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Knowledge in Latin America

Desires & Characteristics of Visitors

Highlights

Relations between the USSR & Poland

Surge of Hooliganism in Soviet Belarus

Discovering Thoughts, Inventing Future

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Citizens Unleashed: The Surge of Hooliganism in Soviet Belarus Amidst Khrushchev's 'Thaw'(1953-1968)

By Alexander Huzhalouski
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Abstract- The rise of hooliganism in Soviet Belarus' populous areas between 1953 and 1968 constituted a significant threat to public order. Hooligans disrespected the legal underpinnings of the Soviet state, the rights of individuals, and the capacity of the inhabitants to rest well after a stressful day. Hooligans terrorized lone people during the night, damaging and breaking benches, fences, plants, and lanterns. They also drank alcohol, sang loudly, and spoke, making it difficult for neighbors to sleep. Their false sense of superiority over hooligans' victims boosted their self-esteem. The Belarusian Military District's service members engaged in specific forms of hooliganism against the general populace. After the Gulag was dismantled, a large number of prisoners were released from prison in part due to the rise in hooligan activity. Hooligans were frequently the result of youthful maximalism, legal nihilism, and domestic instability. Due to the aftermath of World War II, a large number of children were raised in single-parent households where the mother worked long hours without giving the next generation the care it needed.

Keywords: *soviet belarus, hooligans, legislation, police, voluntary people's guard, residents, punishment.*

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Alexander Huzhalouski

Abstract- The rise of hooliganism in Soviet Belarus' populous areas between 1953 and 1968 constituted a significant threat to public order. Hooligans disrespected the legal underpinnings of the Soviet state, the rights of individuals, and the capacity of the inhabitants to rest well after a stressful day. Hooligans terrorized lone people during the night, damaging and breaking benches, fences, plants, and lanterns. They also drank alcohol, sang loudly, and spoke, making it difficult for neighbors to sleep. Their false sense of superiority over hooligans' victims boosted their self-esteem. The Belarusian Military District's service members engaged in specific forms of hooliganism against the general populace. After the Gulag was dismantled, a large number of prisoners were released from prison in part due to the rise in hooligan activity. Hooligans were frequently the result of youthful maximalism, legal nihilism, and domestic instability. Due to the aftermath of World War II, a large number of children were raised in single-parent households where the mother worked long hours without giving the next generation the care it needed. Oral traditions, musical works with criminal content, and the "cult of thieves' romance" also had a negative impact. To counteract this phenomenon, legislative measures were implemented, and internal affairs authorities made extensive use of preventive measures including the Voluntary People's Guard and tougher prosecution. There were serious problems with the legal system that made it impossible to completely address the hooliganism issues on Soviet Belarusian territory. These issues included poorly thought-out reforms, inadequately trained personnel, a lack of leisure time for young people, the spread of alcoholism, and outdated infrastructure.

Keywords: soviet belarus, hooligans, legislation, police, voluntary people's guard, residents, punishment.

I. Introduction

In the USSR, behaviors that flagrantly disrupted public order and grossly offended the dignity of others were referred to as "hooliganism," a term that was adopted from English. Hooliganism, which started to pose a major concern in interwar Soviet Belarus, had been a "headache" for the authorities for much of the 20th century. In the 1920s, a stranger, a marginalized person compelled to live in both the traditional and modern cultures, began to arise in Belarusian cities due to the country's modernization process. Émile Durkheim described "anomie" as the loss of social control and predetermination experienced by the former peasants as a result of rapid urbanization (Durkheim, 1897, p. 280). Many migrants really ended up in a state of anomie because they were unable to entirely abandon their country roots and assimilate into city life. A state of demoralization and a weakening of relationships with society, as well as feelings of alienation from people and the meaninglessness of life, were its defining characteristics. Hooliganism, the lower-class counterculture of the city, was born out of all of this.

It developed into a severe, chronic social disease in the post-war Belarusian society that was traumatized by the Nazi invasion and ongoing political purges. The demise of conventional social control mechanisms and the lack of contemporary social self-organization mechanisms coexisted in an environment of rapidly increasing urbanization. As a result, a new wave of socially disoriented individuals emerged, lacking the stable basis of traditional life and failing to develop a new sense of self or social identity.

