world during the War. It almost seemed to have no relevance within many art forms at the time. My experiences in Bosnia in 2011 were much the same when the topic was brought up in conversations with several natives. Sixteen years after the War, it still is a very sore and sensitive topic to approach, at least in the public space. As was the case during the War, the reality for citizens is that they are living side by side, and questions regarding the nation and nationalism impose a risk to the already fragile truce amongst the citizens. Although it is seemingly a taboo topic, nationalism is still very much apparent everywhere. From religious institutes, government buildings to the national theatres, nationalism is

on everyone's repertoire, taking on a passive aggressive tone in different forms from all sides.

The Sarajevo War Theatre functioned as a necessary theatre during the War, providing its audiences with a sense of civility in an uncivilised society. After viewing one of the showings from the play *Sklonište*, one audience member famously wrote in the guest book, "Thank you to the Sarajevan actors who helped keeping us from going insane" (Plakalo, 2010). Had the theatre at the time responded to the War by addressing the issues which were considered to be the very core of the conflict, it would have been too painful and also risked aggravating the open wound even further. For this to happen distance is needed in order to obtain a level of disengagement with the past. While not being able to reach into the core of the War during it, what Klaić calls a "Dramaturgy of a pretzel" (Klaić, 2002 p.150), theatres such as the Sarajevo War Theatre constructed its action around it, developing a discourse around the catastrophe instead.

Though elsewhere some theatres could not resist the temptation to function as political or propagandist tools, it was a different story in Sarajevo. The majority of the arts community in Sarajevo functioned as an agent for a cultured society, where it signified to the rest of the world that despite being in a world of undeniable suffering, the people of Bosnia managed to live a life of dignity. It also represented the deepest level of cultural resistance, where Bosnian Croats, Muslims and Serbs unified, despite the ethnic conflict, to create art in order to survive. In cultural circles in Sarajevo during the War, national identity did not seem to take centre focus, surviving and maintaining a sense of humanity did instead.

Conclusion

As Holdsworth argues in her book *Theatre and Nation* (2010), theatrical representations of a nation are in constant change as nations are evolving. However, theatre remains a mirror to society, reflecting upon the nation. As this research demonstrates, the reflection of the mirror differs depending on who is holding it. When Serbs, Croats, and Bosniaks fought for territory, Bosnia, as the most multiethnic republic in Yugoslavia, was the most affected, and national identities and narratives of history became heavily distorted. In the besieged Sarajevo, the diverse citizens unified

through cultural activities. Theatres like the Sarajevo War Theatre functioned as a resistance against death, and agents for a cultured society. Ethnicity and national identities were almost irrelevant when faced directly with daily human suffering. Theatre became a symbol for resistance against the atrocities.

After the country was split into two semi-autonomous ethnic entities by the Dayton Accord in 1995, nationalism reappeared on the repertoires once again, demonstrating that theatre in Bosnia continues to be dominated by the processes of the social and political transitions – a subject which is beyond the scope of this paper. What is clear however, is that the War, and its on-going consequences are deeply rooted within Bosnian society, where culture continues to grow through the rusty bullet holes.

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The Hypocrisy of Moral Outrage in *The Dunciad*: Eliza Haywood's *Persecuted Virtue* and Alexander Pope the Persecutor

Martin Wells

In 1728 Alexander Pope published *The Dunciad*, a poem which satirically attacked many of the Grub Street writers of the day. In doing so, he demonstrated his adherence to the literary ideology of the Scriblerans, who placed themselves in opposition to the commercial writers of Grub Street. This opposition is framed in *The Dunciad* as a reaction against the perceived moral and aesthetic failures attributed to Grub Street writing. One of the many writers held up for ridicule by Pope was the popular novelist Eliza Haywood. Pope's vicious attack on Haywood is particularly notable for its focus on her sexuality, morality and personal life. Through this depiction, Pope creates a binary relationship between his own Scribleran form of writing and Haywood's 'scandalous' fiction, casting her as the immoral 'other' to the moral centre represented by the Scriblerans. However, Pope's use of Haywood as a "scapegoat"¹ for his broader attack goes further than a straightforward satirical comment on her literary works, as he conflates Eliza Haywood and her personal life with those literary qualities he deems contemptible. In 1729, a year after *The Dunciad* was published, Eliza Haywood published a novel titled *Persecuted Virtue: or the Cruel Lover*, in which she questions the notion of morality so dogmatically asserted by Pope. In this paper I argue that *Persecuted Virtue* is Eliza Haywood's response to Pope's attack, reversing the focus of moral evaluation, questioning the motives and morals of an author who would carry out such a vicious attack by framing it as a form of persecution. In doing so, Haywood engages in a defence of her own personal reputation, but also of the literary milieu in which she was writing.

In previous critical evaluations of Haywood there has been a tendency to cast her as a specifically 'scandalous' writer, with little literary substance, and with 'titillation' as her primary objective. Indeed, Alexander Pope has been described as setting the trend for future criticism of Haywood through her depiction in *The*

*Dunciad*². Pope's opinion on Haywood and the genre in which she writes is evident in comments that condemn her "profligate licentiousness" and "scandalous books", and go on to describe her as one of those "shameless scribblers... who in libellous memoirs and novels, reveal the faults and misfortunes of both sexes to the ruin or disturbance, of public fame or private happiness"³. These comments reveal the importance of morality to Pope's opinion of what constitutes appropriate literature. His assertion that Haywood is an author who peddles "libellous memoirs and novels" suggests that she is perceived by Pope as a writer of legally dubious fiction that attacks public figures with no mercy or distinction between public and private lives. Pope's disgust at this form of literature lies in the central conceit of *The Dunciad*, that is, an assault on the professional 'hacks' of Grub Street. In making this distinction, Pope formulates a hierarchy with the Scribleran practice of satire at its peak, and Haywood's 'secret histories' genre at its base. David Brewer describes Pope's positioning of opposing literary forms in these terms:

*Pope tries to create a conviction in his readers that an unmistakable difference... exists between the tactics of the Scriblerians [sic] and those... authors of amorous Secret Histories ... Scriblerian satire, Pope implies, was motivated wholly by honourable feelings of outrage at the moral and aesthetic atrocities of modernity*⁴.

Brewer states that Pope defines Scribleran literature as inherently moral, attacking prominent figures for the public good. While in contrast, authors of 'secret histories' write to gratify the "lust" of their readers⁵. This suggests that Grub Street writers write according to the desires of their readers, implying that the creation and content of their output is a result of commercial considerations rather than honourable feelings of moral outrage. In order to define

Scriblerian work as the moral opposition to the immoral works of Grub Street, Pope uses Haywood in *The Dunciad* to represent the epitome of moral degradation. In doing so he merges opinion with biography in a strategy that Christine Blouch asserts was, “Designed to collapse the binary terms of personal and aesthetic judgments by using biography to attack her ‘morals’”, while at the same time attacking the “genre in which she had achieved success”⁶. Pope’s depiction of Haywood makes clear references to both her personal life and her work. This is evident from the outset:

*See in the circle next, Eliza plac’d;
Two babes of love close clinging to her waste;
Fair as before her works she stands confess’d,
In flow’r’d brocade by bounteous Kirkall dres’d,
Pearls on her neck, and roses in her hair,
And her fore-buttocks to the navel bare*⁷.

The reference to two “babes of love” is widely regarded to be biographically correct, as Haywood was known to have two children conceived outside of marriage with two different men⁸. By drawing attention to the illegitimacy of her children, Pope reveals what he deems a lack of sexual virtue, but also, as Blouch has argued, “positions the poetic Eliza’s ‘babes of love’ as interchangeable metaphors for illegitimate children and illegitimate literary offspring”⁹. Through this association Pope directly equates immorality in life to immorality in writing. Furthermore, as he has already established Haywood’s lack of virtue and sexual promiscuity, he goes on to suggest that she fraudulently promotes her work as quality literature, as she stands “in flow’r’d brocade ... pearls on her neck and roses in her hair”, but is in fact the author of amatory fiction that has the sole intention of titillating and arousing its readers through depictions of sex. This is evident as he undercuts the previous list of female accessories by announcing that Haywood stands with her breasts exposed, “her fore-buttocks to the navel bare”. Pope is suggesting that Haywood makes attempts to appear legitimate in her writing, that she claims to have a moral or aesthetic intent, but he argues that this is purely a facade and that she is happy to promote scandal and sex as a model for increasing sales.

Based on the qualities attributed to Haywood by Pope, it is easy to disregard her as a writer of purely scandalous fiction. However, Paula Backscheider has expanded on this narrow reading, asserting

that her work has been interpreted as the result of “shrewd commercial” decisions, casting her as an opportunist, “riding the rising tide of... admonitory fiction”¹⁰. Here Backscheider identifies that although commercial in intent, Haywood’s fiction could be described as “admonitory”, presenting its narrative as a warning to its readers of the dangers of social misconduct, rather than simply as entertainment. It could be argued that Haywood’s work treads a fine line between admonition and Pope’s assertion of titillation, and it is in these contradictory elements that Pope’s opinion of Haywood could be contested. Ann Messenger has considered the view that Haywood’s fiction has an inherently moral message, arguing that the:

*energy of her language indicates a vivid sense of the serious consequences of wrong thinking and wrong doing. Her purpose... has been to provide the minds of her readers with a similar energy as they strive for survival*¹¹.

Messenger argues that Haywood’s fiction is didactic in nature, explicitly demonstrating the results of wrong doing, and providing the reader with guidelines for survival in a society where virtue and morality are proclaimed but rarely adhered to. In comparison, David Brewer has analysed the depiction of morality presented in the satirical work of the Scriblerians, asserting that in order to promote virtue and discourage vice, “it must suppress the private, often sordid springs of action underlying public events”¹². In contrast, he argues that the ‘secret history’ genre:

*thrives upon the disclosure of such clauses: private affairs, especially women, and the sexual desire they inspire, are shown to be ‘the prime movers of history’ and supposedly principled decisions are revealed to have hung upon ‘private caballing, hole and corner intrigues, and backstairs diplomacy’*¹³.

Brewer’s analysis of Scriblerian satire highlights the formal limits of its intent, where efforts to promote virtue are essential, over and above a depiction of real social dangers. The approach taken by the ‘secret history’ on the other hand takes the exposure of private interest as its premise, revealing doubts about the legitimacy of moral authority. If Brewer’s comments are examined alongside Ann Messenger’s affirmation of the didactic and admonitory function of Haywood’s work, it could be argued that it is an

admonitory approach that Haywood takes in *Persecuted Virtue*. Within the novel she engages with the charges aimed at her by Pope, and reverses the focus, harnessing the secret history genre to expose the hypocrisy of his moral righteousness, while taking the opportunity to ridicule Pope's attack by questioning the motives behind it.

As Pope attacked Haywood on the basis of her immorality, Haywood attacks Pope on the basis of what she deems his feigned morality. This is evident in *Persecuted Virtue* as Haywood's protagonist Serinda attempts to live within the strict bounds of what she describes as the "rigid dictates of virtue"¹⁴. Her determination to maintain her virtue and modesty is persistently undermined by the attempts of various suitors to seduce her, before she is eventually cast into exile by the unscrupulous Theander. Theander is a friend of Serinda's husband, with Haywood describing their close relationship as brotherly, before ominously declaring that, he had "the desire of pleasing himself... more prevalent with him, than virtue"¹⁵. Indeed, what follows is a deceitful performance of virtue by Theander, disguising a succession of illicit and explicit designs through which he hopes to betray his friend and have sex with Serinda, whether by persuasion or by force. The failure of these schemes results in a confrontation, where Theander declares his intention to reveal Serinda's true feelings about another man to her husband. Charges against which Serinda defends herself, "most wicked of men... say everything your utmost malice can invent to blast my reputation... still shall my virtue triumph over your vile designs"¹⁶. Within her defence Serinda refers to the destruction of her reputation, and it is interesting to consider this in relation to Pope's attack on Haywood. By framing Theander as engaging in the performance of virtue, in order to disguise his position as a destroyer of reputations for personal gain, Haywood presents the similarities between Pope's tactics in *The Dunciad* and those he accuses Grub Street writers of using in their 'secret histories', deconstructing the binary he seeks to enforce. As David Brewer suggests in relation to Pope's severe delineation between the morality of the Scriblerans and the immorality of Grub Street, that he "protests too much"¹⁷.

Pope's framing of the attack on Haywood as morally righteous is further undermined when we take into account her motivation for writing. This is apparent as she describes her financial state

in a letter to an unidentified patron, "an unfortunate marriage has reduc'd me to the melancholly necessity of depending on my pen for the support of myself and two children"¹⁸. Here Haywood presents her work as a necessary effort carried out in order to support her family. This necessity provides the motivation for her work, in contrast to the morally bankrupt portrayal promoted by Pope. In fact, Haywood's position as a working mother may place her in conflict with Pope's notions of poetic virtue and morality, but it could also be argued that the familial motivation behind her work is no less morally significant than a personal sense of moral outrage. Indeed it would be possible to question the morality of an author who would viciously attack the reputation of a woman attempting to raise enough money to support her children. This suggestion of unreliability in Pope's dogmatic portrayal of morality is evident in *Persecuted Virtue* when Theander defends his actions by undermining the legitimacy of virtue, stating that "all virtue consisted in the well-concealing vice"¹⁹. In Theander's opinion all virtue is a facade, presented to conceal true desires, which in the context of Pope's self appointed position as moral guardian undermines the perception of virtue as a fundamental truth.

This interrogation of Pope's criticism, and his assertion that it is motivated by a wish to defend public morality, questions the legitimacy of his attack. Haywood takes this further as she has Theander reveal his true nature by explaining to Serinda that in attempting to live a rigidly virtuous existence, "she ... deceiv'd herself in refusing the gratification of her passion, that heaven had never given those desires to torment the persons possess [sic] of them"²⁰. This declaration of self deception could be argued to relate to the morally restrictive nature of Scribleran satire, where Haywood presents Theander as the voice of Pope, declaring the true nature of Scribleran satire as a manipulation of perception based on ideology. By attributing this revelation to the novel's villain and persecutor, Haywood critiques the positioning of oneself as an arbiter of moral purity, presenting the notion of virtue as a social construction rather than a reflection of inherent morality. This acts as a defence of her supposedly 'amatory' fiction, where the scandal of the 'secret history' acts as moral instruction, advocating a suspicion of public displays of virtue and dogmatic assertions of morality.

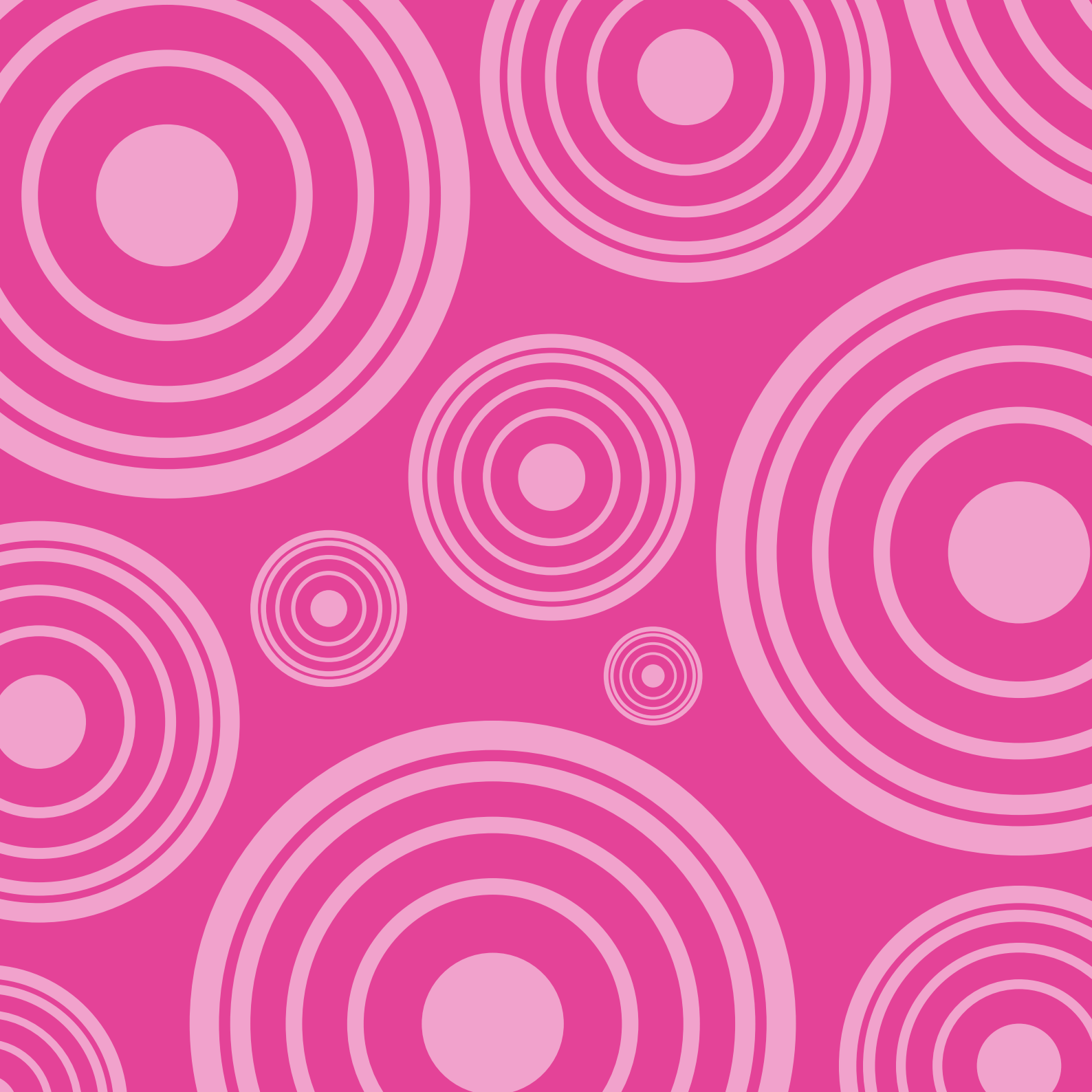
Conclusion

Persecuted Virtue can be interpreted as a direct response to the accusations aimed at Haywood by Alexander Pope in *The Dunciad*. To this end, the survival of Serinda's virtue in a society that has nothing but a surface regard for it can be equated to Haywood's literary survival in a paper war that sees her admonished for the commercial actions that enable her to make a living. In this comparison they are both victims of persecution based on the application of superficially rigid moral guidelines; Haywood lives outside Pope's perception of the social norm and is persecuted, while Serinda attempts to conform and remains a victim of persecution. In this context, in *Persecuted Virtue*, morality is depicted as uncertain and unstable, with its influence limited on the basis of personal interest. It is in the notion of personal interest and motivation that Haywood defends herself against Pope's attack. By drawing attention to the similarities between the tactics of Scriblerian satire and the secret history genre, Haywood reveals the hypocrisy inherent in Pope's accusations, suggesting that he espouses morality as a route to private gain. In this contention Haywood suggests that Pope's declaration of moral superiority is a facade, in line with the formal constraints attached to Scriblerian satire. In contrast, through the analysis of *Persecuted Virtue* it can be argued that Haywood's 'secret histories', although commercial, served a didactic function, acting as cautionary tales rather than explicit exercises in titillation.

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Social Work: A first practice experience

Richard Foord

This paper offers an exploration of an intervention with an individual, undertaken over a period of twelve weeks during a Prince's Trust Team programme, delivered by local partner organisations to young people between 16 and 25 years old who fall into one or more of four target groups (Prince's Trust, 2011). Successful completion leads to a nationally recognised City and Guilds qualification. The Education and Skills Act (2008) places a duty on young people to participate in education or training until the age of 18 (or until attaining a level 3 qualification if earlier), and requires local education authorities to promote the effective participation of targeted young people.

The intervention will be described and some of the relevant legislative contexts will be identified; research, theories and skills relevant to the intervention will be discussed. The issue of relevant agency policy and procedure will be evaluated. These themes will be critically explored and analysed particularly in the context of the author's experiences and in terms of the impact of the intervention on the individual. Some thoughts about the further development of good practice to improve outcomes for the young people will conclude. Any potential identifying material has been altered to preserve confidentiality.

'Andy'

The individual in question is a 16 year old young man ('Andy') who was referred via an outreach mechanism. He is diagnosed with anxiety and related Obsessive Compulsive Disorder (OCD) and was enrolled in a Team of 10 young people in a large inner city borough. Very little information was available to the Team staff at the outset: although his diagnosis was disclosed it was not clear if this was with his consent, and there had been no assessment of his suitability for the programme. I subsequently discovered that he was being treated by a specialist community adolescent mental

health outreach team having spent over a year in hospital due to the severity of his symptoms. Symptoms of OCD vary widely in both nature and complexity. 'Internal' obsessions (repeated intrusive, unpleasant thoughts for example) can lead to 'externalising' – or repetitive behaviours that are intended to provide 'relief' from the anxiety that the thoughts have provoked. There are three main types of these behaviours: avoidance, compulsions, and neutralising – an attempt to counteract unpleasant effects or prevent a feared outcome (Rachman and Shafran, 1998 p.52-54). Andy's behaviour sometimes appeared rather bizarre to others, he frequently stroked his hair in a particular manner, had difficulty walking without stopping or changing direction abruptly, appeared restless, was often unable to sit down for even quite short periods of time, and had particular problems with clothing. His verbal communication was sometimes stilted and he could appear distracted when asked direct questions which often had to be repeated or reframed.

Although the Team staff were unaware of this at the outset of the programme, his treatment included medication, fluvoxamine, a serotonin reuptake inhibitor.

"Serotonergic dysfunction has been implicated in the aetiology of several psychiatric conditions, including depressive and anxiety disorders. Much of the evidence for the role of serotonin (5-HT) in these disorders comes from treatment studies with serotonergic drugs, including selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs)" (Den Boer et al., 2000 p.315).

The optimal dose is considered to be up to 300mg per day (Rappoport and Inoff-Germain, 2000 p.423), but Andy was reluctant to take the full prescribed dose as he felt that at that level it made him feel "weird, kind of disconnected". He was therefore

only taking 100mg per day at the time of the intervention and he may have been missing doses. Andy was also engaged in Cognitive Behavioural Therapy (CBT). Whilst space does not allow a fuller description of this approach, March and Leonard (1998 p.375-6) refer to it as the most effective treatment, together with psychopharmaceuticals, for OCD in adolescents. In this instance CBT was provided by the key worker.

As a student social worker, my role in delivering the Team programme is to provide wellbeing support to the young people in order to facilitate their successful completion of the Team experience. During the first two weeks of Team, Andy was able to engage briefly in discussions about his use of time, drugs, offending and money matters. However he was very reluctant to engage in any structured 'one to one' time with me. I was aware that his long history of in-patient treatment could have had a negative effect on his experience of relationships with professionals as, "Individuals who have been institutionalized for long periods suffer from increased fragility in psychological structure, becoming more vulnerable and at risk as a direct consequence of the treatment they receive in such institutions" (Costa Leite and Schmid, 2004 p.284).

It appears that some people institutionalised in order to help reduce symptoms or receive treatments, are further damaged by their experiences during the intervention that is supposed to help. I quickly learned that in order to work with him optimally, I would have to be patient (he often would walk off or not respond if I asked him a question) and approach the whole way of engaging in a very flexible manner. Our most productive interactions happened when walking along the street together or when engaged in some other form of activity that left him feeling less threatened and anxious than in a formal office setting. I was mindful that his long period of being hospitalised may have left him feeling that more formal situations may have negative connotations. I tried at all times to use unambiguous verbal communication, appropriate eye contact, and awareness of his (and my) body language.

I was also able to obtain his consent to gather further information from his parents, and key worker, who turned out to be his consultant psychiatrist. As soon as possible after my initial assessment with Andy I requested a meeting with these people to

discuss appropriate strategies for working with him. I was directed to a paper by Melissa Leininger (2010) and colleagues, which helpfully sets out general classroom strategies for working with students with moderate to severe OCD, which form the basis for the work undertaken as an outpatient with Andy. A key part of the approach lies in the establishment of rules and expectations. A Team contract, signed by the whole group, was agreed during the first week, which included statements such as "no weapons, drugs or alcohol to be brought or used during Team time". It also included reference to other issues such as the promotion of anti-discriminatory language and behaviour, honesty, respect for others, time keeping and participation in all Team activities.

Young people with OCD often try to hide their symptoms and can be sensitive to any unwanted disclosure (Leininger et al., 2010 p.222). I am aware of the stigma and prejudice that can negatively affect people with mental health issues (Repper and Perkins, 2009 p.120-127) and I did not want to unwittingly exacerbate his previous evident feelings of isolation and anxiety, so I briefed the other Team staff about the need to keep his diagnosis confidential. I had limited my initial enquiries in relation to his wellbeing to general points about his wearing appropriate clothing and keeping safe when travelling on public transport, because I was unclear as to whether he had given his consent to me being informed and took the opportunity to discuss this with his key worker, who then clarified that he had consented.

Together with the information that I had obtained from Andy, these further sources gave me a more complete picture. After discussion with my Practice Educator, I decided to utilise the five outcomes from Every Child Matters (DfES, 2004) together with the Outcomes Star (Prince's Trust, 2011) as an assessment and goal setting tool. Together we identified several goals, important in effectively supporting young people with OCD in learning situations (Leininger et al., 2010 p.225).

I had initially assumed that he was arriving late because he was having difficulty waking up and getting motivated to attend on time (in common with many other young people on the Team). However, it emerged that Andy had particular problems with ritual and repetitive behaviours during his morning routine that were also delaying him. His internal rituals also seemed to be preventing

him from undertaking routine travel reliably, and his possible behaviours en route were of concern. As a vulnerable young person under the definition of the Children Act (2004) and the Mental Health Act (2007) I was particularly concerned about his ability to keep himself safe in public situations as he was travelling to Team each day independently. I was able to initiate his application for Disability Living Allowance with the aim of providing a part time support worker to help Andy positively address these issues.

Although he initially denied any use of illegal drugs, it became evident that Andy was at least on occasion using cannabis. His parents confirmed that he was smoking cannabis around the family home. There was no evidence of his using other illegal drugs, but on at least two occasions it was noted that he returned from lunch break with another Team member, smelling of cannabis and behaving abnormally. Whilst substance abuse may be a co-factor in the diagnosis of OCD (Fals-Steward and Angareno, 1994), there is also evidence of increased incidence of drug abuse after onset of mood or anxiety disorders in adolescence (Burke et al., cited in Rappoport and Inoff-Germain, 2000 p.425-426). A clear focus of the Prince's Trust Team programme lies in educating young people about the dangers of using illegal drugs, however there is some evidence that in people with OCD the use of these drugs may reduce some of their symptoms (*ibid.*). If indeed Andy was experiencing some relief from his troublesome and intrusive thoughts and external rituals when using cannabis, a conflict in terms of social work values arises. If I am working to help him stop his drug use but it is reducing his symptoms, am I thus denying him at least temporary respite? On the other hand if I ignore it, or indeed were to encourage his use of cannabis I would certainly be working contrary to agency policy and indeed the law (Misuse of Drugs Act, 2008). Rappoport also points out that cannabis use conversely may exacerbate some symptoms of OCD (Rappoport and Inoff-Germain, 2000 p.425).

It emerged that Andy had been cautioned for an offence related to carrying a weapon in the past. He was also putting himself at risk of further brushes with the criminal justice system, as he carried drugs paraphernalia which were prone to fall out of his pockets, as was his bus pass, money and mobile phones (all of which he lost regularly). During my time with Andy we developed some strategies for trying to ensure his possessions were kept

safely about his person. I also set goals for him to attend Team more appropriately dressed. Over the twelve week programme we achieved many small steps towards the goals set in partnership. I quickly realised that Andy's recovery consists of a myriad 'tiny steps' towards mutually acceptable goals and I learned that there is much value for social workers in trying to really understand another person's unique experience and relationship with the external world.

Both Andy and his parents reported some difficulties in family relationships. He was born abroad, and is the oldest of three children. In the past he attended boarding school, however during the onset of adolescence Andy has become increasingly distant and hostile to his father in particular, who has a high powered city job. Andy has isolated himself from his family and has several friends in the local area who his parents describe as "unhelpful". There have been thefts from the house, Andy also speaks in a markedly different manner to his parents, being verbally aggressive, using street slang and behaviours on occasion that do not seem to match with his apparent upbringing. I found it very difficult to conceptualise some of Andy's support needs in terms of what appeared to be at least two co-existing problems, his OCD, and his concurrent adolescent developmental issues; "Trauma in adolescence will have posttraumatic features that did not previously exist while still retaining the persisting influence of childhood, including Oedipal conflicts and past traumas" (Blum, 2010 p.556).

Andy's OCD could certainly be interpreted as a traumatic event in his adolescence, beginning as it seemed at the time of his starting puberty. I began to wonder whether these aspects of rebellion and feelings of anger and hostility towards his father had more to do with his getting somehow 'stuck' in an earlier phase, or affecting his ability to cope with the transition to early adulthood (Baily, 2006 p.224-225). Leininger (2010 p.225) refers to alleviating stress and anxiety in young people with OCD by using positive reinforcement. Therefore I attempted to focus on this when Andy took steps towards achieving his goals, at the same time trying to ignore unhelpful or negative behaviours. This is also congruent with the recovery model in mental health work and the allied 'strengths-based' approach to social work assessment and intervention summarised by Jeremy Holmes in his critique of

conventional CBT in the treatment of people with mental health problems (Holmes, 2009 p.312-314). This approach occasionally proved very challenging, as at times Andy's behaviour was putting him in risky situations. In line with the key worker's direction, I tried to frame any comments about unhelpful behaviours I considered connected to OCD as 'external', for example by not criticising him personally and limiting my interaction to enquiring whether 'OCD was causing' the behaviour.

The diagnosis and treatment of many mental health disorders is extremely complex. Andy's parents were still concerned that perhaps his diagnosis of OCD and anxiety missed the 'whole' picture, and they had asked for Andy to be assessed for autism. The relationship between OCD and autism is unclear although some young people are diagnosed with both. Research is being undertaken currently about what if any relationship between the two disorders exists. It is hoped that much more will be known about this in the future (South London and Maudsley NHS Trust, 2004).

The Prince's Trust has four specific groups that are targeted as potential members of Teams run throughout the country: specifically the long term unemployed, children leaving care, ex-offenders and educational under-achievers (Prince's Trust, 2011). Although Andy reported having gained a lot from the experience, the lack of specialised support may have impacted negatively on the Team. He does not fit into any of the target groups and in a programme specifically designed with clear leadership and career-related aspirations my concern was that he may have found the environment too challenging and therefore not achieved his aims. The correct application of Prince's Trust protocols in terms of recruitment and maintenance of the Team may lead to better outcomes for all Team members. Lack of good communication on policy and procedure together with a paucity of appropriate resources and a remote, off-site base clearly had a negative impact on the efficacy of the Team programme, and consequently my work with Andy. Confidentiality was also an issue. People with mental health problems are vulnerable to discrimination, but optimal support can only be delivered on Team if professionals have all the relevant information prior to assessment and engagement.

However, the multi-agency approach that was informally

implemented in order to support Andy seemed in this instance to have optimised the outcomes for him. His parents reported improvement both in his symptoms and non-OCD related behaviours, he made meaningful friendships in the Team, and seemed to form a positive attachment to me in my professional role. He planned next to attend a GCSE course, and was able to give me very positive feedback about how he had experienced my intervention relating to his Team experience. I also experienced a welcome congruence in terms of my professional social work values with the other professionals' (and family) approaches and quickly developed good communication strategies which helped to keep Andy safe and enabled his participation.

It was clear to me at the outset that this would be a very challenging relationship. I had been rather nervous of working with people with any sort of mental health problem prior to starting the course, and this placement, with a team of extremely marginalised young people, had also caused me some concern. However I quickly built rapport with this young man, his family and other professionals involved in his care, and became very interested in his circumstances. I now feel privileged to have been given the opportunity to engage with him and his situation, and to have had the opportunity to practice in this challenging but ultimately rewarding environment.

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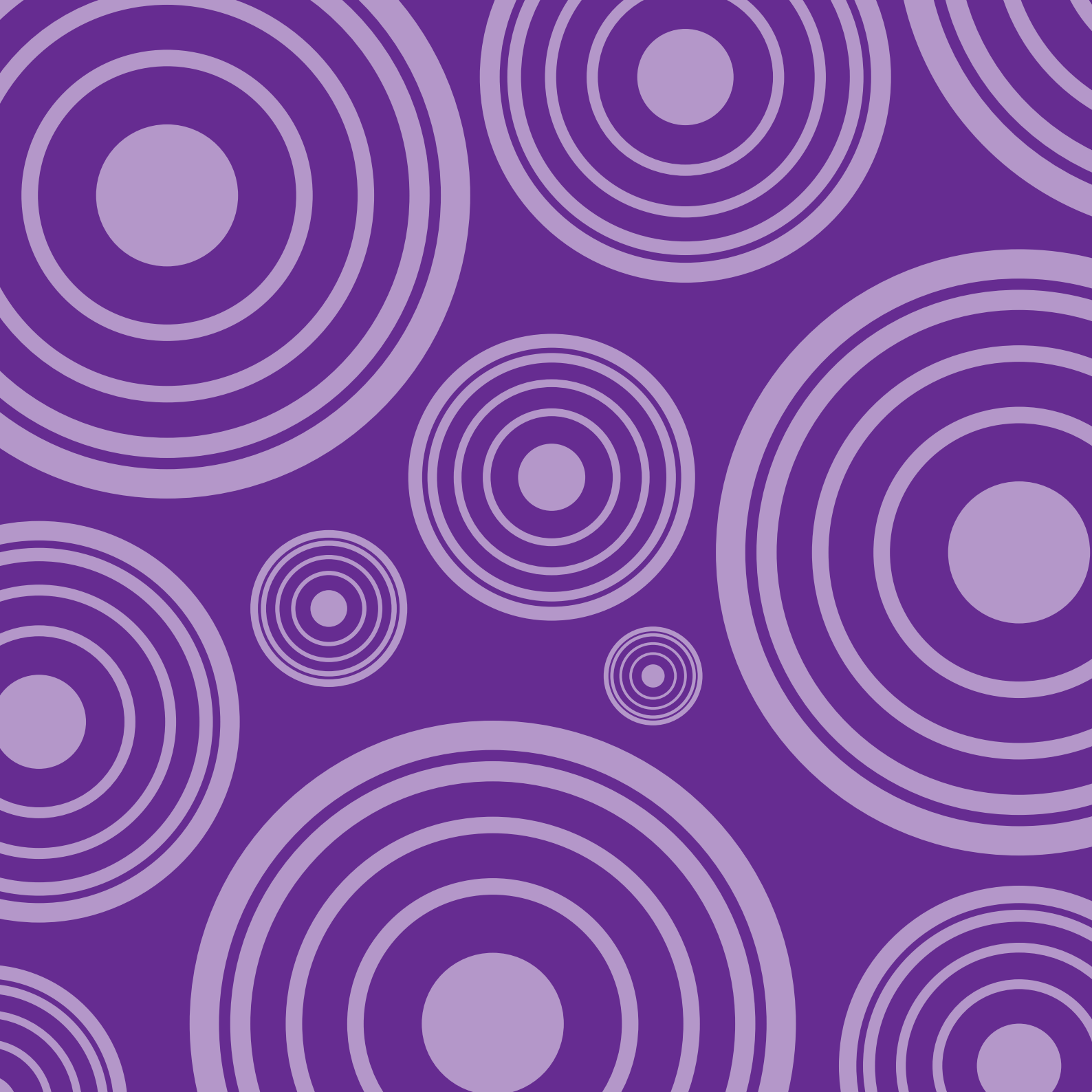
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Teaching Modern Foreign Languages in the Primary School: A rationale

Becky Craggs

“In the knowledge society of the 21st century, language competence and intercultural understanding are not optional extras, they are an essential part of becoming a citizen” (DfES, 2002 p.5). This quote encapsulates the current movement towards the teaching of modern foreign languages in primary schools. With the introduction of the *Languages for All, Languages for Life* strategy (DfES, 2002) and Rose’s *Independent Review of the Primary Curriculum* (Rose, 2009), there is a focus on bringing modern foreign languages into education at a younger age than the current expectation of Key Stage 3, with 2010 being the year that it becomes compulsory to teach a foreign language in Key Stage 2 (Hunt, 2009 p.205). The learning of modern foreign languages is credited with many benefits, such as an appreciation of other cultures (Bolster *et al.*, 2004 p.39), an awareness of languages in general, which can extend to literacy in English (Driscoll and Frost, 1999 p.3), and greater interaction with others which leads to social development (McColl, 2000 p.6). However, there is also research to suggest challenges in the teaching of foreign languages. The concept of teaching languages to young children was largely dismissed after Burstall, Jamieson, Cohen and Hargeaves (1974) found no evidence that this had significant benefits in the long term. Although subsequent reports have questioned the reliability of this study (McLachlan, 2009 p.184), other challenges have been reported such as unfavourable perceptions from teachers and pupils (*ibid.* p.193) and lack of continuity between key stages (Bolster *et al.*, 2009 p.37). McDonald and Boyd (2000) recommended that children be taught a foreign language from Key Stage 2. With the Nuffield Foundation, they reported that “we must give our children a better start with languages” (2000 p.5). However, Grenfell (2000) reported that there was still little enthusiasm in the idea of a primary languages curriculum following publication of the report. Despite a further report by the Nuffield Foundation in 2002, again recommending languages to be taught at primary level, it is only

now that languages are becoming part of the primary curriculum. Through discussion of two reported benefits of teaching languages – an appreciation of other cultures and an awareness of languages – as well as the challenges schools may face, this paper creates a rationale for why the teaching of modern foreign languages in the primary school is being promoted once again.

One of the most commonly described benefits of modern languages is an awareness and appreciation of other cultures. With a whole strand dedicated to intercultural understanding in the Key Stage 2 Framework for Languages (DCFS, 2009) and *Languages for All, Languages for Life* (DfES, 2002) detailing the global and economical benefits that can arise from an intercultural society, this seems to be an important development in our currently diverse nation (Rose, 2009 p.100). The *Framework for Languages* explains that within the objective of intercultural understanding, children develop their understanding of citizenship (DCSF, 2009 p.8) and stereotypes are diminished. As Barnet London Borough Council (2008) found, this has cross-curricular links with citizenship which may help children to see the links between themselves and other cultures. Ofsted (2005) suggest that modern foreign language teaching can be embedded into other subjects to provide more opportunities to learn. Furthermore, this can give a context to the language they are learning as children identify it as being a part of a nation’s identity (DCFS, 2009 p.8). Rose (2009) also states that cross-curricular links can help children gain a more thorough understanding of citizenship as well as providing more opportunities to teach and strengthen knowledge in other areas (*ibid.*, p.15). Therefore it would appear that intercultural understanding provides many opportunities to incorporate cross-curricular teaching and contextualise understanding. In a similar manner to citizenship, Grant (2006) discusses the long term benefits of intercultural understanding such as involvement within

international trade and economics (2006 p.11). Again, this has a link to citizenship and also to the outcomes of *Every Child Matters* (DfES, 2004), specifically the “make a positive contribution” and “achieve economic wellbeing” aims (p.9). As these include developing positive relationships, choosing not to discriminate and being ready for further training or employment upon leaving school, they appear to have links with foreign language learning in the long term. The teaching of intercultural awareness can be approached in a variety of ways, which can lead to practical and dynamic lessons such as games to help children become aware of other cultures (Rumley, 1999 p.124). I have observed this in a school that held a French day in which children dressed in red, white and blue and all activities had a French theme, from studying the paintings of Cezanne to a whole school French market in the afternoon. The children were engaged in learning and spoke French as soon as they walked through the door, greeting staff and peers with calls of “Bonjour!”. This example demonstrates the variety of activities that can be used to teach intercultural understanding. The children were also given a glimpse into the lives of French children and came to realise that their lives were actually very similar. This achieved the objective of becoming “more aware of the similarities and differences between peoples, their daily lives, beliefs and values” (DCFS, 2009 p.8). In learning about other cultures, children learn to recognise the characteristics of their own culture (Byram and Doye, 1999 p.143). Similarly, the Framework for Languages (DCFS, 2009) also states that children gain an understanding of their own culture through studying that of others’.

This concept of developing a refined understanding of one’s own characteristics through learning about others’ also appears to be true of language; for example, Sharpe (2001) states that “the foreign language and its environing culture are inextricably interrelated” (2001 p.153). It would therefore seem that the link between culture and language is one that may be explored to gain a more rounded understanding of the language and its place in its corresponding culture (*ibid.*). The Key Stage 2 Framework for Languages (DCFS, 2009) dedicates a strand to knowledge about language” (2009 p.9). This strand is concerned with the understanding of languages and linguistic rules (*ibid.*). Jones, Barnes and Hunt (2005) found that through using a familiar context, in their example the Harry Potter books, children can compare the similarities and differences of a language in a way that

is relevant to them (2005 p.66). This not only helps them become familiar with the structure of the language but also provides a context to the language; in this example that children in other cultures read the same books as British children. However, Hunt (2009) found that modern foreign language teaching often lacks progression and therefore risks “disparate chunks of language being learnt rather than the development of skills, linguistic knowledge and the ability to apply this in a range of contexts” (2009 p.206). Therefore it would appear that in order to ensure children learn the linguistic properties of a language, progression should be incorporated into the lessons (Sharpe, 2001 p.155). The Framework for Languages promotes progression in foreign language learning as this helps “prepare children for language learning for life” (DCFS, 2009 p.65). Therefore it is important to ensure children have the opportunity to progress in their linguistic knowledge as this provides a secure foundation for learning languages.

However, there are also many challenges that face schools when teaching modern foreign languages. These are well documented and include lack of training and funding (Evans, 2007), overcrowding an already busy curriculum (Naysmith, 1999), lack of teacher confidence in the language (Evans, 2007 p.302) and difficulty with progression from Key Stage 2 to Key Stage 3 (McLachlan, 2009). This challenge of liaising between schools is not a new one. Naysmith’s (1999) research found that many primary school teachers felt there was a lack of liaison with Key Stage 3 (1999 p.17). Bolster *et al.* (2004) found no evidence that children’s achievement in foreign languages was passed to secondary school when they entered Key Stage 3 (2004 p.37). This can lead to various difficulties such as a lack of differentiation for children who have experience in the language, causing them to start from the beginning again (Evans, 2007 p.302).

This in turn may result in a lack of motivation which has already been found to wane from the age of 11 (Coleman, 2009 p.111) although Bolster *et al.* (2004) found that many head teachers would have liked to enter children with previous knowledge of language learning into an earlier GCSE (2004 p.38) which may improve confidence and motivation. However, the Framework for Languages promotes continuity between schools by suggesting primary and secondary schools work together in a variety of ways

such as observations and holding meetings (DCFS, 2009 p.90). This helps overcome this challenge as both schools have guidance on ways to liaise. Teacher confidence can also have an impact on the teaching of modern foreign languages. Barnes found that teachers may have enthusiasm for the language but be conscious of limited subject knowledge (2006 p.44).

This could be true of intercultural understanding as well as knowledge of the language. Furthermore, Evans suggests that the *Languages Review* (DfES, 2007) does not address the issue of teacher confidence as the success of modern foreign language teaching relies on the teachers' knowledge of the language they are teaching (Evans, 2007 p.302). Therefore he implies that teachers should be competent in the language they are teaching. This is evident when researchers argue that teachers should use the foreign language wherever possible or, as Crichton (2009) believes, risk devaluing the language (2009 p.19). However, this induces the debate of whether modern foreign language teaching should be a responsibility for general or specialist teachers. McLachlan states that responsibility for language learning across the school is often the role of one teacher (2009 p.196), usually one with prior experience of and confidence in the language (Driscoll, 1999b). The challenge here is that a specialist teacher does not always know the class as well as the class teacher and therefore may find it challenging to plan for differentiation and progression (Satchwell, 2006 p.49). A generalist teacher, however, will have the knowledge of individual children yet may be unsure of their own ability in the language (*ibid.*). I have observed a school solve this problem by sharing responsibility for the language teaching between two teachers – the head teacher, who knew each child well, and a specialist teacher from the local secondary school. They each had responsibility for alternate year groups so every child received the benefit of a generalist and a specialist teacher. This suggests that children may gain the most benefit when teaching is shared between both generalists and specialists. However, the issue of liaison once again arises here in that the two teachers would need to work closely together in order to ensure progression for each child (Evans, 2007).

Overall, it appears that there are both benefits and challenges to teaching modern foreign languages in the primary school. An appreciation of other cultures is a quality that is becoming more

desirable in today's society (Grant, 2006). As well as giving the language a context, children can gain an understanding of how people in other cultures live which is ideal for cross-curricular learning (Rose, 2009). There is also the benefit of a deeper awareness of languages (Sharpe, 2001), which can lead to greater proficiency in English as well as modern foreign languages (Driscoll and Frost, 1999), as children learn about linguistic rules. These are just two of the several researched benefits although it is not without its challenges. From issues with teacher confidence (Barnes, 2006) to a lack of liaison between Key Stages (McLachlan, 2009), there are many difficulties to overcome. With previous attempts to introduce languages to early learners being so short lived, it will be interesting to see how long this latest initiative lasts. With so many researched benefits, it would be a shame for it to be withdrawn.

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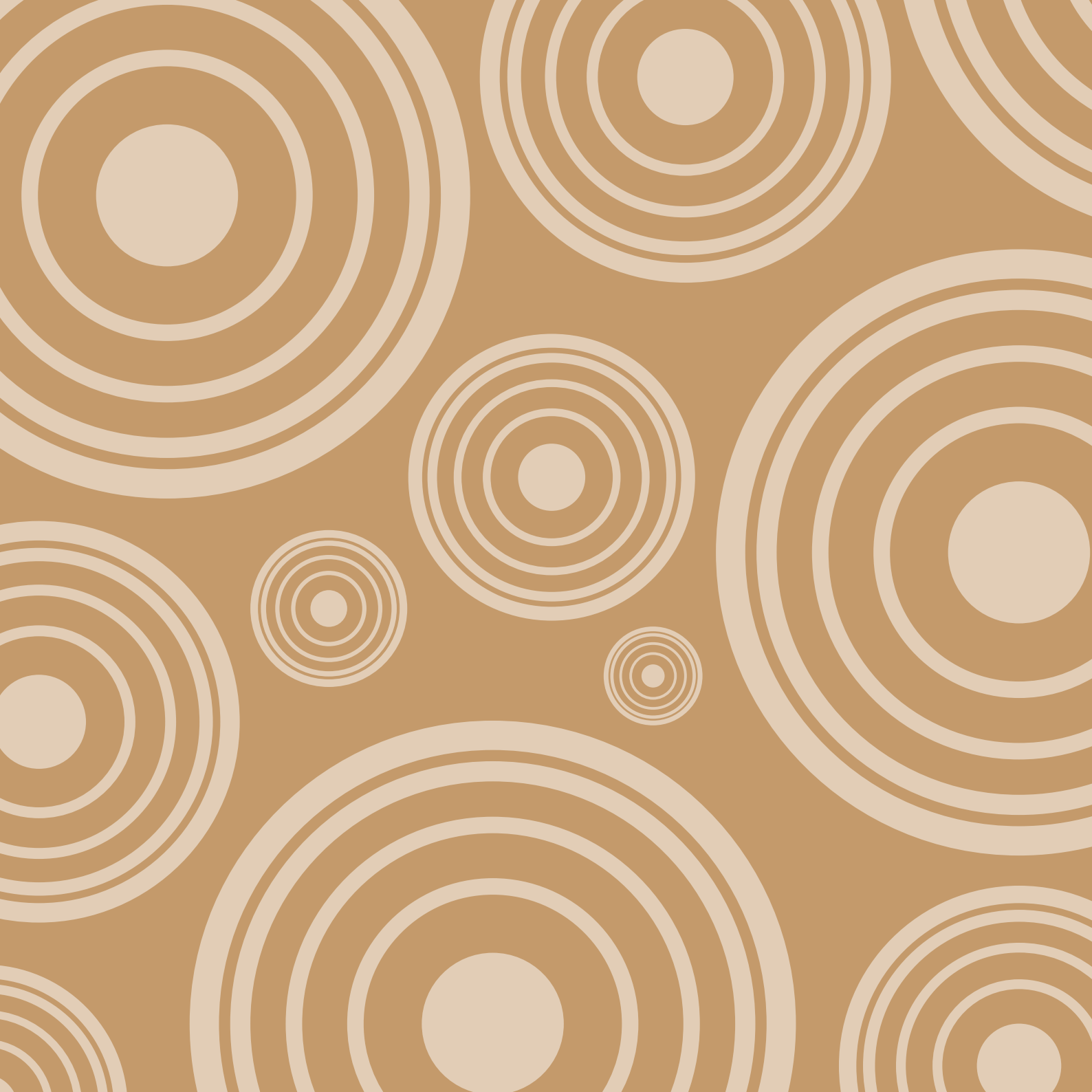
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How the Sport Education Model Supports the Inclusion of Children Marginalised as Lower Ability in Physical Education

Stephanie McDonnell

Introduction

By the end of the 2011 academic year School Sports Partnerships will be phased out by budget cuts (DfE, 2010). It is therefore a crucial point for class teachers to review and develop practices to provide good quality Physical Education (PE) for all pupils. The Education Secretary Michael Gove (*ibid.*) stated that he wanted “competitive sport to be at the centre of a truly rounded education that all schools offer. But this must be led by schools and parents, not by top-down policies”. However, teachers must be aware of the exclusion that PE can create. As Gove clarifies, when taught well, competitive sport “brings out the best in everyone, be they the Olympian of tomorrow or the child who wants to keep fit and have fun learning new sports and games” (*ibid.*). Nevertheless, this can only be fostered in an environment which supports inclusion of all.

Research has concluded that the National Curriculum for Physical Education (NCPE) is largely inappropriate in its design, privileging a minority of gifted or better able young people (Barton 2009; Fitzgerald and Kirk 2009). Therefore, in a hierarchy of skill, PE can be something to be avoided for those of lower ability (Siedentop and Tannehill, 2000). Traditional practices see teachers directing and instructing students who follow the teachers’ orders and are involved only as players (Lund and Tannehill, 2009). In contrast, Daryl Siedentop’s (1994) Sport Education (SE) model values team members as true sportsman and not just performers. Instead of singling out the strong, everyone is valued. Getting pupils to freely participate in a variety of roles that they may enjoy more than that of performer is one aspect of SE, and evidence suggests the SE model can lead to greater inclusion of lesser skilled students (Clarke and Quill, 2003). These children particularly benefit from SE’s expanded curriculum goals and democratic teaching (Carlson, 1995), supported by cooperative group work and peer teaching (Siedentop, 1998). It is not an

alternative to the NCPE, instead it aims to integrate with PE practices to strengthen, optimise and advance pedagogical practices (Penney *et al.*, 2005). As Hastie (2003) supports, SE can sit comfortably as part of a well-rounded PE curriculum.

The need for SE to be adapted to individual schools and learning contexts is repeatedly reaffirmed throughout research, as is the need for teachers involved to remain highly reflective and be willing to view their own plans as only provisional (Penney *et al.*, 2005). However, early learning of SE as a foundation around routines, persistent team affiliation, grouping, and optimising responsibility has been successful (Lewis, 2001). SE in the primary years’ context may provide pupils with opportunities to be reflective about the meaning of sport, as the structure of SE is more in keeping with their understanding and experiences (MacPhail *et al.*, 2003).

The Study

The principle aim of this study is to investigate how an SE intervention can support active participation of children with lower motor skill/ low confidence in PE. The study looks at team affiliation and role responsibility as key aspects of the SE approach in supporting inclusion of lower ability children.

The qualitative research approach selected for this study is Participatory Action Research (PAR) (Marshall and Rossman, 2010 p.23). PAR is an approach which “blurs the distinctions between researcher and participants, creating a democratic inquiry process” (*ibid.*), and is often used in educational settings by professionals to inform changes and assess the effects (McNiff and Whitehead, 2003). PAR is a process involving planning, observing, acting and reflecting in various ways. In this study, a combination of observations, and interviews, as well as a reflective evaluation from the class teacher were used.