Thousands of Soviet Belarus residents were imprisoned for three days to five years under the hooliganism crime category during the Khrushchev era for offenses ranging from cursing at a stranger to stabbing him. Hooligans formed one of the largest inmate populations in the penal colonies and labor camps. However, hooligans did not only live in camps and colonies. They slept in the neighbor's flat, prowled every street, and concealed themselves in the courtyard. They worked in collectives. "Rather than being the outcome of extraordinary social change, the Soviet hooligan was a depressingly ordinary and commonplace social character" – argued B. LaPierre, an author of thorough account of state campaigne against hooliganism in Khrushchev's Russia (LaPierre, 2012, p. 8). Katharina Uhl examined hooliganism in Chapter 3 of her PhD thesis through the prism of rhetorics and practicies of fighting against religion and deviant behaviour of the thaw youth (Uhl, 2013, p. 169–191). Elena Zubkova's work, whose arguments find many parallels in the Uhl's thesis placed hooliganism to the "backyard" of Soviet everyday life (Zubkova, 2010, 149–151). In the Republic of Belarus seldom is historical research conducted where the attention is centred on the deviant factors that are influencing social development of the nation in the 20th century. The goal of this study is to fill the vacuum.

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Reconstructing events and describing the characteristics of the campaign against hooligans that were implemented in Soviet Belarus can significantly enhance our knowledge of the scope and varieties of this phenomenon in the USSR throughout the 1950s and 1960s. The study used the "new cultural history" methodology, which incorporates leisure history. The author employs the methods of historical anthropology, which focuses on common discourses and practices, by drawing on a significant body of archival data and a wide range of published resources (newspapers, magazines, special journals).

II. Blood on the Asphalt

The hooliganism problem was compounded by the initial liberalization efforts undertaken following Stalin's death. After March 27, 1953 order of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, 29,734 amnesties were registered on the Soviet Belarusian territory (NARB, F. 4p., Inv. 62, File 389, Sh. 2). A considerable proportion of these individuals were socially disoriented people with a criminal past. Many of them saw the waning of governmental repressive lines as an indication of its frailty, which aided in the increased criminalization of society. On the other hand, Nikita Khrushchev assigned the duty of complete eradication of crime to the police, courts, prosecutor's office, and the entire Soviet society after announcing at the 20th CPSU Congress the path for the development of communism. The government began to focus on hooliganism as the most visible crime that undermined the façade of the "country of the future".

In November 1956 Belarusian Minister of Justice Ivan Vietraŭ informed the Communist Party leadership of the steadily rising number of persons convicted of hooliganism. There were 1,590 of these individuals in 1948, 2,191 in 1950, 2,425 in 1952, 2,959 in 1954, 2,968 in 1955, and 2,483 in the first half of 1956. During the same period, approximately 16,000 people were charged "for violation of public order" by administrative commissions – public entities for crime prevention under local government. The regions of Minsk, Homiel, and Viciebsk had the highest number of hooliganism incidents. Workers were responsible for 58% of all hooligan incidents, followed by collective farmers (29%), white collars (7%), students (5%), and unemployed (1%). 96% of the crimes were perpetrated by drunken individuals (NARB, F. 4p., Inv. 62, File 450, Sh. 749–751).

In 1956, news reports of hooligan behavior in Belarus looked like reports from the war lines. "Railway workers from the Minsk station in suburban trains drunkenly insulted passengers, conductors and inspectors, started fights, broke stop valves, stopped trains, created a threat to safe traffic", reported the most popular Belarusian newspaper (Losev, 1956). According to the newspaper regional correspondent, "...hooligan Pastušenka was taken into custody following his knife-killing of a female in the heart of Mahileu, close to the regional police headquarters. Before he had been arrested by the municipal police for using brass knuckles to attack a civilian in the vicinity of the "Dnipro" restaurant." (Gur, 1956). "The teacher of technical school, who was on duty in the student dormitory and stood up for a female student, was killed by a hooligan with a knife" in the same Belarusian city (Prokudovich, 1956). Most of the time, people were scared to confront irate hooligans and to report incidents to the police.

There was a demographic reason for the growth of hooliganism as well. The majority of hooligans during the "thaw" were young men who had lost their parents to the Second World War and were left on their own. Even young people from wealthy families, who were not inclined to deviant behavior, were provoked by the hooligan romance – boldness in behavior bolstered by a knife or a club in the pocket, as well as gangster jargon, songs, and tattoos. For instance, the sons of Deputy Minister of Communal Services and director of Minsk secondary technical school, rose to prominence in a critical essay published in the Young Communist League newspaper in 1954. The first heir was engaged in a knife fight, while the other attempted to rob a taxi driver (Krynicki, 1954). In 1956, the newspaper devoted a special article to the son of Deputy Minister of Internal Affairs, who was blamed for hooligan behaviour (Piercaŭ, 1956).