For the purpose of this study the focus children will be referred to using pseudonyms as follows, Alice and Beth (‘lesser skilled’), and Carl and Dan (‘higher skilled’). All children in the class were given the right to withdraw at any time, and written permission was sought from parents whose children were interviewed.

The school selected was a larger-than-average first school, serving a relatively advantaged area. The school has Healthy Schools and Activemark status and at the time had regular School Sports Coordinators available to run specific PE sessions. The school and the class were already known to the author, making this a particularly suitable choice for a research project. Using the class teacher’s judgements a sample of four children who were representative of ‘lower skilled’ and ‘higher skilled’ in Physical Education were selected. Although the impact of team affiliation and team roles were examined on four specific children, the result of the intervention on the whole class of 30 pupils aged 7/8 years old were observed.

Research process

Prior to the first session the SE approach was explained to the children and interviews were conducted with each of the focus children. Six PE lessons took place with the implementation of the key aspects of SE as summarised in Table 1.

Feature of Sport Education	How it was incorporated
Affiliation	<p>Persisting teams (6 teams of 5)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Role and responsibilities:• Captain• Vice Captain• Manager• Coach• Fitness coach• Team members <p>Charter signed by all team members</p>
Sessions	One lesson (60 minutes) per week for 6 weeks – Invasion games.
Formal Competition	Team games and round robins
Culminating Event	Final session tournament – play against other teams in the class
Records	Team Points; Coach checklist during final session.
Festivity	<p>Team names (as spelt by the children):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• The fire wolfs• Super Sonic Service (S.S.S)• Terrorizing tigers• Supersonic fit health astro killers• Cheetahs• The massive fast Spinasauruses <p>Team emblems (designed by the Manager) were stuck to team poles in culminating event; team badges were worn by all team members in final session</p>

Table 1: Features of Sport Education model integrated into Physical Education lessons

During the sessions observations of the four focus children were made, as well as general observations of how the session went for the whole class. After each session reflections were shared and discussed with the class teacher, and improvements to following sessions discussed. After the sixth session the four focus children were re-interviewed. The class teacher also offered her own reflection of the SE approach.

Findings and analysis

The class teacher described her class as, “boy-heavy and it was noticeable during games lessons, that the more confident and enthusiastic pupils were boys who play team sports and invasion games, such as football and rugby”. In line with this observation, prior to SE implementation the interviews recorded negative attitudes towards PE from all focus children except Dan, with Alice and Beth expressing most negativity. After SE implementation all four focus children show improvement in their attitudes towards PE except Dan who remained consistent. The lower skilled children (Alice and Beth) showed a reduction in negative attitudes and an increase in positivity. Carl, a higher skilled child, also showed an increase in positive attitude and a decrease in negativity.

Beth showed the highest level of negativity towards PE in her interview prior to SE which illustrates a concerning level of poor self-confidence, “most of the time people are mean to me because I’m not very good... I’m rubbish at catching balls and throwing balls... he doesn’t include me... Everyone else is better at games than me for lots of reasons... I’m rubbish at everything”. However, during the post-intervention interviews Beth’s attitude is more positive, “Actual lessons are better... everybody works together... I’ve liked my team... I was left out but not now... There are still some people who are really good and better than me... but I was quite good I think”. The contrast is substantial. After six SE sessions Beth has shown a change in attitude eliciting a predominantly positive attitude. This outcome could suggest support for the notion that SE allows all to participate equally.

Alice also demonstrates an improved attitude towards PE. Her overall attitude towards PE was less extreme than Beth’s, but still negative, during her pre-SE interview she stated, “Sometimes the games are too hard... I’m not very fast at running either... he shouts too much at me... it’s hard when everyone’s good and I’m

not”. After the SE she explained that “People on my team include me, when somebody else has got the ball they pass it to me”. Furthermore, observations confirm Alice showing full participation in 5 of 6 sessions, an improvement in her attitude and involvement in PE sessions.

In contrast the higher skilled children (Carl and Dan) express confident attitudes to PE throughout. Even though Dan’s general attitude supports good sportsmanship, his responses emphasize his desire to work with people of higher ability and be a leader, “If you tell him what to do he’ll do it, he doesn’t argue” (post-SE). These attitudes may demonstrate why lesser skilled children in the class (Alice and Beth) hold negative views toward PE and often feel excluded. However, the higher skilled children demonstrated improvement in their attitude and ability in becoming well rounded sportsman. Dan’s response to lesser skilled players prior to and post SE demonstrates his ability to sit comfortably with the key agendas of SE, valuing team members as true sportsman, “No one can do everything on their own... I would just help people in my team who aren’t as good as me... I don’t mind working with people who are a bit slower than me, everyone’s good at different things”. Carl’s attitude also showed significant improvement. Post SE Carl emphasised his enjoyment in “working with different people” and accentuated that he “passed more to people” where he “didn’t bother before”.

Three of the four focus children offered a positive attitude towards their enjoyment of working in a team pre and post SE. Carl’s negative attitude towards others prior to SE was supported during sessions 2 and 3; he was observed to be making game play difficult for other members of his team. When asked to play fair his answer was “but I want to win”. This again suggests an attitude which relies on winning. Conversely, during later sessions he was observed showing good sportsmanship through praise, support and encouragement and was seen to be making good use of lower ability children during the culminating event. Carl’s attitude and behaviour has shown a shift in becoming more inclusive of lesser skilled children.

Throughout session 6 Alice was observed to remain resistant throughout the game situation and did not fully participate, shouting “don’t pass to me”. Her low confidence discussed in

interview could be a contributor to why she sidelines herself. However, the class teacher's reflections suggest that Alice's attitude changed considerably since SE intervention, "One of the focus pupils (Alice) who had shown low confidence and enthusiasm for sport prior to the trial, offered 'I am good at sport'". In examination of observations Alice showed improvement, she worked well with higher ability children, listening to their support and guidance. Her interview response highlights her growth in confidence and improved involvement within games lessons.

It could be suggested that in comparing the pre and post SE interviews of Alice and Beth, the six week SE intervention has been inclusive of lesser skilled children. It is clear that Beth's confidence has significantly heightened and although Alice's change in attitude is not extreme, observations demonstrate that she has shown an improvement in her attitudes towards PE.

Conflict among students is the greatest danger to effective implementation of SE (Hastie and Sharpe, 2009), and a change in teams with significant conflicts may reduce such attitudes. However, the benefits of team affiliation have far outweighed the criticisms. The evidence of Carl and Dan suggests support for Hastie's (2003) claim that during SE skilful players embrace all team members, providing better opportunities and success for all. It may also support evidence from Wallhead and O'Sullivan (2005) which elicited that through team membership students are willing to invest efforts into the achievement of group goals.

Roles

All players had opportunities to express which role they would prefer to have, however, it was observed that the more dominant figures in the class selected themselves to take captaincy, and that some children got their role by default. In analysing the roles, fitness coach appeared to be most influential throughout the session. These children took a lead role at the start of each session with the teacher as facilitator. By session 4 the children confidently led the warm-up with great efficiency and were skilled enough to perform without teacher instruction. Retrospectively, this role was a non-playing role, this could explain why the role was performed efficiently and valued as it created no conflict.

All four focus children explained that they had enjoyed their roles, whilst most children fulfilled their role successfully during the culminating event one child expressed that he did not appreciate not playing and for this reason did not want to be coach. Although the children appeared to appreciate the roles for example, Dan explained, "I would like any of the roles I think they were all fun" and Carl noted, "I liked... working with different people in different roles". In analysis of interview responses it could be suggested that lesser skilled children have shown improvement in enjoyment and confidence in PE. Alice shows confidence in her ability to take on role of vice-captain, Beth explains, "It was fun". It could be said a role inspires higher skilled children to praise other children of varied abilities. Even so, the higher skilled children (including Carl and Dan) on several occasions were seen to dominate other team roles. For example the Manager's (Beth's) decisions were overridden in session 2 during equipment selection with Carl and Dan observed dominating their teams. During session 6 Dan was also observed only passing to the boys in the group. However, throughout the rest of the session Dan was seen to work "sensitively", offering "praise", "support" and encouraging other children. Carl fully supported his team in later sessions. In review of the higher skilled children it appears it takes time to adapt to the approach. This could support Wallhead and O'Sullivan (2005) who reported students gradually assuming greater responsibility throughout the sessions. As Kinchin (2001) has reported and as can be seen in the observations and interviews, SE offers a different type of challenge for these pupils, developing social and inter-personal skills.

In adapting and developing the SE model some children "remain acutely aware of where they stand in a performance based hierarchy" (Penney and Clarke, 2005 p.48). The appreciation of the lower skilled children for their own roles suggests that the climate created was inclusive of all children. As supported by Kinchin and Kinchin (2005), specific roles could be seen to provide opportunities to empower all students to take responsibility and actively support the learning of their peers.

On reflection, the roles were not clear enough for the children at the outset, making the process of selection, and the responsibility of roles harder. Throughout the session children responded well to tasks; had further attention been drawn to the roles their full

impact on lesser skilled children would be easier to identify. From the class teacher's perspective "the model improved the self-confidence and motivation of most pupils and the value that they attach to team sports".

It could be implied that the length of the sessions (60 minutes) was unrepresentative of the structure proposed by Siedentop, Hastie and Van der Mars (2004) which suggested that sessions should be two to three times longer than traditional PE practices. And it may be that the four children sampled were not representative of the class of 30. In observing the whole class most children appeared to embrace the new structure and fully support their role responsibility.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the results from this study suggest that SE supports the active participation and inclusion of children who typically do not participate in PE, have low motor skills and/or low confidence. The team affiliation aspect of SE is prospectively more motivating and inclusive of these students. Role responsibilities within teams can potentially raise the profile of inclusive attitudes through higher skilled class members developing their social and interpersonal skills in collaborative activities. In doing so the lesser skilled members of the class could be valued for their contributions and supported.

SE's inclusive approach has been beneficial to most children involved. In the foreseeable future, SE should be longitudinally monitored to strengthen the claims made. As the class teacher reflected, monitoring the children's involvement and response to roles could "provide useful information for their subsequent teachers and form part of Teacher Assessment". SE targets differentiation in a way that seeks to give all children equal opportunities in a non-hierarchical stature which traditional practices may prolong.

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A Train Journey of the Dialectic

Richard Lewis

We are going to take a journey. We are first going to purchase a ticket, which is only possible if we understand the type of journey we are going to undertake. We shall board a train, its destination will be unknown and there may be many or no stops along the way. All we must make sure of is that we make a conscious decision to board. This, we may find, might be in the course of duty, or the result of an unconscious curiosity of the mind. Either way we must depart for our journey, for staying at the station, and turning and letting the train leave without us, may have the most unthinkable consequences.

First, we must purchase our ticket. You might ask, “what is this ticket?”, or, “what is it for?”. These are both very relevant, but also very complex questions. It is far too early to call this ticket a ticket to truth, and consequently freedom; but yet it might be. That is what we will hopefully discover.

In order to purchase our ticket we must first look beyond our prescribed reality. We must be turned from the back of Plato’s cave, to no longer “believe that the shadows of the objects... were the whole truth” (Plato, 1987a p.257). From Plato’s analogy we can glimpse the world beyond shadows, and understand that everything we previously believed to be true was in fact false. We can now go ahead and purchase our ticket. Our payment for the ticket is the seed of doubt, imprinted on our consciousness. Even if we were to turn back from the ticket booth, go out of the door, and return to the back of the cave, our consciousness will not rest easily. We come to understand that all our previous experiences and perceptions were false; a state that Hegel describes as a violence against our consciousness, “its anxiety may well make it retreat from truth, and strive to hold on to what it is in danger of losing” (Hegel, 1977 p.51). What we seem to be losing is our whole world, our reality, and this is payment enough for our ticket.

The truth Hegel speaks of is that there is no truth; or at least any truth that we previously have thought of as truth. Here we have encountered a dialectic of truth; that there is no truth, other than the truth that there is no truth. We are now ready to step off the platform, on to the train, and start our journey. But we must keep in mind a worrying conclusion from Hegel, that our consciousness “can find no peace” (ibid.). The advert for the ticket was to turn from the back of the cave. Many people will never even see this advertisement. To purchase the ticket, we had to keep looking forward, not reverting back to the shadows of the cave, back to our false truths, back to a “totality that is false” (Adorno, 1991 p.28).

Even now we must fight our urge to return to the back of the cave, where life seemed so much simpler. Kant might argue that it is a moral imperative to board the train, and that it was our moral duty to do so. However, his work does seem to leave him waving us goodbye from the station platform, for at first sight, Kant seems to believe in a totality. He explains, “only act if what you would do is what everyone should do in the best interest of the universal, not the particular” (Kant, 1956 p.30). He suggests that we should always act in the universal interest of everyone, and that we would, and should, know what this would be. This notion suggests that Kant believed that this truth was attainable. A question that arises is, is it possible always to act unselfishly, and in a way that will always be to the greater good of everyone? It seems to be, that we must leave Kant at the station, as he doesn’t address the dialectical problem that his truth cannot be truth, that his totality is false.

Kant does however throw out his hand at the last moment, and as we start to draw away from the station he exclaims, “perhaps no recognised and respected duty has ever been carried out by anyone without some selfishness or interference from other motives; perhaps no one will ever succeed in doing so, however hard he

tries” (Kant, 1992 p.69). In this moment we can reach out and lift him graciously onto the train, for Kant has acknowledged that there is a dialectic in his theory. No man can, at all times, do what is always in the best interest of the universal. It is impossible to perceive when motives, and denial of motives, effect an action. But for Kant, “by careful self-examination, we can perceive a certain amount... not so much of any accompanying motives, but rather of our own self-denial with respect to many motives which conflict with the idea of duty” (*ibid.*, p.69). This is sufficient for Kant. In this manner, he accepts the dialectic, and is a welcome passenger on the train.

Our ticket has allowed us access to a journey of the dialectic. We must deduce that everyone else who has boarded, or is already on the train, is experiencing the same journey. They are thinking dialectically. As we look around the carriage, we see there is one person to whom we should talk first. This is Plato, and we should ask him about the teachings of Socrates. The question we must ask is, “what is dialectical questioning?”, and in the answer we may then find where the train is leading us. Plato might reply that Socrates claimed, “I have no knowledge; I cannot claim any such ideas as my own – no, I am barren as far as they are concerned” (Plato, 1987b p.41). How can Socrates claim to have no knowledge? The answer is that he believes everything is relative. Plato writes, “if you call something big, it will also turn out to be small, and if you call something heavy, it will also turn out to be light, and so on for everything” (*ibid.*, p.32). In the light of this, it seems that no object truly exists in its own right. The object merely exists as an individual’s relation to it. For Plato, there are no objects, just infinite perceptions of objects, and this leads us to an uncomfortable conclusion. If everything is relative and unique to each individual, then there can be no true facts of any kind. Any fact would be relative only to the individual stating it. Plato explains, “the view that nothing is a single, non-relative identity”, must lead us to the conclusion that “you cannot correctly identify anything or describe what it is like” (*ibid.*, p.31-2). There is then, no real object in the world, or even the universe, on which we can all agree.

At this moment of our convocation, another passenger, might tap us on the shoulder and introduce himself as Martin Buber. He might explain, that “as experience, the world belongs to the

primary word I-It. The primary word I-Thou establishes the world of relation” (Buber, 1987 p.6). The I-It relation is the neglect in seeing knowledge as relative. It is the attempt to own experience and knowledge, to create ‘facts’, the consequence being that in the realm of I-It, knowledge becomes power. In the I-Thou relation, perhaps knowledge is kept in relation to the individual, with the individual trying not to force it to fit into the world of perceived truths in which we live. Here Plato might pose a question to Buber, “are you not postulating a totality here? You are stating that there are two types of relation, I-It and I-Thou. But as we have discussed, this totality must be false”. As these words settle in our minds, the train slowly, almost without our knowledge, glides to a halt. With that, Buber wishes us farewell and departs from the train. His journey along the tracks of the dialectic is over. Ours seems to be just beginning.

Another passenger who might interest us would be Karl Marx. For him, “the mystical character of commodities does not originate... in their use-value” (Tucker, 1978 p.320). In this mystical character, which must therefore be found in exchange-value, there is a dialectic to be found. For Marx, a commodity is mysterious “simply because in it the social character of men’s labour appears to them as an objective character stamped upon the product of that labour” (*ibid.*). Their labour appears to them as the currency of exchange (i.e. pounds or dollars). This relation is “presented to them as a social relation, existing not between themselves, but between the products of their labour” (*ibid.*). Producers relate to an object through its exchange-value, through a social relation that exists between the objects of production (commodities), not as a relation between themselves as human beings. The commodities we produce seem to be a truer representation of humanity than we are ourselves, for commodities hold our labour, our essence. This is Marx’s theory of commodity fetishism. We produce the commodities, and then negate that we produced them. We then let ourselves be controlled by our want for the very commodities we produced. We no longer see a table and the labour spent to produce it. We see the price tag we must pay. In this way, humanity is alienated; our essence is lost in the world of commodities. Marx did, however, believe that this vicious cycle could be broken. He believed that if we look beyond the outward appearance of commodities, we will again see the truth of the product in-itself, the labour involved in producing it. In this way humanity could

retrieve its essence, and, in time, rise up and break the vicious cycle by revolution. And so again, the train glides softly to a stop, and Marx, with many others, leaves the train. He believes he has found an answer to the dialectic. Marx uses a totality, that revolution, which will result from the return of our humanity from commodities, will release us from the dialectic. Therefore Marx's ticket has expired. His stop has arrived, but we must journey on.

As we look around the train, we see few people left on the journey. Most have departed since they have declared a totality. They have returned back to their ignorance of truths, neglecting the dialectical truth, that there is no truth. There are however, two passengers we see left who are of importance, Adorno and Horkheimer. Both of these men believe Marx's revolution to be unattainable, because enlightenment from commodity fetishism is itself, impossible. For Adorno and Horkheimer, there is a dialect of enlightenment. They both claim that "myth is already enlightenment; and enlightenment reverts to mythology" (Adorno and Horkheimer, 1979 p.xvi). All knowledge is myth because, as we have discovered, the dialectic does not allow truth or facts. Every explanation of anything is an attempt to create a truth through reason. When we attempt to enlighten the myth, to see if it is valid or not, we create nothing more than a new myth. Myth becomes enlightenment because it offers total control, the control of knowledge and power. Enlightenment then reverts to myth because there is no total control, and no truth. "Enlightenment is totalitarian", we cannot escape its vicious cycle, but yet at the same time, in true dialectical form, enlightenments dialectic is also false (*ibid.* p.6). Adorno and Horkheimer both seem to suggest that we can no longer escape from the capitalist system we live in, for its influence is caught up in their dialectic of enlightenment. Neither language, nor even ideas can escape the influence of capitalism. To attempt to release ourselves from its grasp, to enlighten ourselves from its power, is to use the very thing we are attempting to release ourselves from. Adorno and Horkheimer explain, "the myths which fell victim to the Enlightenment were its own products" (*ibid.*, p.8). In other words, to destroy the shackles of capitalism, we have nothing other than capitalism to use against it.

If we look to the train that seems to provide us our freedom for this journey, we can witness the dialectic in motion. The train needs fuel, and so it, and ourselves are reliant on that fuel for our

perceived freedom. Oil, the source of our fuel, seems to have culminated into becoming the ultimate form of capitalism. It controls all aspects of what we call freedom, of our ability to travel on the train. It seems we need it even to embark on our train journey of the dialectic. Oil is a natural product, but we have made it useful to us. We created the engines that need the oil, and yet now we are controlled by the oil, which seems now to be the ultimate commodity.

Nigel Tubbs, another passenger who is still with us, would explain that "the freedoms made possible by burning fossil fuels have contributed to a culture which liberates personal freedom from the relation to the other, to death and to the universal" (Tubbs, 2008 p.69). What he is describing is our complete neglect in associating our freedom to travel with the damage we cause to the Earth. A culture has risen, through our drive to be free, that is "continually learning to enjoy (watching) the recognition that there is nothing we can do" (*ibid.*, p.82). The uncomfortable connection here is what a guard at Auschwitz might have thought when asking himself, "am I doing wrong?", might he too "smile quickly to himself, chuckle, and with a small, perhaps invisible shrug of the shoulders, move on and continue his work?" (*ibid.*, p.71). Perhaps this is a worrying consequence of returning to the cave wall, of returning to ignorance.

As we look around the train now, we see fewer and fewer people. Our journey seems to have taken us nowhere, and in the light of what we have learnt (which is of course nothing, because everything is relative, and we are caught in the dialectic of enlightenment), it is entirely possible that the train has never moved and it is everyone else who is moving away from us. This is, as we have seen, the nature of dialectical thinking. It has no end, for it has no beginning, other than the fact (and I use this word carefully) that we must start with wanting to find an answer. To find an answer, we must first want to find one. Why do we come to want an answer? Because we doubt what we first perceived. Our ticket was purchased by doubting the shadows of Socrates' cave, and realising that what we perceived to be true, truly was not. In boarding the train, we did not turn back to our false truths; we wished to question the new. On our journey we encountered many people, many of whom were forced to leave us. They took some notion of the dialectic and took it to be truth.

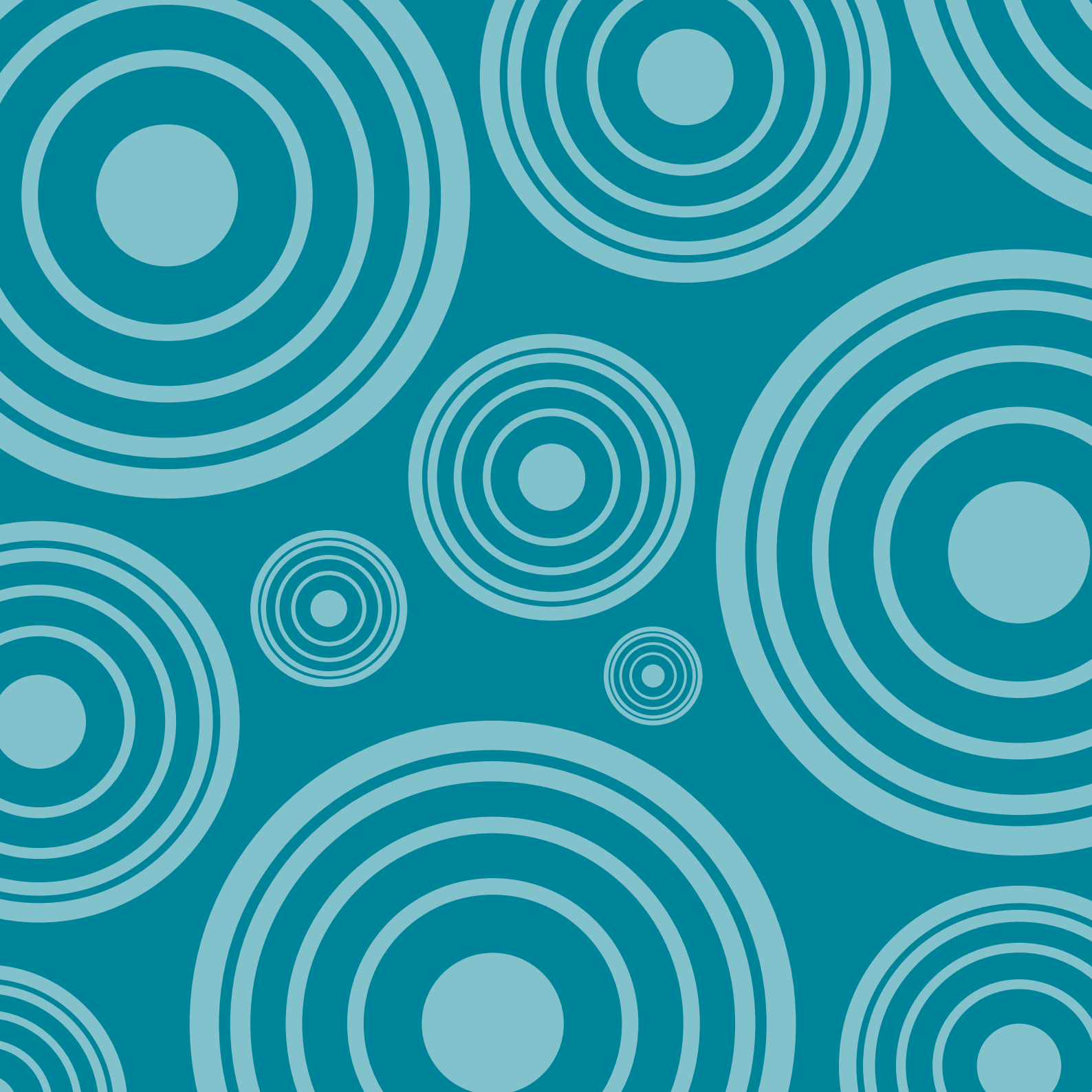
It could be said they escaped the vicious cycle of the dialectic, but we know this not to be the case. The question we need to ask is, “has anything happened during our journey?” although the dialectic is a vicious cycle, it does seem that we have achieved something. First, we have rid ourselves of the false reality which we previously perceived. Second, we seem to be fulfilling a natural instinct, for if we never doubted and questioned, it would seem likely that we would have never developed as a species. Why would we have come out of the caves? This seems to be an answer to the question, and to the definition of what our ticket is. It is a ticket of freedom, but only freedom from, not freedom to. It is freedom from the totality that is false, but it is not freedom towards anything, for we know there is nothing. The journey itself seems to be the reason to question and doubt. Even if we remain without an answer, which we surely do, we have gained something. What we have been doing on this journey is learning, and maybe it is learning that is our freedom. As long as we can question in the knowledge that we are caught in the dialectic, maybe that is truth, and therefore worthwhile. “Man imagines himself free when there is no longer anything unknown” (Adorno and Horkheimer, 1979 p.16). This is dialectic in itself, for we know we can never know everything, and so, we know nothing. Adorno and Horkheimer were “wholly convinced... that social freedom is inseparable from enlightened thought” (*ibid.*, p.xiii). Although they see no escape from the dialectic of enlightenment, they still think freedom is found through enlightenment, “enlightenment must examine itself, if men are not to be wholly betrayed” (*ibid.*, p.xv). However uncomfortable the questioning is, however much it seems like a vicious circle, we must still question, we must still doubt, for the consequences of not doing so have been, and will continue to be, unthinkable. If we stop thinking, everything stops. It is the end of doubt that is the end of freedom. So, in doubt, in the dialectic, there must be freedom. The “sense of wonder” of learning, for Plato, is “perfectly proper to a philosopher: philosophy has no other foundation, in fact” (Plato, 1987b p.37). He claims, “lack of practice and learning – leads the mind not only to learn nothing,

but even to forget what it has learned” (*ibid.*, p.33).