Individuals under 25 accounted for over 45% of all those brought to criminal responsibility in Soviet Belarus in 1960. 3,117, or 30.6%, of the 8,598 inmates housed in 13 penal labor colonies operational in the republic on January 1, 1959, were persons under the age of twenty-five. Hooligans comprised the largest group of prisoners (2,125), with 1,228 young individuals. In Soviet Belarus school-age children rose by about 50% between 1956 and 1965. Juvenile delinquency increased along with the number of teenagers. In the republic, 6,340 people between 12 and 18 were found guilty between 1954 and 1958 (including 1,020 in 1954, 1,066 in 1955, 1,482 in 1956, 1,316 in 1957, and 1,456 in 1958). Of them, 1,566 for theft of state property, 1,416 for theft of private property, 1,379 for hooliganism, 234 for rape, 100 for murder, and 1,248 for other offenses resulted in a person's deprivation of liberty. In Minsk, the capital of Belarus, 17.5% of all crimes in 1965 were perpetrated by children (NARB, F. 4p., Inv. 62, File 517, Sh. 64).

Public order violators typically belonged to gangs of young men and teenagers based on where they lived, worked, or attended school. Usually, an unofficial figurehead served as their leader. For instance, "Peraselsky," "Cosmonauts," "Shanghai

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people," and others were active in the relevant Hrodna districts. Residents of Barysau, Baranavichy, Orsha, and other Belarusian cities were terrified by similar youth organizations.

Gang members were frequently at odds with one another and controlled a specific area. Occasionally, this hatred would show itself in street-by-street and district-by-district brawls. Hooligan fights, particularly during the evening and night, were violent and occasionally resulted in fatalities or significant injuries. Such a collective fight took place on May 3, 1964, in the area of Minsk's Opera and Ballet Theater. The police apprehended eighteen individuals and confiscated metal sticks and knives from them (NARB, F. 4p., Inv. 65, File 145, Sh. 98).

Hooliganism frequently took the form of random beatings and even killings of bystanders in public spaces. Most teenagers looking for "romance" were doing similar things. Among these "romantics" was a young man named Aliaksiej Hryhorjeŭ, an apprentice turner at the Minsk plant of automatic lines. He and two companions walked out into the street in September 1964, completely inebriated, and started beating everyone they came across. They used their fists after stopping onlookers by asking, "Wait, where are you going?" (Saroka, 1966).

Sexual assault was widespread. For instance, one of the tenants of the Luban hemp plant describes how a day off was spent in the workers' dormitory there: "On Saturday, eight girls went to work in the third shift, and the three of us stayed at home." Thus, following our bedtime, there's a knock on the door. We were neither alive nor dead and it was already late. How terrifying it was! A group of thugs began smashing the door. They inserted a knife into the keyhole, and the knife nearly cut my hand as I held the key from the inside. After that, they began taking the windows' glass out. We were sobbing and trembling with terror. These hooligans broke into our room the following day and made us cry. How ought we to proceed? Here, not even the police can solve the problem. This is not how you should live." (Firshteyn, 1965).

In some situations, the girls, driven to desperation, launched a counteroffensive, ejecting drunken swearers with their cigarette butts in their lips and restoring order to the dance floors (Kobryn, 1958).

Hooligan groups weren't limited to using dance floors. Every day, they removed the visitors' leather gloves and tore off their fur hats on the rink of the Minsk "Charčavik" stadium. Hooligans burst into movie theaters, beer halls, and clubs, staging brawls and beating up people inside. Three young men wearing Voluntary People's Guard armbands broke into the "Pioneer" theater in Minsk in January 1967 and caused severe bodily harm to two local laborers "out of hooliganism." Ivan Harkuša, the rector of the Belarusian Agricultural School, made an application to the city council in 1956 to urge the establishment of a permanent police station in the school due to the rise in violent incidents, which included students beating lecturers (Piskarev, 1956).