So we will hopefully never depart from one another now, for we shall always be on our journey of the dialectic, never leaving the train. The journey, which however infinite and yet not, continues within us. We may never have any answer to any question, but we will find a freedom within the questions. We must avoid at our utmost, the want for totalities, to return back to the cave where “inactivity causes rot and ruin” (Plato, 1987a p.33).

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“What we may be witnessing is ... the end of history as such” (Fukuyama, 1989). To what extent might this be revised?

Ricky Piper

Written upon the ending of the Cold War, Fukuyama's article *The End of History* infamously stated that, “What we may be witnessing is not just the end of the Cold War, or the passing of a particular period of post-war history, but the end of history as such: that is, the end point of mankind's ideological evolution and the universalization of Western liberal democracy as the final form of human government”. This was an historical interpretation not only inspired by the politically positive nature of the aforementioned event, but also the victory for Western liberal democracy which he felt it represented. In this sense, it is Fukuyama's evident belief in the supremacy of Western liberal democracy over all other political ideologies which had formed the basis of his main arguments, whilst also influencing his view of future political development (Betts, 2010). As a consequence, Fukuyama assumes there will ensue a necessity for all nations to adopt the ideologies and political practices of the West in the interests of prosperity and security, thus ensuring that the universalization of this method of governance would in effect be the conclusion to the development of all political ideologies – the ‘end of history’. With the benefit of hindsight and knowledge of world events since 1989, one has little difficulty in finding a basis on which to criticise the statement in question, and in this sense certain influential factors not considered by Fukuyama have proved, and continue to be, detrimental to the validity of his theory.

Firstly, as the bi-polar conflict between capitalism and communism that had dominated the post-war period gave way to a new paradigm of US uni-polarity, Fukuyama saw no future opposition to the dominance of Western liberal democracy or to the world-wide adoption of its political, cultural and economic principles. Though communism and also Islam are recognised as rival ideologies, Fukuyama saw the economic benefits of capitalism as desirable to such an extent that it would inevitably replace them

(Baylis *et al*, 2008 p.9). Within this pro-globalist stance Fukuyama had neglected to realise not only the importance of state desires to retain individual cultures and sovereignty, but also religious beliefs that are directly opposed to liberalism and capitalism. With regards to Islamic states in particular, the belief in community and redistribution of wealth is wholly incompatible with the policies of individualism and capitalism inherent within liberal democracy (*ibid.*, p.426). Thus, as an unfortunate consequence, the events of 9/11 and subsequent ongoing acts of Islamic fundamentalist terrorism are extreme manifestations of opposition to US and Western influence. As stated by Huntington (1993), “the security of the world requires acceptance of global multiculturality”, and in this sense, it could be argued that in trying to Westernise Islamic states in particular, globalisation has served only to alienate the West and create new enemies, thus having a more destabilising effect than the universalization of principles Fukuyama had envisaged.

The emergence of China as a potential rival superpower to the US has also served to contradict Fukuyama's view of continued US dominance, as well as the belief that Western liberal democracy is the only viable means in which to ensure economic prosperity. As China's naval expansion has already seen the country exert further influence in the Pacific, whilst also making in-roads into Africa and the Middle East. The Chinese export-based economy continues to grow at a rate far exceeding that of the US, and as a culture far removed from that of the West, with a political ideology based on Confucianism, China is a clear example that economic prosperity can be ensured through means other than Western liberal democracy (Prestowitz, 2010 p.34). The cultural loyalty of other Asia-Pacific states in supporting China's economic expansion rather than stifling it, coupled with the formation of economic institutions designed to ensure economic stability for the region,

have also further lessened the influence of the West, as stated by Khanna (2008), “A set of Asian security and diplomatic institutions is being built from the inside out, resulting in America’s grip on the Pacific Rim being loosened one finger at a time”. As a consequence were China to ultimately emerge as an outright rival to the US, we could see a potential return to a bi-polar paradigm, in which there would be a significant increase in the influence of cultures and ideologies other than that of Western liberal democracy.

Most detrimental to Fukuyama’s theory however is the faith in which he places in the ability of liberal principles alone to establish international order. Conservatives would argue that humans are driven ultimately by “selfishness, greed and the thirst for power” (Heywood, 2007 p.50), and as a consequence states will also act predominately in the interests of self-preservation. In this sense, a *laissez-faire* attitude to the actions of other states can only be successful up to the point that a state either becomes a threat, or two states desire something which they cannot both have (Kahl, 1995). In this sense, the decline in natural resources such as oil has perhaps seen the actions of Britain and the US become increasingly conservative in the interests of self-preservation. With regards to the invasion of Iraq, even though the stated intention was the ‘liberation’ of its people from an anti-Western dictatorship, this could only be achieved by war – a traditionally conservative method, which also begs the question as to whether the aims were in fact conservative, but acted upon under the pretence of liberal ideals (Meacher, 2003). Nonetheless, this event only serves to highlight the impotency of liberalism as a force of order, necessitating the Bush administration in particular to adopt a neo-conservative approach with regards to the interventionist policy in the Middle East (Marshall, 2003). As a consequence it is arguable that rather than continuing to be the dominant form of governance, Western liberal democracy may no longer even exist in the form that Fukuyama originally understood it.

Having given no definitive timescale as to when universalization would ultimately occur, Fukuyama has ensured that it is difficult to prove that history has deviated entirely from the path he envisaged. However, whilst he believed that the universalization of Western liberal democracy would end all ideological conflict, it has become increasingly apparent that conflict may well be the only way in which its implementation can be achieved. In this sense, Fukuyama failed to recognise the level of opposition towards Westernisation,

and as a consequence his overtly idealistic view of the superiority of Western culture and politics had led him to hugely underestimate the influence of non-Western values and beliefs as a force in ensuring the end of history has not yet been reached.

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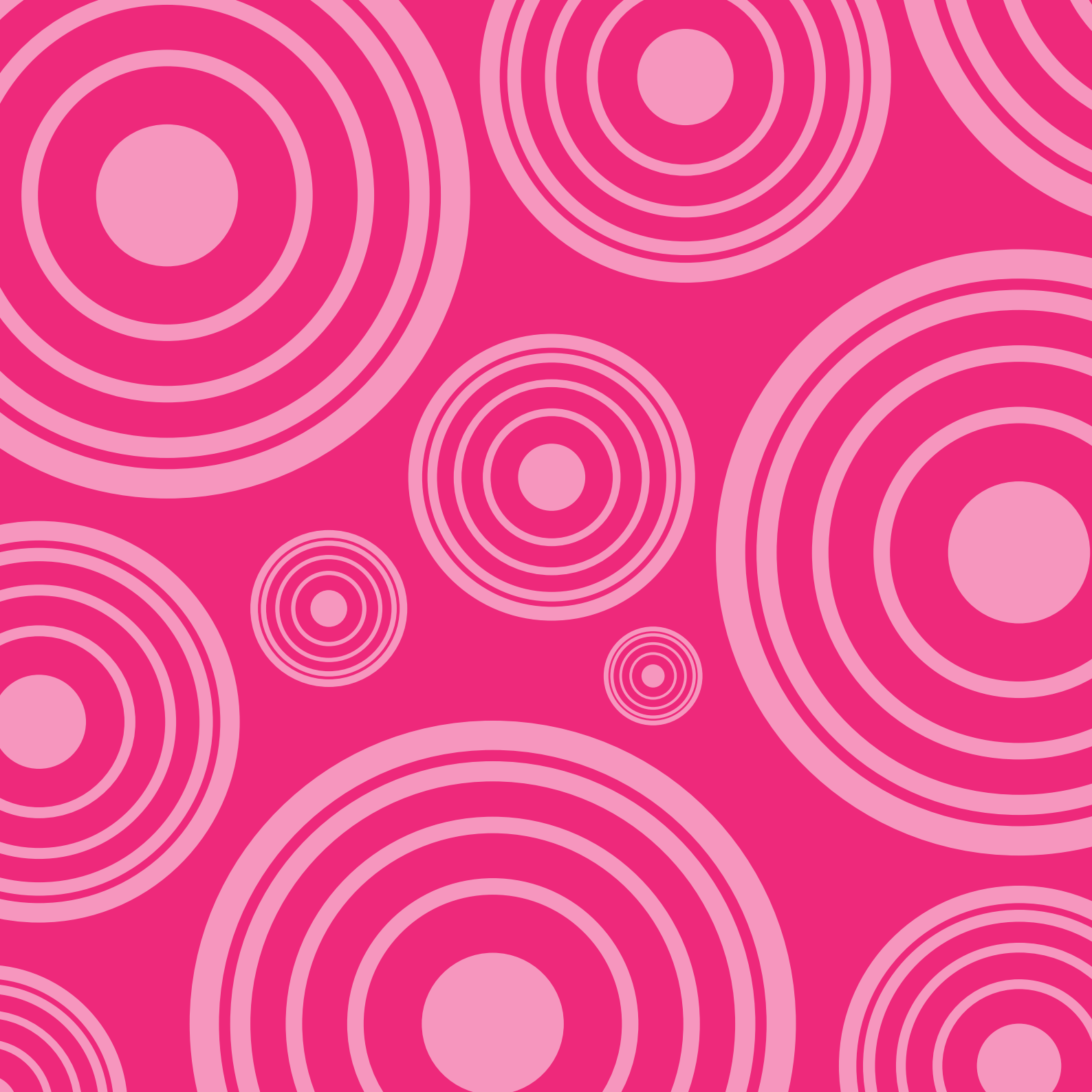
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Total Reward: Its usefulness as a strategic lever in motivating staff and affecting their workplace performance

Charlotte Clark

Introduction

This briefing paper investigates how Total Reward is used to motivate staff and how it affects their performance. 73% of employers define Total Reward as how they attract, motivate and retain their staff (Gross *et al.*, 2011). This paper uses Total Reward to specifically mean Brown's (2001) model. Performance-related pay was popular in the 1980s and 1990s (CIPD, 2011a), but Total Reward has gained popularity since 2000. A Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development survey (CIPD, 2011b) reveals one-third of employers currently utilise Total Reward. PricewaterhouseCoopers, Nationwide Building Society and Norwich Union all advocate Total Reward and, coincidentally or not, all successfully "attract and retain key employees" (Silverman and Reilly, 2003). Total Reward can create competitive advantage (Hiles, 2009), it has even been deemed "perhaps the 'greatest breakthrough in compensation and benefits since health care plans started to show up along with pay packages'" (Giancola, 2009).

Reward Categories

Pay: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Base pay• Annual bonuses• Long-term incentives• Shares• Profit sharing	Benefits: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Pensions• Holidays• Perks• Flexibility
Learning and Development: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Training• On-the-job learning• Performance management• Career management• Succession planning	Work environment: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Organisation culture• Leadership• Communication• Involvement• Work-life balance• Non-financial recognition

Figure 1: Brown's Total Reward model (Brown, 2001).

Total Reward encompasses four categories which are pay (tangible), benefits (tangible), learning and development (intangible), and work environment (intangible). Herzberg's two-factor theory also mixes tangible and intangible elements. Tangible 'hygiene' factors prevent job dissatisfaction, while intangible 'motivators' determine the strength of satisfaction (cited in Mullins, 2010 p.265; see Figure 2). Staff receiving Total Reward should therefore be highly satisfied because they receive both 'hygiene' factors and 'motivators'.

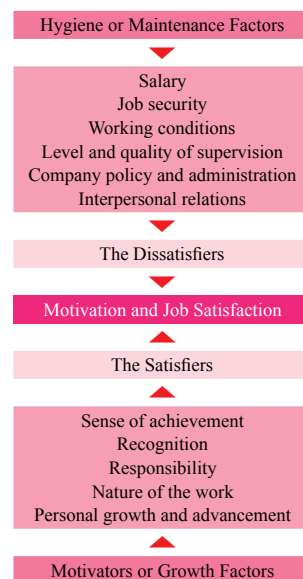


Figure 2: Representation of Herzberg's two-factor theory (taken from Mullins, 2010 p.266).

Designing a Total Reward System

Four essential perspectives must be considered:

Employer: Do the rewards support organisational performance standards?

Employee: Which rewards do employees consider ‘compelling’?

Cost: Is the system affordable and sustainable in the long-term? Total Reward packages are frequently the organisations’ biggest expenses (Gross and Friedman, 2004).

External: How do competitors’ reward systems influence or constrain this organisation’s system? (Gross *et al.*, 2011).

Using these questions, organisations can tailor Total Reward systems to their unique aims and circumstances. However, Total Reward is not suitable for every company. Organisations are often best at integrating financial rewards into the system (CIPD, 2011b), but if an organisation advertises Total Reward yet focuses mainly on financial aspects, employees may feel misled and therefore lose loyalty or motivation. Organisations may experience difficulty in communicating a reward’s value to employees (Silverman and Reilly, 2003). For example, staff may not understand how expensive pension schemes or perks are for employers and therefore view Total Reward as an excuse to pay lower salaries. Similarly, personality shapes an employee’s openness to Total Reward (Vandenberghe *et al.*, 2008), but offering a diverse range of rewards to satisfy all employees’ personalities is unrealistic on a budget.

Employee Motivation

Several Total Reward components will be analysed to demonstrate the approach’s overall effectiveness at motivating staff.

Psychological Contract

Defined as what “employees and employers perceive as their mutual obligations toward each other” (Guest and Conway cited in CIPD, 2010a; see Figure 3). Employees have non-written expectations about rewards they will receive if they put in a certain amount of effort. If they perform well and do not receive the expected reward, they lose motivation (CIPD, 2010a).

Rewards

Basic pay
Incentive bonus
Fringe benefits
Time off
Autonomy
Satisfying work
Power and influence
Relationship with colleagues
Sense of achievement
Self-evaluation



Effort

Physical measurable effort
Mental effort
Willingness to work extra hours
Good attendance
Co-operation with change
Commitment
Initiative
Co-operation with others
Enthusiasm
Flexibility

Figure 3: Representation of the psychological contract (Tyson, 2009).

Work-life Balance

Many employers recognise their workers’ desire for flexibility, including negotiable schedules, vacation time and sabbaticals. For example, 59% of companies include work-life balance in their definition of Total Reward (Gross *et al.*, 2011), two-thirds of small business directors believe flexibility increases staff motivation (Price, 2007 p.474), and one-third of British workers “would be prepared to forgo a pay increase for more flexible working options” (*ibid.*).

Perks

Employees are motivated by Total Reward perks and programmes that will improve their professional skills. 80% of job-hunters want a “laptop and/or other technology”, enabling them to work almost anywhere. Compare this to only 28% who want “use of a company car” (*ibid.*, p.477). 77% of staff wanted learning and development opportunities (*ibid.*), especially staff in the early stages of their career (CIPD, 2011c). These figures demonstrate that practical rather than flashy perks are more effective motivators.

Communication

The significance of workplace communication should not be overlooked, since, “Effective and timely feedback can be motivational for morale and enhanced productivity” (Kock cited in Mujtaba and Shuaib, 2010). The more information exchanged between employees and managers, the less stress and burnout employees experience (*ibid.*). Staff must understand what they are being rewarded for, how and why (CIPD, 2011c); Total Reward cannot act as a motivator if employees do not understand it.

Organisational Culture

Do the rewards support the organisational culture? What signals does pay send out about the organisation? (*ibid.*). Non-financial rewards will especially motivate employees in industries not focused on profits, such as charities. Even financial, profit-driven organisations should consider offering Total Reward. The Royal Bank of Scotland launched RBSelect, offering flexible benefits to “strengthen its employer brand in order to attract and retain key staff” (Blackman cited in Silverman and Reilly, 2003).

Employee Performance

Performance measures success in financial and non-financial terms. “‘Bottom line’ measures, such as profits, indicate how well you’ve done in the past” (Acas, 2010), but financial figures are not updated often enough to constantly measure success, so other factors must be considered. Performance can be measured in “output (the end result)” and “input (behaviours)” (Acas, 2010; CIPD, 2011a). Employees should also contribute to the organisation’s non-financial goals (Acas, 2010). Outputs represented by monetary figures do not necessarily signify the effort an employee made; for example, customer service-oriented organisations should reward outstanding customer service even if it does not always result in a sale. 48% of employees want their performance reflected in their pay, so it cannot be neglected when considering reward packages (CIPD, 2010b).

Performance and Total Reward

Reward is already proven to affect staff performance (e.g. Sarin and Mahajan, 2001), and this section will further strengthen the link between performance and reward in a wider business context. The 4A Model of Capability outlines what makes employees capable of good performances:

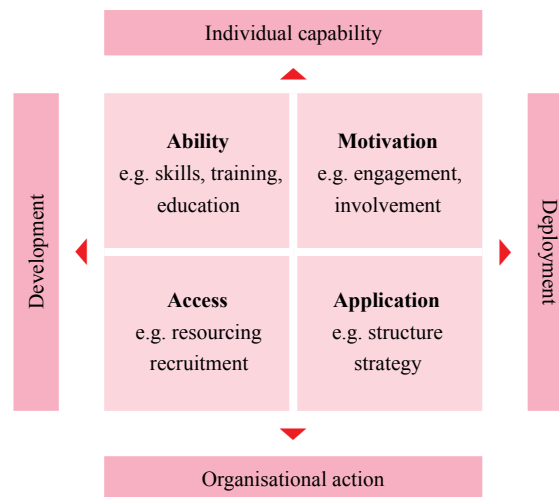


Figure 4: 4A Model of Capability (Tamkin, 2005).

Analysing the model shows that Total Reward should lead to more capable employees who can deliver better performances, bearing in mind that, “A reward program can either drive or diminish organizational performance, depending on how well it connects with and supports the business strategy” (Gross and Friedman, 2004).

Beginning with motivation, Total Reward packages should include involvement to improve performance because, “People put the greatest effort into performing well if they know and understand what is expected of them and have had an involvement in specifying those expectations” (Armstrong and Baron cited in Price, 2007 p.441). Regular feedback and communication, which was discussed in the Employee Motivation section, greatly affects performance (Acas, 2010). The next categories, ability and access, can be analysed jointly, as Total Reward packages may provide training and development schemes, but the employee must be able to take them up and utilise them. Finally in the application category are business strategy and goals, which employees must understand in order to perform well, as performance management involves, “helping everyone in the organisation to know what the business is trying to achieve” (*ibid.*).

The Future of Total Reward

An article in the *Harvard Business Review* criticises Total Reward as a passing fad, and highlights that Total Reward tends to be defined in buzzwords, that it is simple in concept but complex in execution, that it is implemented by “pulling levels, rearranging elements and selecting tools” and that it responds to employers’ interests in cost-cutting (Giancola, 2009). Giancola goes on to suggest that Total Reward’s popularity will decline. However, other findings disagree and instead point to the conclusion that Total Reward will become increasingly popular given the current economic climate. In particular, rewards will align more closely with business strategies, will be market competitive and will prioritise cost minimisation (CIPD, 2010c).

Tyson (2009) also forecasts cost minimisation in his model of Total Reward’s future, whereby base pay and incentive plans will increase, while other reward areas such as bonuses, benefits and perks will decrease. This makes sense in a recession because employees will be looking for secure salaries to meet their costs of living. Organisations can afford higher salaries if they minimise additional financial rewards like bonuses and perks. Improving non-financial Total Reward offerings also ensures cost minimisation. Furthermore, it aligns with the other top priorities; non-financial rewards can create competitive advantage and support the organisation’s strategy and goals.

A further issue is the probable rise in retirement age. The cost of public sector pensions has been deemed unsustainable. One suggestion Lord Hutton makes in his 2011 report is raising the retirement age to 66 to help ease the burden on taxpayers (BBC, 2011). He also suggests “employees should be involved more in decisions about how the schemes are run” (ibid.). Total Reward could be useful in solving the pension problem since involvement is in the model, but would also have wider benefits. With a rising retirement age, reward packages should improve the work-life balance. Grandparents who still have to work could have the choice to work from home, enabling them to spend time with their grandchildren and avoid travelling. Working from home to save travel expenses would benefit all workers in this economy; if organisations cannot cover travel expenses, then they could provide the Total Reward option to work from home. Private healthcare could be an increasingly popular perk since healthcare

costs are rising – prescription costs in the USA have increased 76% in the last decade (Andriotis, 2011).

Conclusion

In conclusion, individual elements of the Total Reward model have been shown to positively impact employee motivation and performance. Theories such as Herzberg’s two-factor theory and Tamkin’s 4A model provide support for Total Reward’s usefulness. Some may dismiss Total Reward as a ‘passing fad’, but evidence presented in this paper suggests that Total Reward deserves a place in this downturned economy, especially if the retirement age rises.

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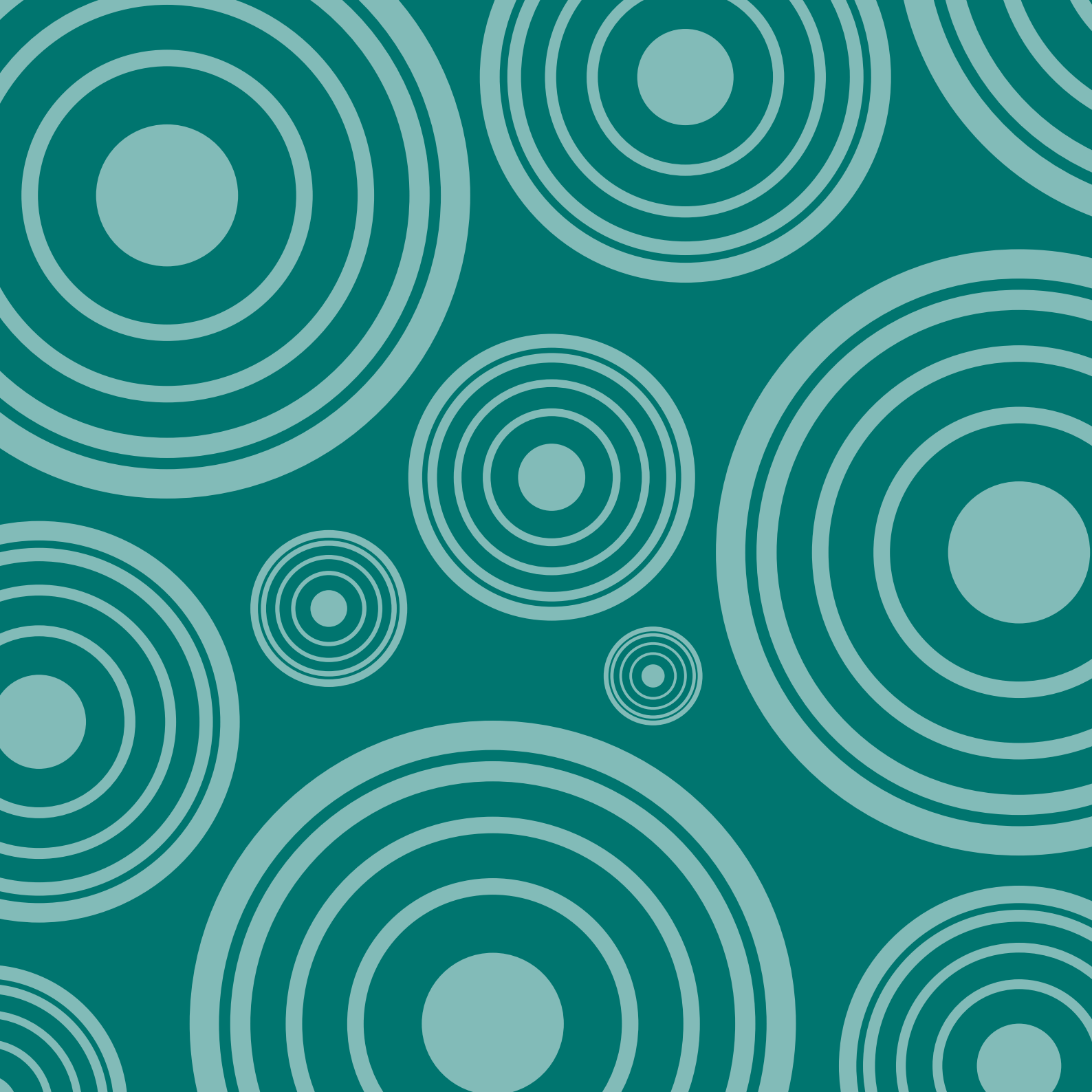
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Strategic Analysis of Nokia Corporation

Alex Marie

Introduction

This report analyses the strategic environment affecting Nokia in the past five years. It utilises PESTEL and Porter's five forces as analytic tools to examine the external and internal factors influencing Nokia's strategy. It looks at the core competences, culture and possible future directions for the firm. It concludes that Nokia has a strategy to grow through acquisitions and mergers, and also to develop internally through employee development programs and research and design (R&D) investment.

The strategy of any business will involve the contribution and commitment of everyone working towards the long term goals and targets of the firm. According to Johnson, Scholes and Whittington (2008 p.3) strategy is the "direction and scope of an organisation over the long term, which achieves an advantage in a changing environment through its configuration of resources and competences with the aim of fulfilling stakeholder expectations". This involves the strategic planning of resources (capital, people, materials etc.) to utilize them in the most effective way to create a firm that is constantly developing, adapting to the environment, and staying ahead of competitors. It is important that these strategies are carefully planned out because the decisions made in the present will affect future performance and profitability.