Hooliganism led to the commission of more serious crimes, such as the 1966 murder of young writer Ihar Chadanovič, whose Belarusian literary language was a source of offense for the Minsk street thugs (Hienijuš, 2005, p. 52). The following year, Uładzimir Karnacki, a student at the Minsk Cadet School, was murdered on a skating rink in the capital's Central Square. At the same time, Brest's citizens wrote in their collective letter to the CPSU Central Committee: "People are afraid to go out due to frequent cases of hooliganism in our city, one of which ended in murder on November 7." (NARB, F. 4p., Inv. 65, File 164, Sh. 156).

The criminal acts of the Belarusian Military District service members added to the image of hooligan terror. Officers' ability to regulate troop behavior was undermined by Nikita Khrushchev's armed forces reforms, which began in the middle of the 1950s and resulted in a sharp decline in the number of officers. Specific soldiers and sergeants resorted to hooligan activity as a means of relieving psychological stress due to limitations placed on their freedom and the demands of living under stringent regulations. During their holidays, soldiers stole personal property from civilians, tried to rape women, and consumed enormous amounts of alcohol. Clashes between the locals and the troops revealed the typical pattern of "us versus them" warfare. Many people took part in these battles, some of which resulted in fatalities or significant injuries.

In the statistics of those convicted in 1959 by the Belarusian Military District Prosecutor's office for disciplinary offenses, in addition to 341 military personnel, 83 workers of military construction units were mentioned. This was unproportionally large number. Many of the military builders who served in these paramilitary organizations were uneducated, had criminal histories, and lacked self-control. The most violent conflict behaviors were documented here, including rapes, group fights, and disobedience to commanders. These incidents were frequently followed by pogroms of administrative and residential buildings. One of such military-organized pogroms, which coincided with the beating of Ivan Savienka, the chairman of the collective farm "Dawn of Communism" in the Brest region and a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Belarus was discussed by the republic's party leadership in 1960 (NARB, F. 4p., Inv. 62, File 541, Sh. 18–20).

The image of a society that was leaving behind the final remnants of capitalism and heading toward a promising communist future was tarnished by widespread hooliganism. Getting rid of it was imperative.

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III. Legislators, Law Enforcers, and Educators

Hooligans were subject to penalties under Article 107 of the Soviet Belarus Criminal Code of 1928. Its first clause punished comparable acts in public spaces with up to a year in prison. By the second clause of the same article, repeat offenders risked up to five years in prison for similar offenses that were made worse by specific rudeness, resistance to the authorities, etc. The 1928 Criminal Code defined hooliganism as "arbitrary acts connected with an obvious insult to society or an individual" (Criminal Code of the Belarusian SSR, 1928).

The resolution "On responsibility for petty hooliganism" was adopted by the Supreme Soviet of the Belarusian Soviet Socialist Republic on December 30, 1956, in response to the stream of worker complaints to the Communist Party and Soviet bodies. This paper broadened the definition of deviant citizen behavior by introducing the term "petty hooliganism" into domestic legal practice. It was perceived as a breach of public order and peace, obscenity, and other indecent behavior in a public setting, all of which were previously outside the purview of law enforcement. Similar offenses were punishable by administrative responsibility and imprisonment ranging from three to fifteen days.

A day after the police sent the materials on petty hooliganism, the judge considered them together with the summons of the hooligan and, if needed, witnesses. The judge's decision was final and could not be challenged. Petty hooligans were forced to perform physical labor while serving their time in a sentence (Collection of Laws, 1956).

Numerous petty hooligans were indeed taken aback by fifteen days-long incarceration for engaging in the traditional rituals of their muscular world – drinking, cursing, and fighting. What made matters worse was the reality that any action that deviated from the Soviet way of life could have been classified as petty hooliganism due to the broad definition of the new notion. For example, ideology utilized the youth's love of American jazz music and dancing, as well as European fashion clothes and hairstyles, to justify their hooligan behavior.

It should be mentioned that courts' consideration of "hooligan" cases was not always flawless. Judges have occasionally given seasoned offenders incredibly light punishments. As a result, two Homiel residents who had stabbed several people were given a probationary period rather than being imprisoned by the court (Maskievič, 1961). There were cases when first-time criminals were unreasonable punished by the courts. One such first-time offender was a Mścisłaŭ Agricultural School student who was given a four-year term for smashing windows in a public building. (NARB, F. 4p., Inv. 62, File 450, Sh. 772).

At the beginning of 1957, the courts punished petty hooligans in large numbers and without special formalities. In June 1957, the Ministry of Internal Affairs reported to the republic's party leadership that "between January and April 1957, the Belarusian people's judges, according to the materials handed over from the police, arrested 15,567 people for petty hooliganism. Of them, 1,531 persons are under 18, 4,777 persons are under 25, and 9,259 are over 25. There are 251 communists and 1,527 Young Communist League members among those detained". Judges declined to bring charges against police officers for petty hooliganism in 520 cases within the allotted period because there were insufficient justifications (NARB, F. 4p, Inv. 62, File 467, Sh. 217–218).

A housewife who "was always arguing with the neighbors" and a theatrical actor who had been arrested while intoxicated were among those found guilty of petty hooliganism. However, the overwhelming majority of those convicted were male workers whom the judges sent to humiliating jobs, like street and sewer cleaning.

The Belarusian Supreme Court documents show a tendency for the criminal prosecution of hooligans to decline while concurrently pushing them more aggressively into administrative responsibility:

Years	1960	1961	1962
Total number of Soviet Belarus residents prosecuted for hooliganism	35,965	40,823	44,194
Convicted under the criminal article	4,616	3,293	3 018
Convicted under the resolution on petty hooliganism	31,349	37,530	41 76

(NARB, F. 4p., Inv. 62, File 638, Sh. 152)

The Soviet legislation was gradually becoming more humane, a trend reflected in the imposition of administrative responsibility for petty hooliganism. Workers' collectives held meetings across the nation intending to restore normalcy to the lives of criminals. The USSR's Supreme Soviet adopted a document titled "The Basics of Criminal Law of the USSR and the Union Republics" in December 1958. The document discussed expanding the use of persuasion and crime prevention techniques and enhancing the public's role in defending socialist law and order. Following this instruction, the Belarusian prosecutor's office observed a 27% drop in

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arrest warrants issued in 1959 over 1958. The CPSU Central Committee's secret letter, "On increasing the role of the public in the fight against crime and violations of public order," played a part in further reducing the severity of hooligans' criminal penalties.

The humanization of Soviet legislation was reflected in the new Belarusian Criminal Code of 1960, which released hooligans from criminal responsibility and transferred their cases to the courts of their comrades if they beat or insulted citizens or caused light bodily harm for the first time. Even more compassionate treatment for hooligans who "did not represent a significant public danger" was allowed by Article 50 of the new Code, which called for their transfer to workers' collectives for reeducation. At the same time, hooligans were classified as "petty" or "malicious" under Article 201, which carried a maximum 5-year prison sentence for the latter category. Petty hooligans might have been fined up to 50 rubles or sentenced to up to a year of correctional labor if they were found guilty of administrative infractions, which happened twice a year. Changes were made to article 100, "Murder under aggravating circumstances," in addition to the "hooligan" article. The new clause addressing the "hooligan intentions" arose in the new Code. (Criminal Code of the Belarusian SSR, 1961, p. 23, 42).

On October 13, 1961 the Supreme Soviet of the Belarusian Soviet Socialist Republic approved the "Regulations on Comrades' Courts" (Regulations on Comrades' Courts, 1961). During its implementation in 1962, the collective of workers turned over 4,857 individuals for reeducation, and comrades' courts took up 2,542 cases. The media made every effort to publicize the courts' efforts to bring misbehaving comrades back to active communist construction. In less than three months, the comrades' court of the collective farm in Vetka district heard over thirty cases, according to the publication "Sovetskaya Belorussia": "Those who had gone through the court are now actively working, behaving well in everyday life." (Kormachev, 1962). The "Regulations on Comrades' Courts" were amended by the Supreme Soviet in December 1963 with the intention to enhance their authority. One of these amendments permitted comrades' courts to sentence petty hooligans to 15 days of menial work.

The legislation on commissions for minors was enacted by the presidium of the Supreme Soviet of Soviet Belarus on November 30, 1961. Their primary responsibilities were "prevention of juvenile delinquency, implementation of measures to combat minors' neglect, as well as placement of children and adolescents and protection of their rights." (Collection of laws, 1961). They were established under the executive committees of district, municipal, and regional councils. Summer camps for "difficult teenagers" were run by the Young Communist League and were present throughout the republic by the middle of the 1960s. To rehabilitate the most recalcitrant young offenders, two labor and one educational camp were established. The idea of physical labor in the collective as the most crucial element of educating and reeducating children and adolescents was established by the plenum of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Belarus in April 1960 (NARB, F. 4p., Inv. 62, File 529, Sh. 7).