Nokia plc is a large multinational corporation providing connectivity for people and business on a global scale with approximately 1.3 billion people communicating with a Nokia device (Nokia Corporation, 2011). The three organisations, Nokia Ab, Finnish Cable Works, and Finnish Rubber Works officially merged in 1967 to create the Nokia Corporation, and Nokia set about building a globally recognisable brand. They are now a leading provider of "mobile devices, telecoms equipment and mobile content services" (Datamonitor, 2010 p.4) with an

estimated market share of 32% in 2010 (Nokia Corporation, 2011 p.76). With many strong competitors in the field of mobile devices such as smart phones, Nokia has had to make many rapid strategic decisions to ensure the growth of the firm.

Strategic environment – PESTLE analysis

There are many external factors that will cause a business to change their intended strategy. The following PESTEL analysis will look at these and evaluate how they may have impacted upon Nokia's strategy over the past five years. Political and legal, and economy and environment will be combined, as these categories are linked. Social factors will not be discussed here because the author believes there have not been any major social issues that have impacted Nokia's strategy.

Political and legal factors

During 2009 Nokia filed on a legal complaint against Apple that could result in Nokia receiving a cut of every iPhone sold. The complaint was to the Federal district court in Delaware "alleging that Apple had infringed 10 of its patents related to the GSM, UMTS – or 3G – and wireless local area network standards used in Europe" (Fildes, 2009). Additionally Harvey (2009) states that in December Nokia filed another complaint to the US International Trade Commission "alleging Apple's iPhone, iPods and computers all violate Nokia's Intellectual property rights". The strategic benefits of winning this case would be twofold for Nokia; first they will get a small cut of all iPhones sold which according to lawyers "could be worth hundreds of millions of dollars" (Fildes, 2009). Second, the intellectual property rights involve reducing the size of mobile devices, thereby decreasing their costs. Therefore if Apple loses they will have to develop their own methods, as well as having a slightly tighter cash flow, combined with the increased costs.

Government regulation in America may be a contributing factor as to why Nokia has a strategy that is primarily based on increasing market share in Europe and developing countries. The 2006 Nokia annual report states that, “Our products are subject to government regulations that have a direct and substantial impact on our business” (Nokia Corporation, 2006 p.40). These regulations involve meeting radio frequency emissions; if these levels are different in other countries it is necessary for Nokia to adapt their products to suit this market, consequently making them adapt more to a foreign market compared to Apple who designs its devices in the US.

Macro economic and environmental factors

There is no doubt that the recession was widely felt throughout the global economy. In 2009 the mobile handset market was down in volume by an estimated 4% and a further 12% in value (Bernstein Research, 2009 p.59) however this has not hampered Nokia’s strategy, as the “company’s high-end product portfolio is weak compared to its competitors” (Datamonitor, 2010 p.6), but its mid-range products are strong. This meant that people with less disposable income could use Nokia for good quality cheaper phones. Furthermore, as Bernstein Research (2009 p.108) explains, “The profitability premium that it continues to enjoy as a result of its scale means that it will likely be the only player in 2009”. This has meant Nokia can keep the strategy of investing into R&D and progress its technology further.

Notwithstanding this, the performance of the key competitors was stronger than most predicted. For example Datamonitor (2010 p.6) states that “RIM’s market share grew from 16.6% in 2008 to 20% in 2009 and Apple’s market share reached 14% from 8% in 2008”. Additionally mobile phones have a fairly low economic vulnerability score, meaning that consumers are likely to purchase them in preference to other goods, even though they are more expensive. The recent disaster in Japan has also impacted Nokia, as it sources resin that glues integrated chip circuits together from Mitsubishi Gas Chemical who were affected by the disaster (Fortson and Dey, 2011).

Technology factors

Technological advancement has always been an important aspect of strategy in the mobile device industry. As Dan Skiles (2010)

explains, “Whatever you do today with mobile technology, it will likely change significantly in the near future”. It is therefore paramount that you are always moving forward to remain competitive. Despite Nokia’s recent drop in market share which was down 5% from 2008 to 2009 (DataMonitor, 2010) over the years they have still taken strategic steps to ensure future growth and adapt to change.

Nokia developed their own Bluetooth technology, Wibree, in 2006, and released its own smart phones (Nseries) using Symbian, the most popular operating system (Gartner, nd). A more recent version of Symbian OS was used for Nokia’s 2010 smart phones because it offers an “operating system that is designed to offer an improved user experience, a higher standard of quality and competitive value to consumers” (Nokia Corporation, 2011 p.45), showing it may be a case of reputation rather than functionality on the new phones.

Nokia responded to Apples iTunes in 2007 by releasing Ovi, the internet service brand. This enables users to “easily access their existing social network, communities and content, as well as gain access to services from Nokia and other service providers through a single access point” (Nokia Corporation, 2007). Through research the author believes that this is more advanced than Apple’s services and more people are starting to agree. For example Vice-President of Nokia, Tero Ojanper stated in an interview some impressive figures, “Downloads of apps on the Ovi Store are growing 70% per month, and every registered Ovi user has downloaded eight apps on average. In terms of downloads, Ovi is the No. 2 app store” (BusinessWeek, 2009). This is likely to be down to the fact that users of Ovi are able to customise their view and experience and use it to store photos and videos online (Nokia Corporation, 2007). Technology is always changing in this sector and those organisations that have the competences to remain flexible, adapt and rapidly improve are those that succeed. However, in terms of smart phones Nokia’s momentum has stalled. According to Boston based tech consultants Strategy Analytics, its share of the global smart phone segment has dropped from 49% in 2007 to 37% in the first quarter of 2009 (Smith and Singh, 2009).

Competitive analysis – Porter’s Five Forces

The proceeding section focuses on analysing the competitive forces

that have exerted pressure on Nokia's strategy. In this section Porter's five forces model will be used as it "provides a powerful instrument for thoroughly analyzing environmental forces and market structures in an industry" (Niederhut and Theuvsen, 2008 p.2). Figure 1 is Porter's model which shows the five forces that will have an impact upon an organisation.

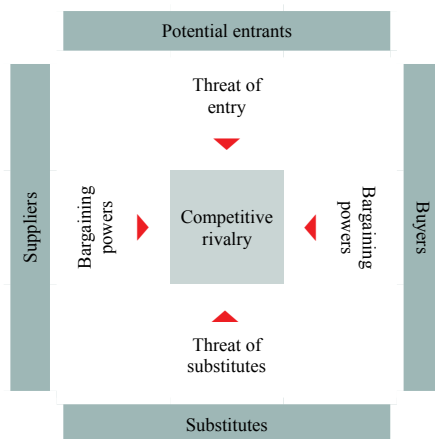


Figure 1: (Johnson, Scholes and Whittington 2008, p.60)

One issue with this model is that it assumes different organisations and industries will be equally affected by these forces. This certainly is not the case, with a homogenous market the threat of substitutes will be far greater compared to a market that is highly differentiated. Nokia for example is the largest competitor and is highly differentiated hence the force of suppliers' bargaining power is quite low because they benefit from economies of scale and the threat of substitutes is also low. However, for the telecoms industry, competitive rivalry is the strongest force. Despite this it is still a useful tool to analyse the forces that have an impact on Nokia.

Competitive rivalry

Competitive rivalry in the telecoms industry has rapidly intensified over the last five years with the introduction of several different smart phones all boasting new and innovative features. Additionally, in recent years companies from Asia have taken on an aggressive pricing strategy to gain market share at the sacrifice

of margins. Motorola and Sony Ericsson are taking the most aggressive pricing strategy whereas Nokia still has the highest operating margin despite it slightly lowering its prices in late 2008.

In spite of this Nokia has always had the strategy to provide a large product portfolio to consumers. For example they have the Nokia 2330 Classic for £45 to the Nokia E7-00 for £499 (Nokia, nd). The 2330 Classic is a 'no-frills' phone that has basic services such as texting and phoning, while the E7-00 has the latest technology including an 8mp camera, HD video and satellite navigation. The reason this puts Nokia in a strong competitive position is because as Kallasvuo argues, "The fact that we are commercial in all price points will give us the possibility, if the trade down happens, to sell another device, which is not always the case with competitors who have a more limited portfolio" (Kallasvuo cited in Parker, 2009). The new high end competitors in the market have been "target[ing] aggressively at the youth audience" (Campaign UK, 2006). As a result Nokia wanted to re-engage this target audience and did so by partnering with Live Nation who is one of the world's major music promoters. Nokia took on a strong marketing strategy to increase awareness by placing ads in high-coverage events and music listings, posters in bars and advert promotions on the radio and online lasting 12 months (*ibid.*). This campaign attracted 30,000 subscribers in the first 5 months after launch.

Potential entrants

As the mobile device industry is an oligopoly there are higher barriers to entry which "are good for incumbents (existing competitors), because they protect them from new competitors coming in" (Johnson et al., 2008 p.61). In the current telecoms industry it is very unlikely that any new organisations will be able to enter the market and grow into a fierce competitor. However, in the past new smart phones entered the market from global corporations that decided to diversify their product portfolios, for example Apple's iPhone in 2007. Unfortunately to begin with Nokia dismissed the iPhone (BusinessWeek, 2009), but once Nokia realised that the new entrants presented "tough competition" (Richards, 2007) it announced that a new touch screen device would be released the following year. Although the threat of new entrants is low because of high barriers to entry the author believes that Nokia will not be so quick to shrug off any new competition.

Customers and their bargaining power

According to Niederhut and Theuvsen (2008 p.3) the bargaining power of a customer is when they “can easily and cheaply switch to other suppliers or substitutes”. This also involves the customers’ ability to change the price of products offered. This is not relevant for the mobile industry as the prices are relatively fixed, if for example you are purchasing a phone on contract you simply pay a particular amount of money for the amount of texts, minutes or internet access you want and this increases the more you want. The ability to change to an alternative is very simple for customers to do. If they cannot get a particular service from one provider they can simply go to a competitor who will provide this service. Unfortunately there is only one thing manufacturers can do in this instance; offer the customer more at a higher quality without a large increase in price.

Suppliers’ bargaining power

Nokia is the largest competitor in its industry and benefits from economies of scale, therefore marginal costs are reduced. Andrew Parker (2009) claims that, “In handset-making, economies of scale are crucial and Nokia has them”. As a result, “Nokia has been able to work out how to make a margin from selling handsets at £20 apiece” (Rushe and Ashton, 2009) showing that Nokia may have more power over the suppliers as they will be such a valuable customer.

Nokia’s Strategy

Core competences

The core competences of an organisation are essential to competitive success as Grant (cited in Gimzauskiene and Staliuniene, 2010 p.1) argues, “The resources and capabilities of the organisation, not the competitive position in the market, play a key role in the development of competitive advantage” and the core competences can be “tangible, intangible and human”.

Nokia’s strategy over the years has been to grow, innovate and develop via a high degree of R&D proficiency and technological advancement, which provides them with new patents that gives them a competitive advantage. They also have a large product portfolio, and retain high brand awareness, including in developing countries. They also invest in developing their employees. Nokia has always been an advocate for action learning and even recently

they have “wanted to combine leadership development with strategy implementation when grooming their key middle and senior managers” (Ropponen, 2008 p.1). They have made a series of strategic mergers and acquisitions that have enabled Nokia to remain the largest market share owner, for example the merger with Siemens in 2006, the acquisition of Symbian Ltd in 2008, and Motorola in 2010. They also formed an alliance with Yahoo in 2010 to make them their exclusive provider of maps and navigation tools. Beise and Stahl (cited in Zikos, 2010) explain that “Firms participating in collaboration agreements innovate more frequently than others and discover more original innovations” which Nokia has evidently done to great effect over the years.

Strategic culture

The culture of an institution is described by Bloomfield and Nossal (2007 p.4) as, “The habits of ideas, attitudes, and norms toward strategic issues, and patterns of strategic behaviour, which are relatively stable over time”. The strategic culture in Nokia is geared towards innovation, the development of technology, services and ultimately the organisation itself. Demonstrated in their corporate philosophy are, “Customer satisfaction, respect for the individual, achievement and continuous learning” (Fitzgerald, 2001 p.3). Employees are encouraged to learn and suggest ideas, and this attitude has been with the company since its early beginnings. As a result “Nokia corporate culture is one of the company’s strategic and competitive advantages” (ibid., p.3).

Although Nokia has a competitive strategic culture, this would not have been easy to maintain when they acquired and merged with multiple firms. These firms would have had different cultures that would have had to adapt to Nokia in order to realise the benefit of combined competences; this may be why they kept some acquisitions as a strategic business unit. For example Navteq is a “wholly-owned subsidiary of Nokia” (Nokia, nd, p.28).

Conclusion

Over the past five years Nokia has taken a fairly aggressive growth strategy in that it has merged with and acquired companies that will strengthen its core competences, giving it the ability to change their intended strategy quickly. The ever-changing external environment means they always need to be aware of technological advancements and new competitors.

Although Nokia's market share reduction and weak smart phone portfolio has been widely documented, the author believes that this in some instances is more a case of reputation instead of phone capabilities. Notwithstanding this, the future is likely to bring better fortune to the company with a new CEO combined with a new strategy for 2011 which includes, "changes to [their] leadership team and operational structure designed to accelerate [their] speed of execution in an intensely competitive mobile products market" (Nokia Corporation, 2011 p.43). Richard Edgar (2011) states that "they have now got clarity with their new strategy and they know the direction they're going to take".

The pending merger between Microsoft and Nokia will, according to the current CEO give Nokia a "better chance against Apple and Google" (Ward and Parker, 2011) thus improving their operating system which in turn will improve their ability to compete in the smart phone market. Finally, from the secondary research compiled the author believes that the decrease in market share will soon stop and Nokia will once again be the market leader in connecting people with every product in their portfolio.

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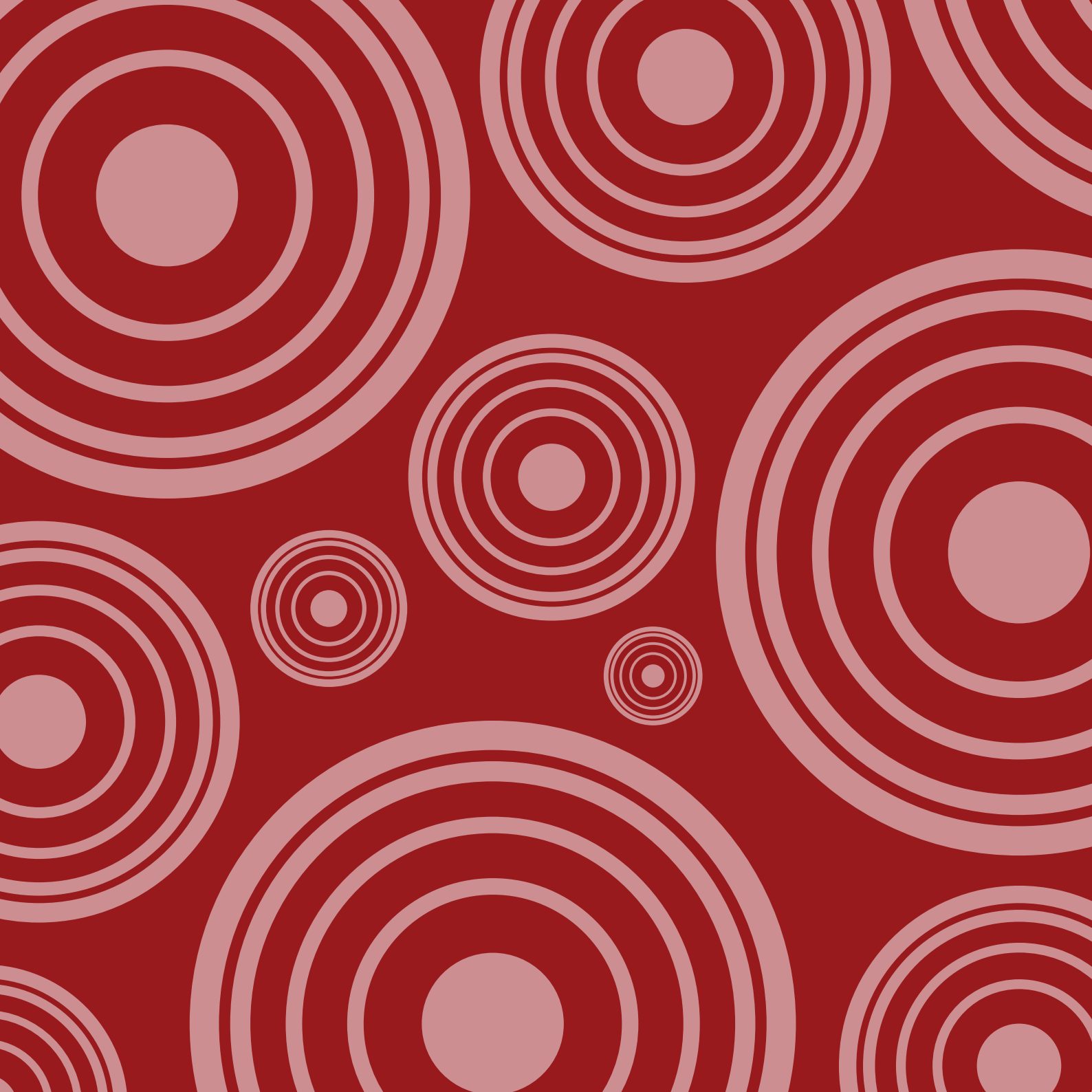
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A Critical Discussion of the Human Rights Act in the UK

Ben Burden

Despite taking 50 years to incorporate the European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR), the Human Rights Act (HRA) 1998 has been a welcome addition to UK law, providing greater protection than previously recognised. Although it did not get off to the best of starts it has proved that the fears and controversy of the Act were unfounded. This paper therefore discusses the effectiveness of the law before the HRA, and then discuss the controversy of the HRA and whether this was unfounded. In addition, it shall consider whether the HRA has provided greater protection of human rights in the UK or whether in some circumstances it goes too far in its protection. Prior to 2000, the UK had residual rights, in that everyone had the right to do what was not prohibited by law¹. For some this was deemed to be a good thing.² However the flaw with this was that these residual rights meant that they had no higher status than that of other rights and liberties³. Whilst someone had a residual right to do something not prohibited by law, so might a public authority. With claims of this type, the court often sought to look for a limitation in law upon the challenged action and if there was none, then the action was lawful⁴. For example, in *Malone v Metropolitan Police Commissioner*⁵, there was no remedy as there was no breach of civil law by the police's action.⁶ It could be said therefore that the law did not adequately protect the individual against arbitrary interference by public authorities.

This created a hole in Dicey's theory of the rule of law, in that the police broke no law so could not be punished, and even if the police were punished, then the courts would be breaking one of the fundamental issues of the rule of law; namely that no one shall be punishable for an action that did not constitute an offence at law.⁷ Pre-HRA, the Judiciary (through Judicial Review, Common Law and Statutory interpretation) and legislature (through legislation) have been the main driving forces in protecting human rights.

In developing the common law the courts afforded protection of the rights of individuals through actions such as the law of trespass, as shown in *Entick v Carrington*⁸, by protecting the claimant from arbitrary state interference and also through the development of the protection of free speech in defamation cases such as *Reynolds v Times Newspaper*⁹ and *Derbyshire CC v Times Newspapers*¹⁰. In addition, in using the mechanism of statutory interpretation, the courts, whilst although under no duty to apply the convention provisions directly, attempted to do so on several occasions such as *Chester v Bateson*¹¹ and *Lam Chi Ming v R*¹².

With regard to Judicial Review, although the courts denied taking into account the ECHR when making decisions under this heading, it appeared that the courts were trying to incorporate human rights "through the back door"¹³, applying the ECHR to decisions whilst denying it at the same time¹⁴. But in developing the common law, the courts have also had the opposite effect of eroding civil liberties such as the erosion of free speech in favour of the interests of national security.¹⁵

It must be remembered that the courts' power to uphold rights and liberties was overshadowed and limited by Parliament under the doctrine of Parliamentary sovereignty and separation of powers. At any instance the legislature could legislate the right out of existence. Although the courts were effective in some aspects, they did not provide the essential protection that the public needed, and often had too many constraints and holes in their application that often left the individual without a remedy.

For Parliament's part, whilst they did provide protection of rights under certain legislation such as discrimination laws, it also had its limitations. Parliament would attempt to restrict fundamental human rights through statutory provisions, sometimes

inadvertently caused through fear¹⁶, such as s2 of the Official Secrets Act 1911 and the Anti Terrorism, Crime and Security Act 2001. In addition, this was subject to change as the rule of Parliamentary sovereignty meant that no previous Parliament could bind its successors, allowing an element of abuse by Parliament to do whatever it wanted¹⁷ and therefore was not bound to comply with the ECHR.

The combination of these two systems therefore left gaps in the law, meaning that some rights were unprotected. Thus although the courts recognised the rights of property and freedom of the person, neither legislation nor the common law recognised a direct right to privacy or private life¹⁸. This then meant that in some cases the only way that an individual could enforce his rights was to go and directly petition his claim to the European Court of Human Rights (ECtHR), which was time consuming and expensive¹⁹. In addition, other than the courts' power to interpret statutes and the common law during litigation, there existed no procedure to challenge the legality and compatibility of legislative provisions.²⁰

Before the enactment of the HRA, much discussion took place regarding the reform of the traditional method of rights protection.²¹ The main concern was that whilst a bill of rights would be more definitive and cover gaps in the law, it found that the existing mechanisms were satisfactory, that a formal bill of rights would detract from Parliamentary sovereignty²² and would give too much power to unelected judges²³. People such as Ewing being concerned about the perils of giving an excess of political power to an unelected judiciary which could lead to a politicization of the judiciary.²⁴

After an excessive amount of judgements against the UK by the ECtHR, there became an ever increasing need to implement a bill of rights to incorporate the convention into UK²⁵ law, which came in the form of a bill proposed by the new Labour Government in 1997²⁶. However, the above fears with regard to the increased power given to the judiciary were carried with the bill when it went through Parliament, but there were recommendations proposed in the Government's White Paper to prevent this through a declaration of incompatibility²⁷. Therefore, this element was of essential importance in the making of a bill of rights.

The HRA subsequently became law and gave further effect to the convention in three ways, which it is submitted was more beneficial to the UK. First, it allowed individuals to bring a claim under the convention in domestic courts, against a public authority, thus saving time and expense in taking a claim to Strasbourg²⁸. However, from a study of the impact of human rights made in 2007, it has become clear that this objective has not been fully satisfied. Although it is cheaper and quicker to bring a claim under the HRA, this has not stopped the number of claims being taken to Strasbourg from increasing over the years²⁹. So whilst it is better than before, it does not appear to have worked in practice.

Secondly, it was stated that the HRA would contribute to the development of human rights in Europe³⁰ and it has influenced the way in which the ECtHR approaches English cases³¹. Thirdly, it imposes an obligation on the courts to interpret legislation, so far as possible, in a way which is compatible with the convention rights³². It is with this that concerns have arisen in that, by giving an excess of political power to an unelected judiciary, it may mean that the judiciary is being politicised, as some commentators feared³³. However, this view has not been accepted as English courts have been reviewing controversial issues before the implementation of the HRA³⁴ such as to whether a life support machine should be turned off^{35,36}. It is submitted that the HRA has only ushered in a more intense degree of judicial scrutiny of executive and Parliamentary actions³⁷, as has been the will of Parliament for the courts to do so³⁸. Recent decisions that have been concerning the courts are with regard to Control Orders³⁹. Lord Phillips appeared on a recent documentary⁴⁰, which showed that on occasions through the implementation of the HRA, the judiciary has defeated the executive in order to protect an individual's liberty with regard to control orders. Lord Phillips said that, "Parliament told us to deal with Human Rights issues and that is what we are applying the law to"⁴¹. In the same program, Lord Kerr also commented that "the executive cannot have access to unlimited power to interfere with Human Rights"⁴². So the courts are performing a legitimate action on the executive, as there is closer scrutiny on Parliament and the executive, which is beneficial in protecting the public from the infringements on an individual's human rights that frequently occur. It must be noted that the interpretive obligation goes further than before, as before the HRA, the courts only had to interpret legislation in a way compatible

with the convention if it was ambiguous⁴³, whereas now this obligation is explicit with all legislation. A good illustration of s3 is *R v A*⁴⁴, where the court interpreted the words of the act⁴⁵, in permitting the alleged rape victim to be cross examined about her sexual history, in order to ensure a fair trial. However, this has been viewed as the most extreme application of Section 3⁴⁶ and in my view, this case actually goes too far as it errs on the cusp of becoming judicial legislation.

Finally, the courts can now expressly take account of Strasbourg jurisprudence⁴⁷. This has allowed the courts to expand areas using the HRA to create, for example, a breach of privacy⁴⁸ after consideration of such Strasbourg jurisprudence as the case of *Von Hannover v Germany*⁴⁹. Again this is a lot more beneficial than before in that it gives a way of filling in the gaps which would have been left under the old traditional method of protecting rights. In addition, the law on judicial review has been amended in light of the decision of *Daly*⁵⁰, to include review on the grounds of proportionality and necessity.⁵¹

As stated above, one of the controversies surrounding the HRA was that Parliamentary sovereignty would be breached, which it is submitted has not taken place. Through careful drafting, Parliament has ensured its protection of Parliamentary sovereignty through mechanisms under the HRA, such as s4 of the HRA. S4 HRA gives the court the power to issue a declaration of incompatibility⁵², where it is impossible to give effect to the convention through statutory interpretation under S3 HRA⁵³. This is effective in that it essentially puts Parliament on notice that part of an act needs to be repealed or amended as even if legislation is declared to be incompatible, legislation will still remain valid⁵⁴ as there is no obligation on Parliament to amend the offending legislation⁵⁵. In fact there have been very few declarations of incompatibility, showing the courts' reluctance to interfere with Parliament⁵⁶. An example of this is the case of *Bellinger v Bellinger*⁵⁷, which concerned a transsexual, who wanted her marriage to be recognised as valid under Matrimonial Causes Act 1973 s 11(c), which only included males and females. This was seen by the courts as being incompatible with the convention, so the courts made a declaration of incompatibility⁵⁸. However, this can be contrasted with *Ghaidan v Medoza*⁵⁹ where the House of Lords did construe the words "living as man and wife" in the Rent Act 1977

to mean as if they were living as man and wife. This shows that, if the courts want they can stretch the application of s3 HRA so thinly as to effectively get around the protection afforded to Parliament by s4 HRA 1998. It was clearly not Parliament's intention that the words were required, so in this aspect it can mean that s4 will sometimes fail in its protection of Parliamentary sovereignty. Once a declaration of incompatibility is made, then this then allows Parliament to amend legislation through the fast track procedure under s10 HRA. In this way, s.4 is clearly necessary for the protection⁶⁰ and necessary recognition of Parliamentary supremacy⁶¹ and is effective in procuring the appropriate balance needed to guard Parliament's sovereignty⁶².