IV. Voluntary People's Guard

A crucial tool in the struggle against hooliganism was the Voluntary People's Guard. This public organization was established in accordance with the March 2, 1959, joint resolution of the USSR Council of Ministers and the CPSU Central Committee, "On the participation of the workers in the maintanance of public order." The Guard was not subordinated to militsiya and the management staff was recruited from various organizations: Soviets, trade unions, Young Communist, etc. The Guard's duties included working with the police to prevent and stop public order infractions and educating the populace. The Militsiya Support Brigades, which debuted in 1956 concurrently with the Belarusian Supreme Soviet's resolution "On responsibility for petty hooliganism," were the prototypes of the Voluntary People's Guard units.

Immediately after the publication of the resolution "On the participation of the workers in the maintenance of public order", the activities of the newly formed units acquired a more organized character. Their tasks, powers and forms of work were defined. City and district headquarters headed by the Communist Party secretaries of city and district committees were established. As of April 25, 1959, there were 4,260 units were operating in the republic, where 92,724 people joined, including 6,440 women. The first Voluntary People's Guard unit emerged in rural areas (NARB, F. 4p, Inv. 62, File 503, Sh. 110–113).

People's Guard units were established in industrial enterprises, collective farms, educational institutions, and household management. One group tasked with maintaining public order in Homiel comprised retired military personnel and civil pensioners. The way that public food establishments operate in Minsk was examined by Technical College students. Traffic police squads were allocated volunteer helpers. The Belarusian Voluntary People's Guard prevented more than 800 crimes in 1959 alone. They also arrested over 200 offenders and 5,000 people who disobeyed traffic and public order regulations (NARB, F. 4p., Inv. 62, File 528, Sh. 184).

The Voluntary People's Guard was identified by the wearing of red breast badges and armbands, which were provided together with a certificate of unit membership. They typically patrolled city streets and public areas in groups of several persons keeping an eye on public order. The Guard members could arrest

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someone and bring them to the police station, among other extensive powers. It was frequently challenging to put these powers into effect in reality. Alcohol-fueled public order violators were unwilling to comply with the remarks and even attacked Guard members.

The resolution "On increasing responsibility for an attempt on the life, health, and dignity of police officers and Voluntary People's Guard members" was adopted by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR on February 15, 1962, in response to the rise in incidents of criminals acting aggressively toward squad members. One of the first to get this "increasing responsibility" was Vitebsk resident Ivanoŭ who refused to obey the order of Guard local unit member Vasil Rybkin and stabbed him multiple times during a fight in the cafeteria. As per the ruling of the court, the hooligan received a death sentence. The survivor Vasil Rybkin was given the Order of the Red Star (Andryushchenko, 1974, p. 47–53). About 100 Guard members had already received orders and medals by the time of the second meeting of the Belarusian Voluntary People's Guard in March 1967.

By the mid-1960s, when official statistics claimed that there were 150,000 Guard members in Soviet Belarus, structural weaknesses in their operations were evident. To enroll every young person in the local units, the officials made an effort to cover 100% of the population. For instance, many of the 5,397 Guard members of Baranavičy did not have armbands or certificates, and many did not know their responsibilities or privileges. Almost no patrolling of the districts occurred, and the Guard members' only responsibility was to show up once a month for work at the unit headquarters, where they were granted time off. Members of the Mahiloŭ Guard took off their armbands and joined the group in dancing as soon as they arrived in the city park "on duty." In addition, the Guard members had an "unhealthy tendency" to consume alcohol while carrying out their responsibilities to maintain public order. There were moments when it had scandalous results. For instance, the commander of the Baranavičy meat processing plant unit was taken to the drunk tank while carrying out his duties (Zyan'kovich, 1966).

On the other hand, it was seen that the Guard members occasionally went above and beyond their abilities. A comparable circumstance arose in Kosava (Brest region) when hooliganism was eradicated "as a phenomenon" by the city's unit. The local Guard men called as "bouncers with red armbands" because of the severe force used in this process. A personal grudge would occasionally arise from the conflict with hooligans. For instance, the unit of the Belarusian Institute of Physical Culture conducted a "Komsomol raid" in Minsk city park with about 200 participants following the severe beating of a student there on the dance floor (Bakievich, R. 1965).