In conclusion, the Human Rights Act has given greater protection in English law of the rights and liberties of individuals than previous legislation, filling in the gaps in the law which left some rights unprotected. This is despite criticism by the media who, in most cases, misconstrue its application to cases. In particular, the judiciary have welcomed the HRA and it appears that they are using the Human Rights Act to its fullest potential, matching up to the demands placed on them by the Act⁶³. As for the controversies, the majority of comments made regarding the concern that Parliamentary sovereignty and a politicised judiciary are largely unfounded, through the skill of the drafters of the act, although it is submitted that in some cases, S3 gives the judiciary too much power in enabling it to create judicial legislation which S4 lacks. However, Jack Straw has said that this was only the starting point⁶⁴, so an extension of the Human Rights Act may come into effect in the near future.⁶⁵

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56 Joint Committee on Human Rights – 16th report (session 2006 – 2007) at Chapter 4 www.publications.parliament.uk/pa/jt200607/jtselect/jtrights/128/12807.htm [Accessed 27th January 2011]

57 Bellinger v Bellinger [2003] UKHL 21.

58 Goodwin v United Kingdom [2002] I.R.L.R. 664,

59 Ghaidan v Godin-Mendoza [2004] UKHL 30.

60 Wadham, *Op. cit.*, p.8.

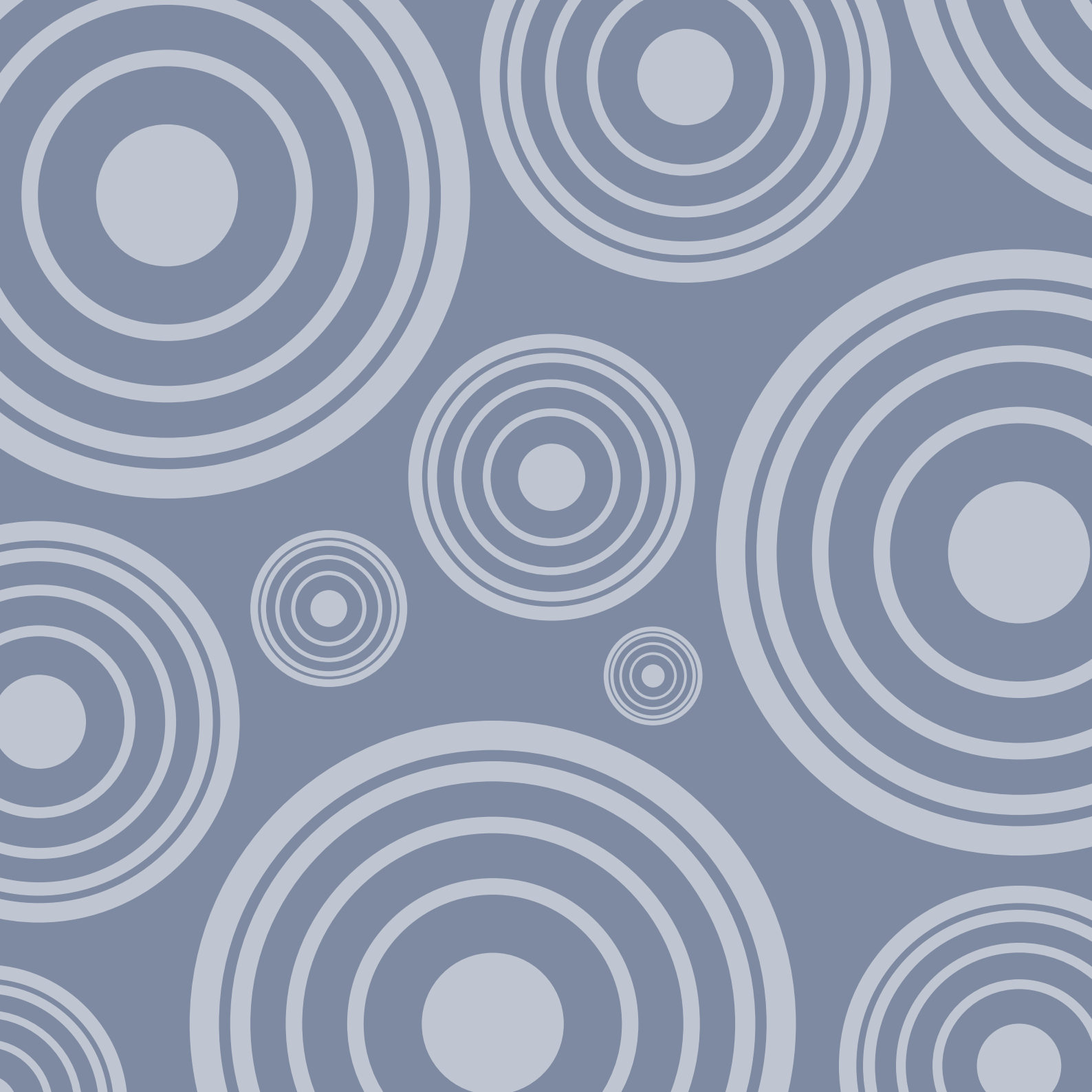
61 Lord Irvine, *Op. cit.*, p.320.

62 Wadham, *Op. cit.*, p.8.

63 Lord Irvine, *Op. cit.*, p.311.

64 The Right Honourable Jack Straw MP, The Human Rights Inquiry Launch (15th June 2009) <http://www.justice.gov.uk/news/sp150609a.htm>.

65 Joint Committee on Human Rights (Joint Committee on Human Rights, A bill of rights for the UK? 29th report of session 2007 – 2008 HC 150/ HL 165 www.publications.parliament.uk/pa/jt200708/jtselect/jtrights/165/165i.pdf [Accessed 25th January 2010].



What makes ADHD a Complex Developmental Disorder?

Ryan Hale

Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) is considered to be one of the most common neurobehavioral conditions diagnosed in early childhood (Furman, 2005). In support of this claim, Barkley (2000) argues that in an average classroom of 30 children, between one and three children will have the condition, and on average 3% of the whole population of the UK suffer from it. ADHD can be defined as a “childhood disorder characterised either by an inability to concentrate on tasks, or hyperactive and impulsive behaviour, or both of these together” (Cardwell, 2003).

The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 4th ed. (DSM-IV) contains criteria for the diagnosis of ADHD. It states that there are three general subtypes of the condition: Type 1 ADHD sufferers have difficulty in maintaining attention to tasks, Type 2 ADHD sufferers have hyperactive and impulsive traits which can lead to problems with planning, Type 3 ADHD sufferers have a combination of both Type 1 and Type 2 ADHD characteristics. The diagnostic criteria outlined in the DSM-IV states that an individual must have at least six of the nine accepted symptoms of either Type 1 or Type 2 ADHD for a diagnosis. To qualify for Type 3 ADHD, individuals must have six of the nine symptoms in both Type 1 and Type 2 ADHD. All six of the nine symptoms must have been present in the child for at least six months before seven years of age and in all aspects of their lives for a diagnosis of ADHD to be made (Orford, 1998). Such symptoms can include carelessness, difficulty in adhering to instructions, avoidant behaviour and talking excessively (*ibid.*). The National Institute of Mental Health (2009) highlights that aspects such as difficulty in staying focused and maintaining attention, difficulty in controlling behaviour and excessive amounts of hyperactivity are key symptoms in the diagnosis of ADHD.

Whilst the history of ADHD is unclear, it is believed that the condition was first studied in a scientific context by Still in 1902.

Still (cited in O’Brien 2006) studied children with, “Significant behavioural problems that could not be explained by their upbringing”. These early foundations of the disorder would set a benchmark for future researchers to investigate the phenomena of ADHD. Whilst more in-depth knowledge has been acquired about ADHD since it was first studied in 1902, no concrete explanation has yet been given to explain the causes of ADHD. Some theories suggest that ADHD’s root cause is a neurological dysfunction (Dunn *et al.*, 2003; Plude, 1996), others stress the importance of social factors in the causes of ADHD (Mick *et al.*, 2002; Timimi, 2004).

Without the source of ADHD being known, the recognition of its premature signs is complex. It can make it hard for practitioners to distinguish between early symptoms of ADHD and identifying children most at danger of acquiring the condition. In fact, some researchers have shunned the idea of ADHD ever being identified (Furman, 2008). Furman (*ibid.*) argues that “ADHD is always unlikely to exist as an identifiable disorder. Inattention, hyperactivity and impulsivity are symptoms of many underlying treatable medical conditions”. The symptoms used in the diagnosis of ADHD are also symptoms in conditions such as Obsessive Compulsive Disorder (OCD) (*ibid.*) showing complexity because not all symptoms of ADHD are unique to the condition. Orford (1998) argues that as well as the overlap of certain medical conditions, it can be the social situation which can affect the behaviour of the child which could possibly be mistaken for ADHD. Orford (*ibid.*) argues that “children who are insecure and have anxiety about family problems (divorce, for example) may find prolonged concentration difficult, as their minds are distracted by these problems and not on their school-work”. Acosta, Arcos-Burgos and Muenke (2004) support the claim of Orford by suggesting that “ADHD is complex because there is no clear-cut

distinction between the affected and the unaffected”. So, with the number of factors which can confound a valid diagnosis of ADHD, the complexity of ADHD can be considered very high.

As well as specific symptoms of ADHD being shared with other conditions, ADHD as a whole can exist at the same time along with other conditions (Austin *et al.*, 2007; Furman, 2008). This is referred to as comorbidity. Research by Austin *et al.* (2007) has reported the probability of comorbidity with ADHD sufferers is between 60% and 80%. They also report that it is highly probable for mood and anxiety disorders to be present alongside ADHD. When other specific comorbid conditions exist with the onset of ADHD, it can make it complex to come to a valid diagnosis of the condition, as it makes it more difficult to identify the unique symptoms which ADHD incurs.

As well as the causes of ADHD being unknown, the treatment of ADHD is also unknown. Modern treatment is given to control ADHD and not cure the sufferer completely from the condition. It is widely disputed which treatment is the most effective (Cardwell, 2003). Some theories suggest that medication is the best solution to maintain ADHD. The most common drug used is methylphenidate, more commonly known as Ritalin. This is a psychostimulant drug which aims to increase attentiveness, and reduce hyperactivity and impulsiveness (Likierman and Muter, 2010). Whilst this tends to be the most popular treatment of ADHD, it is not without its criticism. Likierman and Muter (*ibid.*) argue that “Ritalin is classified as a Class A drug and professionals are worried about the effects it has on the child’s cardiovascular and nervous systems as well as other side effects including insomnia and aggression”. Other theories suggest that behavioural therapies should be favoured over medicinal approaches (Flora, 2007; Rabiner, 2009). Rabiner (*ibid.*) rejects the notion of medication being used to control a child’s ADHD and argues in favour of behavioural therapy, arguing that “medication is no solution to ADHD and should not be used on some children”. Rabiner (*ibid.*) instead suggests that “children will behave appropriately to avoid negative consequences that follow inappropriate behaviour, in which behavioural therapy will provide”. The goal of behavioural therapy is to increase the frequency of positive behaviour by increasing the child’s interest to please parents by providing positive consequences when the child behaves (*ibid.*). However, critics of this approach argue that such

strategies can be “mechanical”, “sterile” and “impersonal” (Bassett, 2009). So, due to the diverse amount of approaches in treating ADHD, the amount of criticism against them and the lack of an effective cure, ADHD can be considered a complex disorder.

On the surface, ADHD is slowly embedding itself in modern-day culture, with parents potentially using the condition as an excuse for their child’s misbehaviour. Children will sometimes use their label of an ADHD sufferer when things go wrong in their lives (Orford, 1998). With the diagnosis of ADHD being so complex, misdiagnosis of the condition is common (Furman, 2005). However, when probing deeper into the phenomena of ADHD, more complex issues begin to arise. Little is known about the causes and treatment of ADHD and due to difficulty in researching, diagnosing and treating the condition, ADHD can be considered a complex developmental disorder. As ADHD occurs so commonly in children in today’s society, priority should be given to finding its causes and a treatment which can cure the condition completely.

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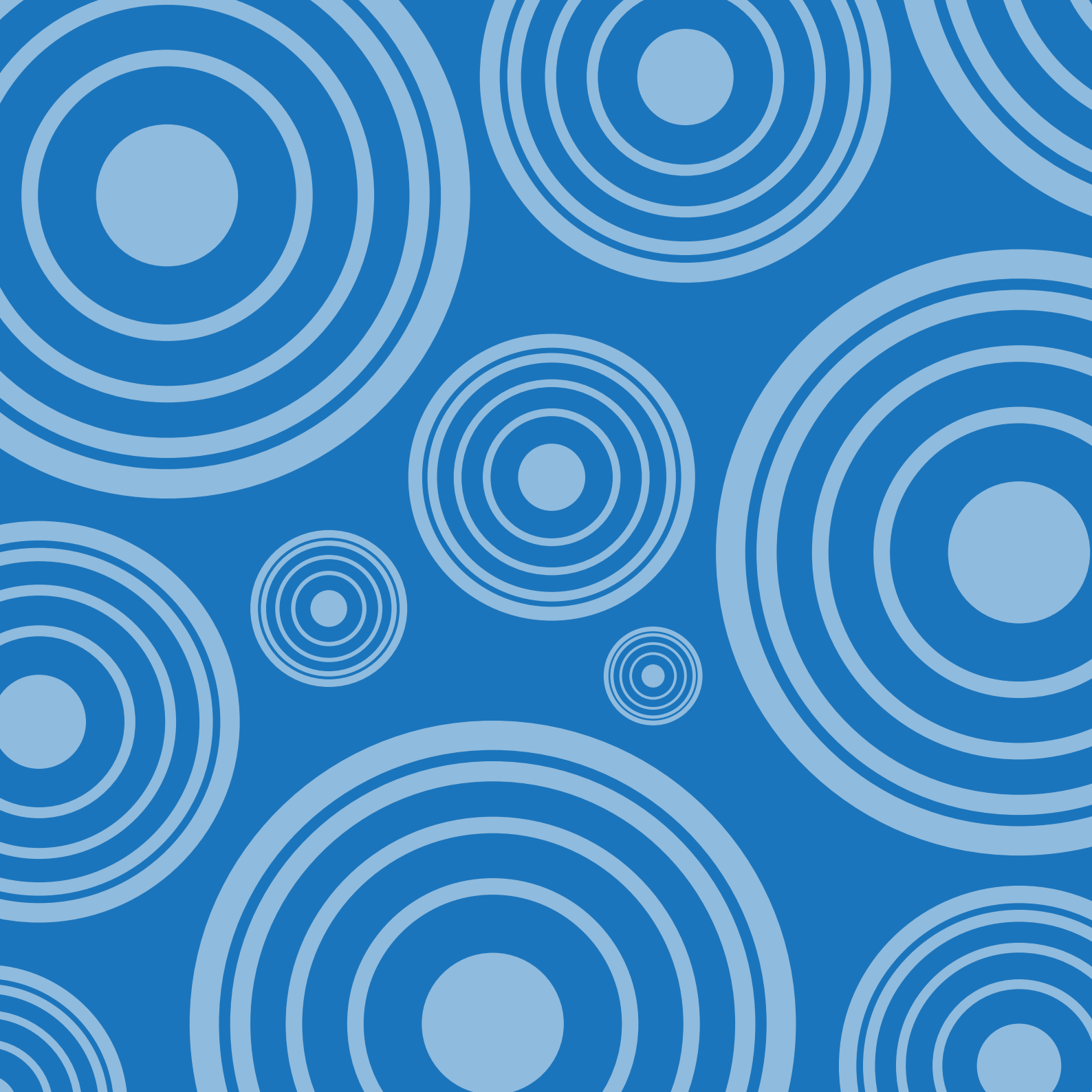
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Thinking Outside the Box: Insight and the nine-dot problem

Natasha Pitre

Introduction

The Gestalt school of psychologists began to intensively study ‘simple’ problem solving from the 1910s, after observing that the solution often appears to come from a sudden conceptual restructuring or re-representation of a problem (Green and Gilhooly, 2005). Gestalt tradition emphasised the role of insight in modern cognitive science’s notion of problem solving, and views the mechanism as a step function, phenomenologically leading to an ‘aha’ experience, rather than a steady incremental approach to a goal (Chronicle *et al.*, 2001). Insight is the sudden ability to see the solution to a problem without going through any obvious transitional steps (Parkin, 2005). Sometimes insight is not achieved in the initial representation of the problem, and this leads to an impasse where progress halts. In order to break this mental block the representation of the problem must be restructured to allow a new direction to the search (Gilhooly and Murphy, 2005).

The nine-dot problem provides a prevailing demonstration of human failure to solve what appears to be a straightforward spatial problem with a simple task description that requires no background knowledge. The task is to join all the dots in the diagram with just four straight lines. The problem, although appearing simple, has very low solution rates, ranging from 0 - 9.4% (Chronicle *et al.*, 2001). Chronicle *et al.* (2001) explain that the difficulty in solving the problem is governed by the Gestalt Law of Pragnanz, which are schemas that supposedly organise perceptual information. Perception of the ‘dots’ mentally represents them as a square, and participants are thus unable to find the solution as they fixate upon the dots as forming a boundary and do not consider the possibility of extending lines outside of the square (Kershaw and Ohlsson, 2001). Weisberg and Alba (1981) conducted a study giving parts of the solution to

participants, and found that performance was strongly facilitated by giving a line that extends outside of the dots. This study therefore hypothesises firstly that participants that are given hint line 1, a line that remains inside the square, will perform significantly poorer than participants given hint line 2, with a line that extends outside the square, therefore breaking the fixation on the square.

Past experience usually benefits our ability to solve problems however this is not always the situation when attempting insight tasks (Eysenck and Keane, 2005). As the solver encodes the insight problem, unhelpful previous knowledge automatically activates constraints which influence perception and encoding (Ohlsson, 1992; Wiley, 1998). This prior knowledge produces unconscious biases and constrains the solver’s representation of the problem, therefore leading to an impasse that may not be resolved. If the solver is able to deactivate these constraints, the solver can overcome the impasse and solve the problem (Kershaw and Ohlsson, 2001). We may fail to solve the problem because our past experiences lead to functional fixedness and the assumption that any given object has a limited number of uses, and therefore participants fail to think outside of the box (Eysenck and Keane, 2005). If previous experience activates constraints on this task, there may be a relationship between age and ability to solve the problem. Older participants may have more previous experience and therefore are more likely to become fixated. There is a contextual gap in the literature approaching the issue of age and solution rates. This study secondly hypothesises that younger participants will perform significantly better than older in the hint line 1 condition, however it is also hypothesised that the reverse will be true for those given hint line 2, with older participants doing significantly better than younger once constraints have been deactivated.

Methodology

Participants

A total of 84 participants volunteered for this study (51 male, 33 female) aged between 10 and 67 years old (M=32.20, SD=16.12). Participants were approached individually to take part in this study. The majority of the participants were drawn from friends, family and undergraduate students at the university studying other disciplines, thus opportunistic sampling was employed.

Materials

Instructions and stimuli were produced and word processed in order to regulate the testing conditions. There were three main components to the materials used in this study. First, a briefing form with standardised instructions and the consent form. Second, two different sets of stimuli were produced for the two hint line conditions. Each 9-dot problem form had 6 sets of nine dots with one line of the solution already drawn, depending on which of the two hint conditions the participant was in. One set (hint line 1) had a straight diagonal line. In a second condition (hint line 2) the participants were provided with a horizontal line starting at the top left dot and extending to a non-dot point, as displayed in FIGURE 1.

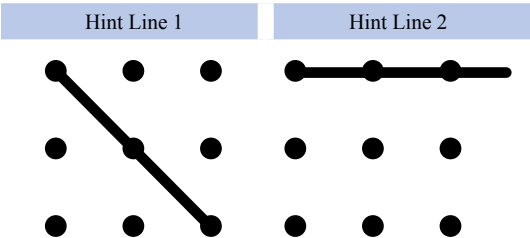


Figure 1: Hint Line Condition

Third, a debriefing form was produced which explained the study further and addressed ethical issues such as frustration and stress from being unable to complete the problem.

Procedure

The study had a 2x2 between subjects design. There were two independent variables (age, hint line) with 2 levels. Participants were selected and divided so that there was an equal number in

each of the experimental conditions (<25 years old, >25 years old, Hint Line 1, Hint line 2). The dependant variable being measured is time to solve the nine dot problem, and secondarily the number of solves and fails.

Participants were first shown the briefing form, through which the participants were made aware of the study’s purpose and confidentiality was ensured. If the participants were happy to continue they were then asked to read and sign the consent form.

Participants were presented with a sheet of paper with the relevant hint condition. Each participant was instructed that they have 10 minutes to attempt the task, and they could have as many attempts to solve the problem as they wish. After the participant had solved the problem and the time was recorded, or 10 minutes had lapsed, the participant was given the debriefing form.

Results

It was found that out of the 84 participants, 49 (58.33%) managed to solve the nine-dot problem. Out of the younger participants who were given hint line 1, 9 (42.86%) of the 21 participants found the solution, whereas 12 (57.14%) failed. In contrast out of the 21 younger participants that were given line 2, 15 (71.43%) solved, and 6 (28.57%) failed (See Table 1).

		Independent Variable 1 (Age)					
		Younger (<25 Years Old)		Older (>25 Years Old)		Total	
		Solves	Fails	Solves	Fails	Solves	Fails
Independent Variable 2 (Hint Line)	Line 1	9 (42.86%)	12 (57.14%)	11 (52.38%)	10 (47.62%)	20 (47.61%)	22 (52.38%)
	Line 2	15 (71.43%)	6 (28.57%)	14 (66.67%)	7 (33.33%)	29 (68.05%)	13 (30.95%)
	Total	24 (57.14%)	18 (42.86%)	25 (59.52%)	17 (40.48%)		

Table 1: Contingency Table for Solves and Fails of the Nine-dot Problem

The older participants that were given line 1 did slightly better with 11 (52.38%) of the 21 finding the solution, and 10 (47.62%) fails. Similar to the younger participants, those that were given line 2, 14 (66.67%) solved the problem and 7 (33.33%) failed.

Chi-square test for Independent Variable 1

A chi-square test was used to determine whether there was a significant difference between solves and fails with regards to age. 24 out of 42 of the younger participants found the solution, and similarly 25 of the older participants solved the problem. A Chi-square test revealed no significant difference in associations between younger and older ability to solve the 9 dot problem ($2=.049$, $df=1$, $p=.825$). Cramers V effect size statistic indicates a weak relationship between variable age, and solves and fails (Cramers V= .024)

Chi-square test for Independent Variable 2

20 out of 42 of the participants that were given line 1 found the solution, while 29 of those given line 2 solved it. A Chi-square test revealed a significant difference in associations between line 1 and line 2, with line 2 showing a higher frequency of people being able to solve the problem ($2=3.96$, $df=1$, $p<.05$). Cramers V effect size statistic indicates a moderate effect between variable hint and pass and fail (Cramers V=.217).

ANOVA

A 2x2 analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted for the average amount of time it took participants in each group to solve the insight problem (See Table 2). Although older participants did better than younger in both conditions the ANOVA found a non-significant main effect for age type irrespective of hint (Younger $X=256s$, Older $X=184s$), $F(1,45)=3.28$, $p=.077$, partial $\eta^2=.68$.

		Independent Variable 1 (Age)		
		Younger (<25 Years Old)	Older (>25 Years Old)	
Independent Variable 2 (Hint Line)	Line 1	304.33	223.77	264.05
		45.33	40.9	30.56
	Line 2	207.88	144.9	176.4
		35.1	36.34	25.27
		256.1	184.34	
		28.67	27.39	

Table 2: Means and SDs for time to solve the nine-dot problem

Participants that were given hint line 1 averaged 264 seconds to solve the problem, and participants in hint line 2 were faster, averaging 176 seconds to solve. Irrespective of age, the ANOVA found a significant main effect for hint type, thus Participants given

line 1, regardless of their age, do significantly better than those given line 2: $F(1,45)=4.89$, $p<.05$, partial $\eta^2=.98$.

Figure 2 shows an ordinal interaction between age and hint. The ANOVA found a non-significant interaction effect between age and hint type $F(1,45)=.49$, $p=.825$, partial $\eta^2=.001$.

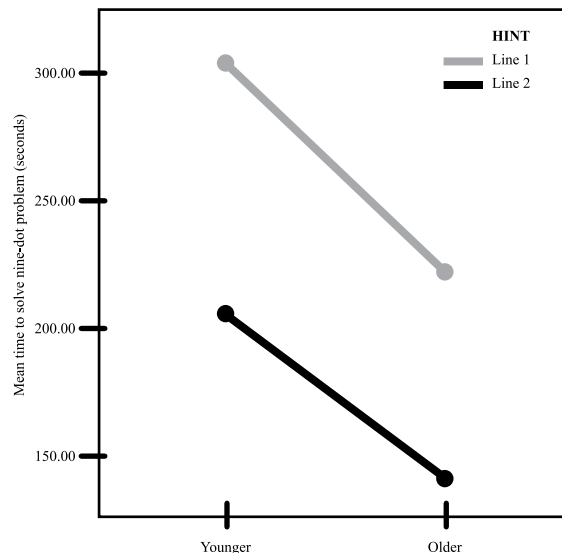


Figure 2: Interaction between age and hint

Discussion

There were two hypotheses tested within this research and the results show that these are partially supported. As suggested by Weisberg and Alba (1981) this study also found a significant facilitating affect through providing lines that extend outside of the square, therefore suggesting that breaking the fixation on the square can relax the rigid perceptual organisation of the dot array. Although the finding was significant, around 30% of participants given the hint 2 line failed to find the solution. This, as Weisberg and Alba (ibid.) and others have suggested (Burnham and Davis, 1969) this falsifies the Gestalt account as the hint should override the self-imposed perceptual organisation of the problem (Chronicle et al., 2001). Kershaw and Ohlson (2001) propose that hesitating to

go outside of the square is the wrong formulation of the operating constraint. Instead they found that people are inclined to turn on a dot, and thus the hesitation is not to go outside of the boundary, but to turn on a non-dot point.