V. New Effort to Tame Hooligans

Insofar as law enforcement, the Voluntary People's Guard, Comrades Courts, and workers' collectives were involved, hooliganism persisted as one of the most severe societal issues during the early part of the 1960s. People experienced dread, despair, and dissatisfaction due to the rise of hooliganism. They demanded that punitive measures be tightened to the greatest extent possible because they were unhappy with how the government handled hooliganism. This is demonstrated by the letters that the Belarusians regularly wrote to the Communist Party leadership.

"Last year, our settlement was simply overwhelmed by a wave of banditry," a Minsk ball-bearing industrial settlement resident wrote to Kiryła Mazuraŭ, the first secretary of the Belarusian Communist Party, in April 1963. "There is no sign of the police. You should not trust them if they tell you that there are police posts here. During the day, you could occasionally see police officers on the Mahiloŭ Highway whistling at someone who accidentally crosses the path. There is no protection when it becomes dark, so you are free to kill, rob, or do anything you please. One fine evening on December 5, 1962, an eighteen-year-old student in the 23rd evening school's 10th grade was fatally stabbed on Narodnaja Street. At the same time, the second guy sustained critical injuries. My daughter, 17, has already been the victim of two knife-wielding attacks by criminals. She was almost killed and sexually assaulted in our entry by a rascal who followed her from the bus stop. Saved at that moment by a neighbor who just so happened to be outside. It is impossible to live, work, or study normally in such a circumstance." (NARB, F. 4p., Inv. 65, File 140, Sh. 132).

A citizen of Babrujsk submitted an anonymous letter concerning the situation in her town to Leonid Brezhnev, the first secretary of the CPSU Central Committee, in January 1965: "We are restless, hooliganism is raging fiercely... The injured are in hospitals, a great deal of innocent people are suffering, etc. Some are killed, depriving children and single wives of their parents. One cannot oppose hooligans. They move in large numbers and are equipped with cold weaponry. Our city's elite don't worry about other people since they have taken care of themselves and their kids, who are employed in lucrative positions and education." (NARB, F. 4p., Inv. 65, File 148, Sh. 116).

The CPSU Central Committee Secretariat in Moscow received an appeal from the Baranavičy Machine Building Plant workers in September 1965, describing the state of affairs in their city as "alarming": "Innocent people have been killed by hooligans more frequently in recent times. The law enforcement authorities fail to take appropriate action against them, neutralize them, and stop the killings. Citizens may no longer travel through some areas at night or in the

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evening without running the risk of being physically attacked, robbed, and stripped of their belongings. These hazardous locations are known to police authorities. These include the textile mill, the pedestrian bridge at the Baranavichy railway station, the city market etc." (NARB, F. 4p., Inv. 65, File 151, Sh. 185).

A new campaign against hooligans was announced with the July 26, 1966, decree "On increasing responsibility for hooliganism" by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

Its writers suggested reclassifying this kind of offense. It was now separated into three categories: hooliganism (severe breaches of public order), malevolent hooliganism (the same acts conducted with unusual cynicism and particular daring), and petty hooliganism (obscene swearing in public places, insulting attitude towards people, etc.). The decree stipulated a wide range of penalties, ranging from a fine to seven years in jail. In particular, using a knife, brass knuckles, or other cold weapon or simply attempting to use one was punishable by severe criminal responsibility, which might last anywhere between three and seven years. For petty hooliganism, administrative responsibility was now brought from 16 years, and if a minor committed a hooligan act twice a year, he was criminally liable. The responsibility of parents of juvenile hooligans, who were subject to fines, was increased. If the hooligan received a prison term of more than five years, he had to serve 2/3 of that term in a colony of enhanced regime. Citizens who stopped hooliganism were equated in the decree with police officers and the Voluntary People's Guard (Decree, 1966).

The police officers' outward look slightly changed after the decree "On increasing responsibility for hooliganism" was adopted; rubber batons started to appear on their weapons. They were permitted to be employed to "restrain the crimes of hooligans and other criminals, as well as against violators of public order who refuse to comply with the lawful demands of police officers, to protect against attacks on police officers or Voluntary People's Guard members, officials, state, public organizations and citizens." Simultaneously, it was utterly prohibited for police officers to use batons against women, children, older and the disabled people. They were also banned from using batons within police stations.

The 1966 decree's sweeping understanding of the hooliganism phenomena led to issues with implementing of laws about accountability for it. Such a broad reading has occasionally led to unfair verdicts. In the annals of Soviet Belarus's legal system, one such ruling led to a great tragedy. The murder of laborer Aliaksandr Nikałajeŭski by communist Hienadź Hapanovič, a member of the local city executive committee, was classified as malicious hooliganism by a Slutsk court in October 1967. Mass riots broke out in response to the judge's attempt to save the government representative from a just penalty, which resulted in the burning of the courthouse, the deaths of a judge and a police officer, and several injuries to troops (NARB, F. 4p., Inv. 65, File 161, Sh. 3–4).