Age and ability were found to have a non-significant effect on solving the problem, suggesting that previous experience may not have an influence upon ability to solve insight tasks. It was hypothesised that younger participants would perform better than older as previous experience triggers constraints. Though not significant, older participants had faster mean solution times, therefore previous experience may perhaps aid solution. Lung and Dominowski (cited in Chronicle et al., 2001) argue that it is not the retrieval of specific experience that blocks performance but like Kershaw and Ohlsson (2001) suggested the solution requires the line to turn on a point where there is no dot to anchor it.

This study did have certain limitations. The dependant variable being measured is time, and participants were given 10 minutes to attempt the task. There may be human factors such as fatigue effecting concentration and leading to frustration, as it appeared that some participants gave up after a few minutes of trying, thus some fails may be due to these factors, including lack of motivation.

In addition this study looked at age differences in solution rates and suggested that older participants will have more previous experience. This is an assumption that cannot be measured and may not be accurate. Furthermore the majority of the younger group were aged 19-20 which is not a good representation of a group depicting under 25's. As discussed although not significant there is some indication that older participants performed differently on this task with a faster mean solution time than younger participants in both hint line conditions, therefore it might be interesting to explore this relationship further with better controls for group membership.

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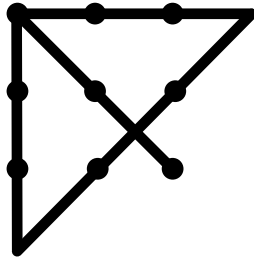
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Solving the 9-dot problem

The solution for this problem is shown below:





The Role of 'Pilgrimage' within the Hindu Religious Tradition: A discussion

Michael Aldridge

During the course of this paper the role of pilgrimage within the Hindu religious tradition will be discussed. It is recognised that the role of pilgrimage is as heterogeneous as the religious tradition that is Hinduism, therefore in order to be able to identify the role that it plays for Hindus, it is intended to establish a generalised view of what pilgrimage is within the Hindu context. The paper will then move on to look at some of the places where Hindus go on pilgrimages and the significance that these places have come to be accorded within the faith tradition.

Within Hinduism, places of pilgrimage are not made by any human arrangement, they are found by devotees, and as such they become what they are by the virtue of divine manifestation¹. As such a pilgrimage can be described as a *tīrtha yatra*, a journey to a holy crossing place², where the divine world makes contact with the human world, where the transcendent meets the ordinary, a point of mediation between the two realms of heaven and earth.³ According to Morinis' 1984 report on Bengali pilgrims, places of pilgrimage are acknowledged as points on earth which are especially suited for approaching the manifestation of the deities on earth⁴. For example Mount Kailasa is believed to be the place in which *Śiva* is most fully present on earth and therefore a pilgrim who visits the peak is thought to have attained the closest possible contact with the God.⁵ Throughout India there are literally thousands of these *tīrthas*, and at any one time there will be millions of Hindus on a pilgrimage,⁶ with numerous *saṃnyāsis* spending their whole lives wandering from one *tīrtha* to another, an occupation believed by some Hindus to be the most meritorious way of using your time. For just as secular globetrotters boast about the number of cities and countries that they have visited, it is not unusual to find groups of wandering *sādhus* competing with each other in enumerating the number of *tīrthas* they have visited.⁷

Pilgrimage has always been an important part of Hinduism,⁸ and the *Brahmānda Purāṇa*⁹, a sacred text composed in the ninth century CE, offer guidance as to the most suitable time of year for the different pilgrimages as well as the times for ritual bathing in the sacred rivers. Alongside this the *Purāṇa* mentions the variety of religious activities that should be performed at each of the places of pilgrimage.¹⁰ However, for most people in India the act of going on pilgrimage is part of their normal way of life,¹¹ and the auspiciousness of a pilgrimage increases if the pilgrimage is undertaken during a temple festival. This is due to Hindus believing that undertaking a pilgrimage at these times enables them to rid themselves of sin (*papa*) or accumulated karma to fulfil a vow (*vrata*), or to simply enjoy the transforming experience of the pilgrimage.¹² In spite of this, in order for a journey to be elevated from being considered ordinary to the level of pilgrimage, a complex structure of rules needs to be followed before departure, such as fasting, the worship of Ganesa who is the creator and remover of obstacles, and continence. For the pilgrimage itself a certain method of dressing is prescribed, along with a copper ring and a brass vessel, with tonsure before or after the pilgrimage journey still being a common practice¹³. Of particular importance is the *saṃkalpa*, the explicit declaration of an individual's intention to undertake a pilgrimage to a specific place¹⁴. Ideally the pilgrim should undertake the entire journey on foot, and it is due to this that according to Srinivas, in the early 20th century only a few of the inhabitants of the villages in Karnataka would have heard of the famous centres such as Vārāṇasī (Banāras),¹⁵ and even fewer would have travelled there as the journey was regarded as a hazardous enterprise, and fewer still in the nineteenth century when the successful return of a pilgrim was seen as a fortuitous accident.¹⁶ However since the expanse of the Indian sub-continent has been opened up by the development of better communication systems¹⁷ brought about chiefly by the advent of the railways

during the 1930s and 1940s, thousands of Hindus have flocked to pilgrimage sites all over India. During the last 40 to 50 years there has also been a significant increase in the number of pilgrims travelling by road, to the extent it is now not uncommon to see busloads of pilgrims arriving at all the major sites of pilgrimage from a variety of faraway states¹⁸. Even when the religious purpose is the primary objective, it is quite common for pilgrimages to be combined with ordinary tourism to monuments and museums, and other tourist destinations, and it is therefore quite difficult to find any clear distinction between sacred and secular journeying¹⁹, so much so that there are a number of travel companies and tour-operators who specialise in arranging group travel to the most distant sacred sites and holy places²⁰.

Throughout the Indian sub-continent there are a large number of pilgrimage centres, some of which are pan-Hindu, such as the city of Vārāṇasī (Banāras), and the temple of Kanya Kumārī at the southern tip of the Indian peninsula, whereas other centres are focussed towards local or regional interests.²¹ However amongst these there are traditionally seven sacred sites which it is believed to be auspicious for pilgrims to travel to, these are Ayodhyā, Mathurā, Haridwar, Vārāṇasī, Ujjain, Dwarka (Dwarawati in Sanskrit literature) and Kanchipuram. In addition to these, the sacred rivers, the Gangā (Ganges), the Yāmuna, the Godavari, the Kaveri and the invisible Sarasvatī all have a number of towns along their banks which attract pilgrims. The most important of these are the holy cities along the length of the Gangā which is viewed by Hindus as Mother Gangā, the first amongst India's holy rivers and sacred from its source at the Gangotri Glacier at Gaumukh, to the estuary at the Bay of Bengal. As a result the Gangā is considered the supreme *tīrtha* in this Kali Yuga, with Hindus believing that the utterance of the river's name has the power to cleanse the sinner, and to bath in or drink Gangā water has the ability to cleanse several generations of a family.²² Other important places of pilgrimage are Mathurā, the birthplace of Lord Kṛṣṇa and Vṛndāvana, the forest home of Kṛṣṇa, and in the south of India, Kanchipuram, significant to devotees of both Lord Viṣṇu and Lord Śiva. There are also four sacred abodes (*dhama*) at the four compass points of India, Badrinath in the north, Puri on the east coast, Rameswaram in the south and Dwarka on the west coast, and to perform the *dhama yatra* by visiting these places in a clockwise order, allows the pilgrim to attain liberation (*mokṣa*),²³ which means that for many Hindus, an ideal pilgrimage, whilst only

ever completed by a minority, would be to perform a clockwise circumambulation of India itself²⁴

Amongst the traditional seven sacred cities, the city of Vārāṇasī has been granted the recognition as the most important and famous city for Hindus, famous for its ghats, the steps going down into the Ganges, along which pilgrims bathe and on which bodies are cremated. The city is also referred to by Śiva in the Rīg veda²⁵, where it is named Kāśī or Kāśhi, which translated means “the luminous one” and is believed to be an allusion to the city's historical status as a centre of learning, literature, and culture.²⁶ Believed to have been founded some 5000 years ago by Lord Śiva, who resides in the city's Golden Temple, and the centre, not only of India, but of the cosmos, it is a common Hindu belief that to die in this auspicious city is to attain liberation (*mokṣa*) upon death.²⁷ The praise that is showered upon Vārāṇasī surpasses everything that is said about the world's other Eternal Cities. Furthermore, in the Matsya Purāṇa²⁸, Śiva is quoted as saying, “Vārāṇasī is always my most secret place; the cause of liberation for all creatures. All sins which a man may have accumulated in thousands of previous lives disappear as soon as he enters Avimukta. Brahmins, Kṣatriyas, Vaiśyas and Śūdras, people of mixed castes, worms, mlecchas and other casteless people, insects, ants, birds, all mortal beings, find bliss in my auspicious city”. It is therefore not uncommon for many old people to settle down in Vārāṇasī toward the end of their lives, others are taken there when dying to enable a part of their body to be in contact with the waters of the Gangā, thereby ensuring they remain in heaven.²⁹ As stated previously, Vārāṇasī is not India's only holy city, neither is it Hinduism's only centre of learning; there are literally thousands of *tīrthas* and numerous places of scholarship, all of which convey the unique atmospherics of Hinduism, of the Supreme being that has the ability to be present in a multitude of forms, places, images and temples, and distributes his grace to those who are watchful enough not to miss the occasion of his appearance and to recognize it under its manifold guises.³⁰

A final observation with regard to pilgrimage within Hinduism is that because the pilgrimage centre is viewed as a special place, and is set apart as sacred, the pilgrim who approaches it is believed to become detached from their ordinary mundane existence, and through their journey become equated with renunciation. Therefore,

there is a understanding that a Hindu pilgrim is a temporary renouncer, which is expounded in classical texts and is often part of popular understanding of pilgrimage as well.³¹ It is for this reason that in popular Hinduism, there is a powerful image which depicts the ideal pilgrim as a renouncer who travels, with only the bare necessities required for subsistence, and it is generally acknowledged that pilgrimage on foot is more meritorious than by vehicular means.³² As a result pilgrimages can be viewed as collective rituals which have the ability to carry people closer to god through physical movement, which explicitly symbolises a devotees' progress toward unity with the divine.³³

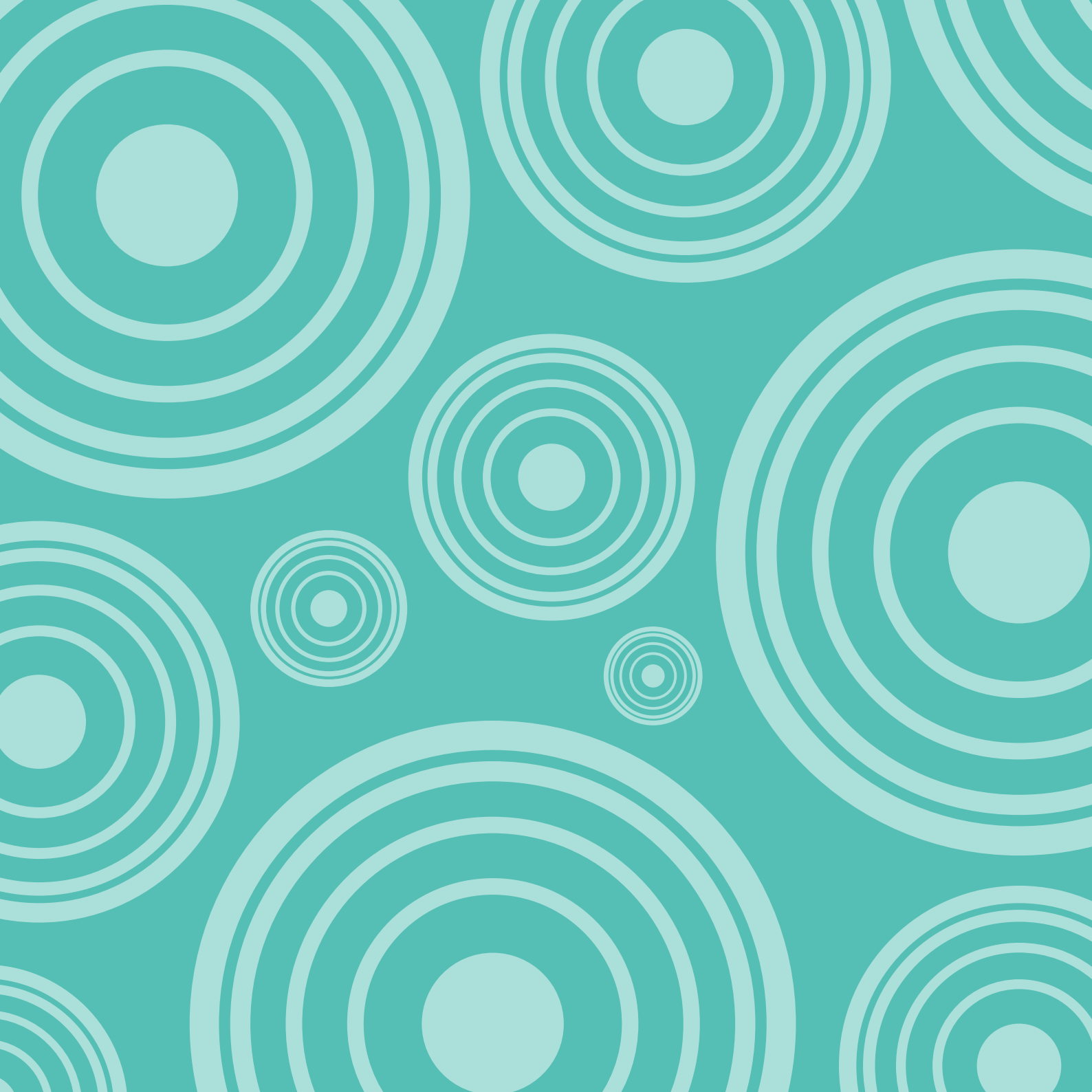
In bringing this paper to a conclusion, from my readings surrounding the phenomenon of pilgrimage within Hinduism, both in secular and sacred texts, it is apparent that pilgrimage has occupied a significant role as part of the Hindu religious tradition, and continues to exercise as strong a draw on modern Hindus as it did on their ancestors. It remains true that Hindus are drawn to the sacred mountains, rivers and cities of India, in order to experience the opportunity to approach places in which the deity with whom they identify as supreme, has crossed over the divide between heaven and earth. As a result of the popularity that pilgrimage still retains within modern Hinduism, veritable temple cities have grown up associated with the major deities, and in these places there is a constant worship going on with thousands of *pujāris* performing rituals on behalf of and for the benefit of those make the journey, and who are willing to pay the specified sums for each particular form of worship. It is because of this uninterrupted worship in thousands of sacred places, combined with the flow of millions of Hindus on pilgrimage all over the Indian sub-continent, and the mass-celebration of countless local and regional festivals, that an air of timeless religiosity and widespread concern for another kind of reality flourishes, despite the development of an increasingly secularised and westernised India.

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The Effects of the English Civil War on the City of Winchester

Naomi Humphreys

Winchester was a very important focal point during the English Civil War largely due to its renowned Royalist support and its cultural heritage as England's first capital. It was also in a strategic location and the surrounding area was frequently used as a battle ground. For Cromwell's campaign to succeed, it would have been fairly important that Winchester was defeated, to try and eradicate its support for Royalist rule. As a result, the city of Winchester changed between Royalist and Parliamentary hands several times during the duration of the War. In 1642 Winchester was taken by Sir William Waller leading the Parliamentarian troops, and then taken over by Sir William Ogle, a Royalist, in 1643. Ogle was forced to surrender following a six day siege and bombardment led by Oliver Cromwell in October 1645 (Denford and Parker, 2005 p.15). The battles which ensued in and around Winchester undoubtedly had an effect on both Winchester's population as well as its architecture.

Until very recently, there were no known archaeological examples of defensive features dating to the Civil War period. Instead, it appears through evidence in historic accounts, that during the War Winchester's pre-existing defensive structures were re-used and fortified. Towards the end of 2010, excavations on St. Giles Hill uncovered the first known example of Civil War period defences within Winchester. These defences include a substantial defensive ditch aligned against a redoubt with a possible platform believed to be suitable for the placement of cannon. Along the South and Western sides of the redoubt may have been a rampart, created using the spoil from the ditch (Past Horizons, 2011). The platform for the cannon faces Eastwards, and was perhaps aimed towards any incoming attack from the Alresford region. The excavations showed evidence that indicated that the ditches around the feature were rapidly in-filled to ensure that the site couldn't be re-used in future conflicts. This highlights the on-going threat to the city from attacking troops.

Place names can contribute to a historical understanding of an area, and this appears to be the case for the area of Winchester known as Oliver's Battery. The name is present on several maps from 1780 onwards and is believed to have derived from the notion that this is where Oliver Cromwell gathered his troops and weapons. However, the visible earthworks in this area were created during Winchester's prehistoric phase, but this again shows how pre-existing features within Winchester's landscape were likely to have been reused during the Civil War.

As this suggests, archaeology relating to the effects of civil war is fairly hard to find. Our main evidence of the use of standing buildings during the campaigns is found in contemporary historic accounts. Significant fortifications were made in Winchester Castle under William Ogle's command and it is described that a garrison was set up and further provisions were made to better prepare the Royalist defence against William Waller's troops (Biddle and Clayre, 1983 p.17). Ogle held Winchester Castle and considerably strengthened it, until forced to surrender after a six day siege and bombardment led by Oliver Cromwell in October 1645 (Denford and Parker, 2005 p.15). It was Parliament, "fearful of insurrection" whom ordered "the making of Winchester Castle untenable" and the castle was subsequently destroyed and left in ruins (*ibid.*).

The effects of the Civil War undoubtedly caused a great deal of further structural damage to Winchester's standing buildings. When walking around the Roman and Medieval walls of Winchester the imprints of battle can be subtly noted. When looking at the masonry which fronts the Westgate entrance into the city, small round depressions become visible. These imprints are likely to have been caused from the impact of lead shots, perhaps fired from muskets of the attackers. The Westgate was also used as a prison and during the 17th century was the residence of prisoners

of war (*ibid.*, p.1) and some of their graffiti is still present carved into the inside walls.

Looting was a common phenomenon during the War, often as a result of Parliamentary troops not receiving their promised wage (Crook, 2001 p.66), leading to the vandalism and raiding of several high-status buildings within Winchester. One of the worst-hit targets was Winchester Cathedral. Following the 1642 capture of Winchester Castle by William Waller, troops proceeded to loot and vandalise anything associated with 'Royalist Winchester'. The Parliamentary religious stance was ideally of a puritan persuasion, and so the destruction of effigies relating to religious iconography would have been heavily encouraged. The Great West window of the Cathedral was smashed using the remains found within the mortuary chests. This act of desecration is recorded in one of the replacement chests. Inscribed on it are the words "In this chest in the year 1661 were promiscuously laid together the bones of the Princes and Prelates which had been scattered about by sacrilegious barbarianism in the year 1642" (Sawyer, 2002 p.47). Further damage to the Cathedral is evident upon the wooden portrait sculptures of Kings James I and Charles I, where quantities of lead shot have been recovered. These sculptures would have been inaccessible to the Parliamentary troops, but it seems likely that shots were fired at them, perhaps in an attempt to dislodge them, or perhaps to more casually cause their destruction by using them for target practice (James, 2007 p.123). The Royalist pamphleteer Bruno Reeves described the defacing of the Cathedral on the 13 December; "They enter the church with Colours flying their drums beating... some of their Troops of Horse also accompanied them... they turn to the monuments of the dead, some they utterly demolish, others they deface" (Sawyer, 2002 p.56). He continues to describe that a lot of the loot along with bibles and prayer books were taken from the Cathedral, burnt and left scattered across the streets. This public display of destruction is likely to have had a strong impact on Winchester's inhabitants, perhaps inciting a great deal of fear.

Further evidence of Civil War vandalism was found following in-depth analysis of the Round Table, its shape perfectly suited for the purpose of musket target practice. The examination of the table identified the presence of several missile exit holes and radiographic tests suggest that five of these missiles are still

embedded within the wood (Biddle, 2000 p.138). The distribution of these holes shows that the shots tended to be aimed towards the central rose and the head of the king, suggesting that some level of attention was paid to targeting specific areas of the table. The analysis into these exit holes was extensive and the trajectories of the shots were traced. All of the shots were fired from below and generally from the right. Perhaps these were the shots initially fired, as Biddle suggests, from "a tightly grouped bunch of soldiers, having burst into the Great Hall through the south door" (*ibid.*, p.142). It seems that when the shots were fired from a more central position, they more commonly landed on target and perhaps these were at a later time for the purpose of target practice. The trajectory analysis is an example of the detail that archaeological evidence can ascribe to a depiction of past events; it allows us to trace some of the footsteps of Parliamentary soldiers.

Outside of Winchester's walls are a few sites associated with Civil War encampments and battlefields. The almshouses located at the Mary Magdelane hospital site were used as a camp for Royalist troops (Roffey and Marter, 2010 p.3). Archaeological evidence from excavations undertaken at the site have located lead shots as well as hundreds of pieces of clay pipe bowls and stems dating from the 17th century onwards. Historical evidence of the presence of troops is shown in the form of a letter of petition written by the master of the site who expresses his distress at the destructive presence of the Royalist troops on the site:

But your Petitioners doe farther shewe that within four nights last past, the souldiers keeping their rendesvouse their, have not only devoured nine quarters of their feede barley for this season (being the full provision for the same) and have broken down and burnt up the great gates, all doores, table boords, cupboords, gyses, timber partitions, barnes and stables there, but have also used violence to the house of God; burninge up all the seats and pues in the church, as also the communion table, and all other wainscott and timbers there, that they could lay hands on: and have converted the sayd house of God, the church, into a stable for horses and other prophane uses... (Sawyer, 2002 p.112).

Previously discussed was the destructive nature of Parliamentary troops towards non-secular buildings, possibly as an expression

of their religious stance. This is, however, evidence that even the Royalists showed a disregard for the church. Perhaps this is suggestive that the Royalist troops were poorly disciplined.

There is limited archaeological evidence to tell of the battles which took place around Winchester. In G.N. Godwin's *History of The Civil War in and around Winchester* he locates a "large mound in Lamborough field, near Cheriton, which is the last resting place of the slain" (Godwin, c.1900 p.35). He also describes some mounds visible within Cheriton Wood, which according to local tradition are the location of the graves of three Generals (*ibid.*, p.35). Throughout the 1930s excavations took place in and around Winchester at sites associated with the Civil War. These excavations revealed that the first mound located at Lamborough field was in fact a Neolithic Long Barrow (Southern Life, nd), and perhaps the other mounds located in the area are also associated with Neolithic activity.

The effects of the War on the general population can perhaps be suggested by the estimated population figures from the time. It is thought that the population following the Civil War may have dropped to below 5000 from a previous high of 6240 in the earlier part of the 17th century (James, 2007 p.116). However civil war may not have been the only contributing factor, population decrease was also a result of continued plague epidemics and the more industrial growth and importance of London as well as Southampton. The former Mayor of Winchester, John Trussell, a Royalist sympathiser, wrote several poems throughout the duration of the Civil War. Here, the decreasing population of Winchester is echoed:

My inhabitants estraunge
Themselves from their owne dwellings, being unable
To endure to bee encumbered with a rabel
Of miserable wretches, whose necessitie
Enforce loud cryes to show their miserye
But meanes of help find none; the pore unto the needy
Complayne of want, but see no remedye.
(Sawyer, 2002 p.131)

It also expresses the state of care for the injured and suggests that the streets were largely occupied by the sick who could not find treatment. It highlights how Winchester may have been a frightening place to reside during these years. An earlier poem written by Trussell may also give us some insight into the way that lifestyles in Winchester changed following the Parliamentary win in the Civil War:

Now what they sai they would doe they have done
In making pore and ritch mens estate all one;
The rytch no rent, the pore their howses gett,
The ritch no mony have, the poore no meat...
Woe worth the while what shall become of mee
When poore and ritch are thus on one degree.
(James, 2007 p.117)

It appears that homes were redistributed as a result of a billet, perhaps in an attempt to reduce the divide between the rich and poor, and undermine the influence of the former significant townspeople under the previous Royalist regime.

The Civil War had a huge impact on the city of Winchester. It was architecturally destructive; many buildings were demolished and several others vandalised resulting in the necessity of later reconstruction. There are now only faint reminders of these events, visible hints of ammunition damage and carefully located plaques of commemoration. The War was also disruptive to the people living in the town; properties were looted, seized and redistributed, and this would have been a key factor towards the population decline across the mid-17th century.

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Bloody Sunday and the Saville Inquiry

David S. Moore

The instigation of the Saville Inquiry in 1998 was meant to establish the 'truth' and produce an authoritative account of what transpired on 'Bloody Sunday', the 30 January 1972. This paper analyses the evidence presented to, and the findings of, Lord Saville. It highlights where the Saville Inquiry has given insufficient weight to its findings, particularly in regard to the actions of Kevin McCorry, the Northern Ireland Civil Rights Association's (NICRA) representative who coordinated the preparations for the march; and Martin McGuinness, now Northern Ireland's Deputy First Minister.

On 30 January 1972 a NICRA march took place in the Bogside area of Londonderry. Some of the marchers, ignoring stewards, left the march route and started throwing stones and scrap metal at soldiers from the 1st Battalion The Parachute Regiment who were manning a barrier, in order to prevent the marchers reaching Londonderry city centre. The soldiers were authorised to proceed through the barrier to detain the rioters. Believing they were coming under small arms fire, the soldiers shot into the crowd. These shots led to the deaths of fourteen unarmed civilians. Many years later, General Mike Jackson described the events of Bloody Sunday as "the most tragic such episode in the whole sad history of the troubles"¹.

The next day, Downing Street set in motion a Tribunal of Inquiry, the Widgery Inquiry. Its objectives were to arrive at a "speedy outcome", whilst bearing in mind "the government in Northern Ireland was fighting not only a military war, but a propaganda war", and more importantly to establish if "the troops shot indiscriminately into a crowd or deliberately at particular targets in self-defence"². The Widgery Inquiry was immediately dismissed by the Republican community as a Westminster led whitewash.³

Background: "You found the weapons and lost the people?"⁴

The partition of Ulster in 1920 created over forty years of Protestant rule. One consequence of this was discrimination against Catholics at almost every level of Northern Irish society, which led to an escalation of tension in the 1960s. Loyalist paramilitaries had been involved in murder campaigns, arson and bombing since the mid-1960s⁵. As a result, the civil rights marches of the late 1960s were becoming increasingly confrontational, with violence erupting in Londonderry, Newry and Belfast. The riots of 1969 resulted in the British Army being deployed to restore order; however by June 1970 the Ardoyne and Short Strand areas of Belfast erupted into violence, and the Army was coming under increasingly criticism for not being tough enough on the rioters, and was encouraged to put on a show of force⁶.

The search of a house in the West Falls area of Belfast in July 1970, in which a cache of weapons was found and a Catholic man accidentally killed, escalated tensions. The throwing of stones, hand grenades, and nail and petrol bombs was met by CS gas from the Army⁷. A gun battle broke out, and in order to bring it to an end, a curfew was imposed⁸. During the curfew houses were not only searched, with doors kicked in and floorboards ripped up, but property including crucifixes was smashed and "holy pictures thrown into lavatories"⁹. Kennedy-Pipe claims the Falls incident allowed the "Provisionals to claim that the historic British enemy was once again flexing its muscle on Irish soil", ultimately driving Catholics "into the arms of the IRA"¹⁰. The incident also changed the Army's perception of the Catholic population, from oppressed minority to "the enemy"¹¹.

Westminster's authorisation of the Lower Falls curfew is evidence of this hard-line policy which resulted in short-term gain for the

Government, but also increased the Catholic community's sense of alienation and benefited the PIRA¹². After the Easter riots General Freeland warned that petrol bombers could be shot in the future, this was reiterated by Brian Faulkner on 25 May 1971, who sanctioned the firing of small arms "to warn [rioters and protesters] without waiting for orders"¹³.

The British Government responded by introducing internment in August 1971, with dawn raids across Northern Ireland against supposedly known republican terrorists. Internment was an immediate military and political disaster for the British Army and Government. The immediate effect in Northern Ireland was felt in an unprecedented increase in sectarian violence¹⁴ including the instigation of a widespread bombing campaign to stretch the security forces¹⁵. A number of marches were organised in early 1972 to peacefully highlight the internees' plight and force the British Government to end internment. The first march on the British internment camp at Magilligan Strand on 22 January drew a large number of protesters, who were met with CS gas and rubber bullets. The SDLP minister John Hume stated that soldiers were "beating, brutalising and terrorising" the marchers, and many accounts recall officers physically restraining soldiers from implementing further 'robust' crowd control measures¹⁶.

The events of Bloody Sunday: "Rioting begins at 2pm sharp"¹⁷.

The next march took place on 30 January 1972 in the Bogside area of Londonderry. The march left Bishop's Field, led by Thomas McGlinchey's coal truck which carried Kevin McCorry, Bernadette Devlin (MP for Mid Ulster) and Eamonn McCann (civil rights activist and author). As the march passed through the Creggan and Brandwell districts many people joined its ranks, swelling the crowd to an estimated "10,000" strong¹⁸. The original destination of the march was Londonderry's Guildhall Square, via William Street, however, because of the Army erecting barricades preventing the demonstration entering Londonderry city centre via William Street this had been changed to Free Derry Corner. McCorry, later admitted during his evidence to the Saville Enquiry that he knew of this change, but did not inform the crowd¹⁹.

Confusion began when elements of the crowd, some of whom were members of the Provisional Irish Republican Army (PIRA)

or its youth wing, the Fianna, overtook the coal truck as it wound down Southway, leaving the road and walking straight down the open grass embankment which Southway descended. As a result, a number of marchers overtook the truck, and headed down William Street, the original route of the march. The resulting confusion was then exploited by those who wanted to provoke a confrontation with the Army, taking confused marchers with them into the cul-de-sac created by Barrier 14 in William Street.

The ensuing confrontation is well documented, with news footage taken from behind the soldiers being used by the Widgery Inquiry to substantiate claims that numerous objects were used as missiles, including stones, planks of wood and scrap metal. The 1st Battalion, The Parachute Regiment were authorised to proceed through Barrier 14 and detain the rioters. Soon after deploying through the barrier, the Paratroopers believed they were coming under small arms fire. The shots fired by the Paratroopers in response led to the deaths of fourteen unarmed civilians who the Paratroopers believed were carrying either small arms or nail bombs.

The intent of a small number of marchers was aided, albeit unintentionally, by McCorry not communicating directly with the crowd prior to leaving Bishop's Field. Pringle and Jacobson give us an insight into the inability of McCorry to communicate and control the marchers, stating that the amplifiers on the back of the coal truck, "were not working", although McCorry told the Saville Inquiry that an announcement regarding the destination change was made as the coal truck approached the junction of Rossville Street and William Street²⁰. The march stewards were using walkie-talkies to coordinate their efforts, but it became apparent during the Saville Inquiry that McCorry was not able to communicate with them either. Had McCorry been able to communicate with the stewards and coordinate their efforts he would have been able to concentrate the stewards at the junction of Rossville Street and William Street. Heading off those in front of the coal truck would have significantly reduced the number of people continuing down William Street towards Barrier 14. McCorry and the other organisers caused confusion by not ensuring all the marchers knew the rally was going to be held at Free Derry Corner, prior to departing from Bishop's Field. This, along with the personal motives of those who wanted a confrontation with the Army,

created a volatile mix of confused marchers and professional rioters, seeking a ‘good craic’ on a Sunday afternoon²¹.

Lord Widgery stated, “There would have been no deaths in Londonderry on 30 January if those who organised the illegal march had not thereby created a highly dangerous situation in which a clash between demonstrators and the security forces was almost inevitable”²². This view is opposed by the Saville Inquiry, despite the evidence presented by Kevin McCorry, secondary sources and other witnesses. Lord Saville has concluded “the organisers of the civil rights march bear no responsibility for the deaths and injuries on Bloody Sunday”²³. Lord Saville seems to have chosen to ignore a vast body of evidence, which although it does not justify the shooting of civilians, does support the argument that Kevin McCorry and the NICRA executive were partially to blame for the deaths and injuries which occurred that afternoon.

The Role of Martin McGuinness “370 yards”²⁴.

Having exonerated the NICRA of any blame in connection with the “deaths and injuries on Bloody Sunday”²⁵ the conclusions of the Saville Inquiry dedicated a single, penultimate paragraph to the activities of Martin McGuinness as Adjutant of the Londonderry Brigade of the PIRA. Despite actively helping the families of those killed on Bloody Sunday, in private McGuinness was less concerned about another inquiry taking place. Jonathan Powell claims that during a private conversation, McGuinness had said “he didn’t know why they [the British Government] had done it; he thought an apology would have been quite sufficient”²⁶. This raises the question of why, after campaigning for so long, did McGuinness think an inquiry was unnecessary?

The statement eventually submitted by McGuinness sheds little light on what he and other members of the Londonderry PIRA did on Bloody Sunday. McGuinness gives a general account of the NICRA march within his statement, only mentioning one person by name, Colm Keenan, who he claims to have been with at Bishop’s Field prior to the start of the march, and became “detached from” in the crowd²⁷. Of particular note is the absence of what he did during the short walk from Barrier 14 to Free Derry Corner, a distance of 370 yards²⁸.

In his statement McGuinness indicates that he left the vicinity of

William Street due to the commencement of stone throwing and the likelihood of ‘snatch squads’ being deployed from behind Barrier 14²⁹. It is therefore reasonable to suggest that McGuinness left William Street prior to the use of the water cannon, as he makes no mention of it, or the CS Gas cannisters thrown by rioters. Lord Saville has suggested a discrepancy of “25 to 30 minutes”, however McGuinness has failed to account for a longer period of time, possibly up to one hour³⁰. McGuinness was clearly not where he said he was during the missing hour, as he is contradicted by other witnesses³¹. In addition, he is implicated by a number of sources breaking into a derelict bookmakers on William Street, and in plotting to attack the soldiers manning Barrier 14 with an explosive device³². The planning for this took place at the regular Thursday night meeting in a house on Stanley’s Walk, with the nail bombs being made on Saturday (29 January 1972). According to Ward all of this activity was coordinated by McGuinness, including the provision of detonators by the ‘explosives officer’ Colm Keenan on Bloody Sunday.

However, Saville discounted this theory due to photographic evidence, which shows that “any bomb in Duffy’s bookmakers would have been very likely to have injured civilians”³³. The problem with this statement is that Saville clearly believed a bomb was going to be exploded inside the bookmakers, while the testimony suggests that the bookmakers was an elevated position for throwing nail bombs, rather than a property that could be blown up in order to cause injuries with flying debris and blast. Liam Clarke and Catherine Johnston state a source also stated to them, that “McGuinness had fired a shot from the Thompson [sub machine gun] at the [front] door” believing the soldiers were about to enter the bookmakers³⁴.

The statement of Willie Breslin is an anomaly within the evidence concerning McGuinness. Breslin stated he “glimpsed Martin McGuinness in the middle of the crowd around Joseph Place” prior to the shooting starting³⁵. Why write a statement that recounts an event that is neither corroborated by other witnesses or by McGuinness? Leaving aside memory distortion, Breslin seems to have written a statement that attempts to exonerate McGuinness from any wrong doing on Bloody Sunday. Breslin was a founding member of the Londonderry Labour Party and still politically active until his death in 2009. As such he was committed to the

power sharing agreement, which came into being through the Good Friday Agreement. Breslin could well have been trying to counter the information provided by the intelligence source ‘Inflition’, and help preserve the peace process, by maintaining McGuinness’ credibility³⁶.

This evidence does not categorically prove what McGuinness did between 1515 and 1615 hours on Bloody Sunday, but it does prove that he spent a considerable amount of time around the Northern end of Chamberlain Street, and did not make his way to Free Derry Corner upon the commencement of stone throwing at Barrier 14. It is therefore highly likely that McGuinness, having broken into Duffy’s Bookmakers, made his way back to the Bogside Inn to dispose of the explosives he was unable to use due to the crowd being too close to Barrier 14, and the Thompson sub-machine gun he is known to be in possession of at the junction of Chamberlain Street and William Street³⁷. This would account for the time delay in McGuinness leaving the junction of William Street and Rossville Street, and the sighting of him by Sheila McGloughlin, emerging from an alleyway leading to rear of the Bogside Inn, after the Paratroopers had started shooting. Therefore, the reason why McGuinness thought a second inquiry was unnecessary is self preservation, in an effort to prevent the truth regarding his actions entering the public domain.

The Aftermath: ‘each government lives in its own time’³⁸

Peace in Northern Ireland was an integral part of Britain’s ability to continue to fulfil its wider military obligations as part of the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) and the United Nations (UN). A second inquiry was a means to “assuage Nationalist opinion” and keep them in the peace negotiations. Tony Blair claimed that public inquiries rarely achieve their aim, whilst stating that the Saville Inquiry was “an exhaustive and fair account of what happened”³⁹. Blair clearly has a dislike of public inquiries, yet was content to instigate the Saville Inquiry. The agenda for this can be established by examining Britain’s emerging post-Cold War defence policy. By the 1990s the Government was reviewing the British Army’s commitments, leading to the Strategic Defence Review (SDR) of 1998. The number of operational commitments the British Army was fulfilling had to be reduced in order to combat ‘overstretch’, and at the top of the list of priorities was finding a solution to reconciling the Republican and Loyalist traditions in Northern Ireland, via the Good Friday peace process⁴⁰.

The motivation behind securing peace in Northern Ireland was the excessive military commitments in the Former Republic of Yugoslavia, Northern Ireland, Cyprus, the Falkland Islands and Belize which had become difficult to fulfil. The Army found itself stretched both in terms of manpower and equipment, with two armoured divisions sharing the peace enforcement task in the Balkans, and the remaining operational commitments in Cyprus, Belize, The Falkland Islands and Northern Ireland⁴¹. This was exacerbated by a downturn in school leavers applying to join the services, partly due to a phased armed forces redundancy programme⁴².

Therefore, the number of operational commitments the British army was fulfilling had to be reduced in order to combat ‘overstretch’. The defeat of terrorism in Northern Ireland was the only operational commitment that did not involve NATO, or the UN and could be resolved solely by the British Government. In 1998 around ‘9000’ regular soldiers were deployed on Operation Banner, a figure that represented a ‘major strain on its [the British Army’s] resources’⁴³. However, this figure hides the true manpower commitment, which, taking into account time for pre-deployment training, leave, and training to re-acquire specialist skills, which affected six regiments at any one time, increased the manpower liability to approximately 12,000 soldiers. Therefore, if the British Government could secure peace in Northern Ireland 12,000 soldiers would become available for deployment on other operations, and reduce the ‘overstretch’ across the army.

The proposed strategic capabilities within the SDR hinged on securing peace in Northern Ireland. The instigation of the Saville Inquiry in January 1998, the signing of the Good Friday Agreement in April 1998 and the publication of the SDR in July 1998 have a symbiotic relationship. A number of commentators believed the Saville Inquiry was no more than a means of ensuring the Nationalists remained at the negotiating table⁴⁴. A long-term peace agreement would eventually allowed the withdrawal of British soldiers from Northern Ireland, and alleviate the ‘overstretch’ within the Army. Tony Blair has confirmed that the instigation of the Saville Inquiry, although proclaimed by Blair as a search for the truth, was in fact a means of ensuring that Britain could meet its international defence commitments in the post-Cold War world⁴⁵.

This defence-related agenda supports the thesis that the evidence relating to Martin McGuinness and Kevin McCorry was intentionally given insufficient weight within the findings of the Saville Inquiry, in order to maintain the Northern Irish peace process, the maintenance of which released approximately 12,000 soldiers for deployment on other operations.

Conclusions

Lord Widgery's conclusions regarding the actions of Kevin McCorry were supported by the evidence presented to the Saville Inquiry. Saville has largely ignored this account of the inability of McCorry to direct the stewards during the march, and his efforts to save face by not telling the marchers that the destination had changed to Free Derry Corner. These factors created confusion and enabled a number of frontlines who were intent on rioting to lead peaceful protestors down William Street to confront the soldiers manning Barrier 14.

The significant amount of evidence which relates to the activities of Martin McGuinness does not stand up to cross examination, and the Saville Inquiry has come to the conclusion that he was armed with a Thompson sub-machine gun, yet fails to address McGuinness' involvement in the plot to attack the soldiers manning Barrier 14 from the upstairs window of Duffy's bookmakers. Unlike the evidence relating to McCorry, Saville does not mention McGuinness in his summing up. This has ensured the media focussed on the activities of the Paratroopers on Bloody Sunday and not the role played by the civil rights movement or Northern Ireland's Deputy First Minister.

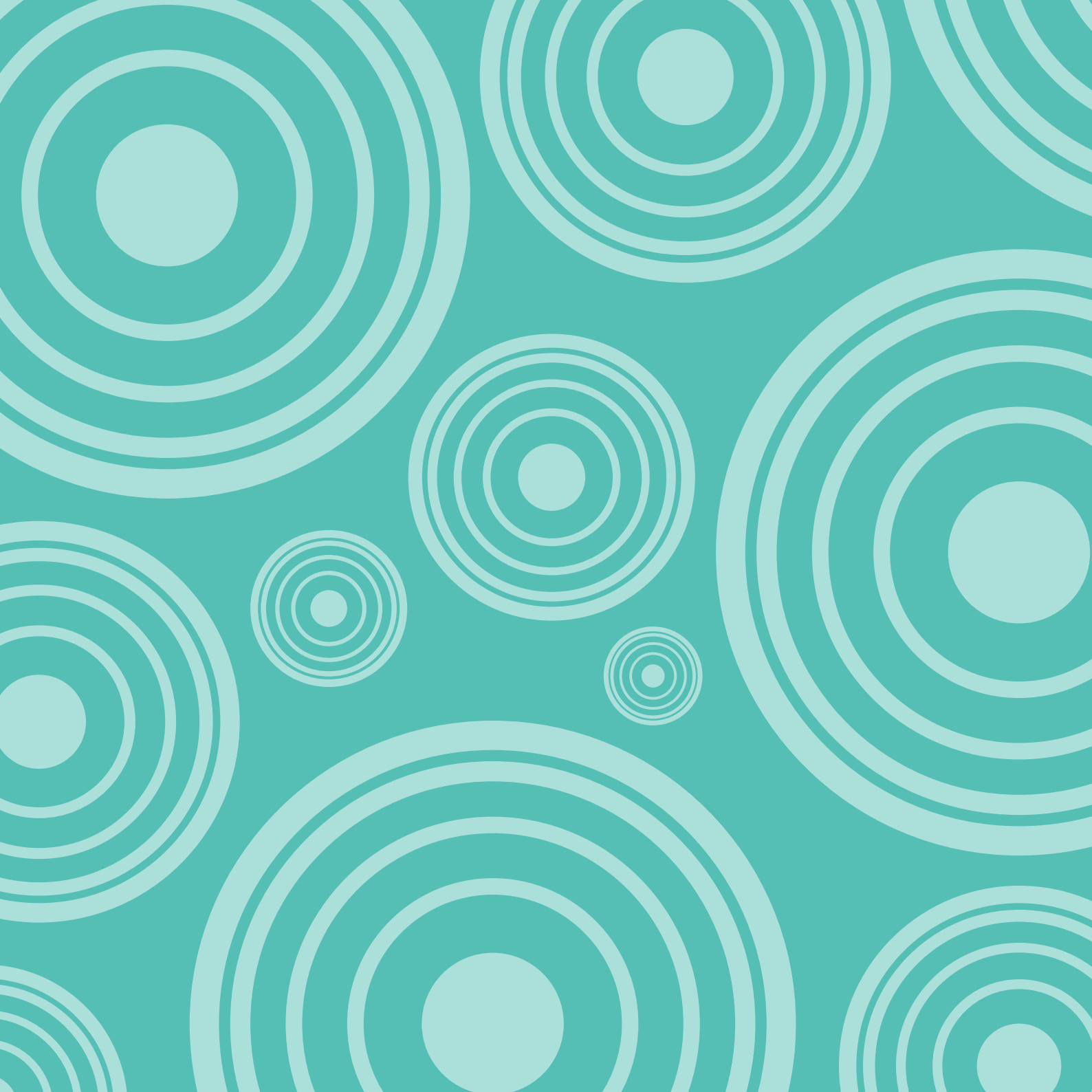
The British Government's motive behind instigating the Saville Inquiry was not to resolve the issues surrounding the Widgery Inquiry, and clear the names of the deceased, but to enable the redeployment of a significant number of soldiers to other operational theatres. The underlying theme within the SDR was resolving the on-going manpower shortage that led to 'overstretch' and 'undermanning'⁴⁶. Therefore, the reason why the Saville Inquiry's conclusions did not give greater significance to the evidence which shows Kevin McCorry as contributory in causing the events that occurred on Bloody Sunday, and implicates Martin McGuinness in planning to attack Barrier 14, is because it was never meant to discover the 'truth'. It appears that the Saville

Inquiry was instigated to keep the Northern Ireland peace process on track. The Saville Inquiry has forgotten to tell the 'truth' itself about Bloody Sunday, in order to end paramilitary violence in Northern Ireland, ensure the survival of the power sharing agreement and enable the redeployment of military resources to other operational theatres throughout the world.

- 1 General Mike Jackson, *Soldier*, (London, 2007), p.67.
- 2 PREM 15/2136. - minutes of the meeting between the Prime Minister, the Lord Chief Justice and the Lord Chancellor on 31 January 1972.
- 3 TNA CJ4/254. *The Starry Plough* was the newspaper of the Official Republican Movement.
- 4 Peter Taylor, *Provos, the IRA and Sinn Fein*, (London, 1997), p.82.
- 5 Jack Holland, *Hope Against History: The Ulster Conflict*, (London, 1999), p.51.
- 6 Taylor, *Op. cit.*, p.78.
- 7 Tony Geraghty, *The Irish War: The Military History of a Domestic Conflict*, (London, 1998), p.33.
- 8 Taylor, *Op.cit*, p.79-80
- 9 Tim Pat Coogan, *The I.R.A.*, (London, 1995), p.345.
- 10 Caroline Kennedy-Pipe, *The Origins of the Present Troubles in Northern Ireland*, (Harlow, 1997), p.53.
- 11 Geraghty, *Op. cit.*, 41.
- 12 Taylor, *Op.cit*, p.83.
- 13 *ibid.*, 553.
- 14 Thomas Hennessey, *A History of Northern Ireland 1920-1996*, (Basingstoke 1997), p.193.

- 15 *ibid.*, p.195.
- 16 Martin Melaugh and Fionnuala McKenna, Bloody Sunday, 30 January 1972 - A Chronology of Events, *Conflict Archive on the Internet*, <http://cain.ulst.ac.uk/events/bsunday/chron.htm> [27 November 2010].
- 17 Philip Jacobson, and Peter Pringle, *Those are real bullets aren't they?: Bloody Sunday, Derry 30 January 1972*, (London, 2000), p.45.
- 18 Bridie Hannigan, Eamonn McCann, and Maureen Shiels, *Bloody Sunday in Derry: what really happened*. (Dingle, 2000), p.18.
- 19 'Statement-KM2 – Kevin McCorry', BSI, <http://www.bloody-sunday-inquiry.org.uk>, 15 April 2010, KM2.17. McCorry stated that he was 'not prepared for the authorities to define what we [the marchers] could do, which meant that we did not concede that we were not going to the Guildhall publicly beforehand.'
- 20 Bloody Sunday Inquiry (BSI) Transcript – Day 129, *The Bloody Sunday Inquiry* (BSI), <http://report.bloody-sunday-inquiry.org/transcripts/Archive/Ts129.htm> [15 April 2010], p.74.
- 21 'Statement AO65 – Sean O'Neill', BSI, http://report.bloody-sunday-inquiry.org/evidence/AO/AO_0065.pdf, [15 April 2010], p.1.
- 22 Tim Coates, *Bloody Sunday: Lord Widgery's Report 1972*, (London, 2001), p.97.
- 23 'The question of responsibility for the deaths and injuries on Bloody Sunday', BSI, <http://report.bloody-sunday-inquiry.org/volume01/chapter004/> [15 April 2010], p.33.
- 24 The Layout of This Part of the City, BSI, <http://report.bloody-sunday-inquiry.org/volume05/chapter068/> [20 August 2010], p.2.
- 25 *ibid.*
- 26 Jonathan Powell, The £200m Inquiry: McGuinness would have settled for apology, *The Guardian*, <http://www.guardian.co.uk/politics/2008/mar/19/northernireland.northernireland2> [22 July 2010].
- 27 Statement KM3 – Martin McGuinness, BSI, http://report.bloody-sunday-inquiry.org/evidence/K/KM_0003.pdf [14 March 2011], p.3.
- 28 The Layout of This Part of the City, *Op. cit.*
- 29 Statement KM3 – Martin McGuinness', *Op. cit.*, p.3-4.
- 30 The Provisional IRA, BSI, <http://report.bloody-sunday-inquiry.org/volume08/chapter147/> [10 September 2010], p.220.
- 31 BSI Transcript – Day 390, *Op. cit.*, p.79. Statement AD33 – Margaret Deery, BSI, http://report.bloody-sunday-inquiry.org/evidence/AD/AD_0033.pdf [10 March 2011], p.1-2.
- 32 Statement M112 – Liam Clarke, BSI, http://report.bloody-sunday-inquiry.org/evidence/M/M_0112.pdf [22 October 2010], p.6.
- 33 The Provisional IRA, BSI, <http://report.bloody-sunday-inquiry.org/volume08/chapter147/> [10 September 2010] p.288.
- 34 Liam Clarke and Kathryn Johnston, *Martin McGuinness: From Guns to Government*, (Edinburgh, 2006), p.72.
- 35 Statement AB112 – Willie Breslin, BSI, http://report.bloody-sunday-inquiry.org/evidence/AB/AB_0112.pdf [14 March 2011], p.9.
- 36 *ibid.*, p.9-10.
- 37 Statement C2225 – Captain INQ 2225, BSI, http://report.bloody-sunday-inquiry.org/evidence/C/C_2225.pdf [3 April 2011], p.7.

- 38 Barney Jones, *BBC News Channel*, The BBC, (2010).
- 39 Tony Blair, *A Journey*, (London, 2010), p.165.
- 40 Henry McDonald, and Richard Norton-Taylor, 38 Years on, Bloody Sunday Killings to be Ruled Unlawful, *The Guardian*, 10 June 2010.
- 41 Her Majesties Stationery Office (HMSO), *The Strategic Defence Review 1998 (SDR)*, (London, 1998), p.206.
- 42 Grahame Allen and Joe Hicks, *A Century of Change: Trends in UK statistics*, (London, 1999), p.6.
- 43 HMSO, *Operation Banner: An Analysis of Military Operations in Northern Ireland*, (London, 2006), p.7 - 1.
- 44 Henry McDonald, and Richard Norton-Taylor, '38 Years on, Bloody Sunday Killings to be Ruled Unlawful', *The Guardian*, 10 June 2010.
- 45 Blair, *Op. cit.*
- 46 Her Majesties Stationery Office (HMSO), *The Strategic Defence Review 1998 (SDR)*, (London, 1998), p. 206. Overstretch was experienced on an individual and regimental level, see Appendix xii for Paragraphs 123 -125 of the SDR for a full explanation of 'overstretch' and 'undermanning'. The author undertook four, six month operational tours within five years, as a result of undermanning and overstretch (Cyprus – November 1989 to June 1990, The Gulf War – November 1990 to May 1991, Northern Ireland – December 1991 to July 1992, Bosnia – March to September 1993). These dates do not include pre-deployment training or leave prior to and after deployment.





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