VI. Conclusion

The USSR's internal political climate changed once Nikita Khrushchev took office, and the public declarations of his intention to build communism in the shortest possible term impacted on the decision to punish hooliganism more severely to eradicate it. Preventive work was given much attention among the local populace, particularly the youth. The Ministry of Internal Affairs received substantial assistance from Voluntary People's Guard in maintaining public order. However, police personnel played a crucial role in maintaining security in the Belarusian cities.

The time frame under examination in Belarus marks the pinnacle of hooliganism's growth as a distinct social phenomena and a nascent, semi-criminal subculture. The examination of historical materials and the local press reveals the detrimental impact of hooliganism on inhabitants' daily lives, exacerbating the city's overall decline in crime rates. The majority of hooligan charges were harassing strangers, damaging property, and being done while intoxicated on public streets. These crimes were frequently perpetrated without apparent cause. Hooliganism also frequently served as a breeding ground for other, more serious crimes including rape, robbery, and murder.

Due to unresolved social and economic conflicts in a socialist society, a low legal culture among the populace, and severe deficiencies in the operations of law enforcement authorities, hooliganism was never entirely eradicated in Soviet Belarus. In the years of Brezhnev's "stagnation", hooligans continued to be an essential part of daily life despite all the efforts made by the government to combat them. The attempts with legislation in the late 1950s and early 1960s caused more harm than good. Many of young people in Belarusian Soviet society were still living in a state of anomie, making it impossible for them to participate in the social and political life of the country, which contributed to the persistence of deviant types of conduct.

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Illustrations

1. A police sergeant speaks with a hooligan on one of the streets in Minsk. 1955. Belarusian State Archive of Audiovisual Documents (BSAAVD). 0-148188
2. A youth room officer of the Minsk police department converses with teenagers from disadvantaged families. 1955. BSAAVD. 1-015920
3. Voluntary People's Guard of the Minsk Automatic Line Plant on duty. 1961. BSAAVD. 035209

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The Problem of the Inauthenticity of Knowledge in Latin America

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Abstract- In Latin America, the production of scientific knowledge in the human sciences in general, and sociology in particular, has been characterized by a double concern. On the one hand, the arrival of ideas, concepts and theories from outside the continent continues to cause strangeness as to their relevance and suitability for a different social and economic context. On the other hand, as a way out of this nonconformity, there has been a search for a common epistemological basis about ourselves that would underpin and clarify this singularity. It is argued that an alternative to overcome this uncertainty lies in the Latin America's condition of dependence, that is, in the specific way in which we are inserted into the world capitalist system, as a fundamental element in understanding or explaining recurring impasses and challenging novelties. In fact, it is about strengthening a fruitful tradition, which has provided us with great insights into countless objects of study.

Keywords: *latin America, dependence, knowledge, sociology, inauthenticity.*

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The Problem of the Inauthenticity of Knowledge in Latin America

Fernando Neves

Abstract- In Latin America, the production of scientific knowledge in the human sciences in general, and sociology in particular, has been characterized by a double concern. On the one hand, the arrival of ideas, concepts and theories from outside the continent continues to cause strangeness as to their relevance and suitability for a different social and economic context. On the other hand, as a way out of this nonconformity, there has been a search for a common epistemological basis about ourselves that would underpin and clarify this singularity. It is argued that an alternative to overcome this uncertainty lies in the Latin America's condition of dependence, that is, in the specific way in which we are inserted into the world capitalist system, as a fundamental element in understanding or explaining recurring impasses and challenging novelties. In fact, it is about strengthening a fruitful tradition, which has provided us with great insights into countless objects of study.

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Introduction

The question of the "idea and its place", of its origin and appropriation elsewhere, of the genesis of concepts and the effectiveness of their application, is not restricted to the ordinary tasks of scientific activity, since it has a decisive relationship with the theme of power. This characteristic affects therefore the different fields of research, which imposes permanent difficulties for the models of production of knowledge that are to be considered valid.

In Latin America, although it was more related to philosophy and political thought (ARDAO, 1991; BONDY, 1969, 1986; DUSSEL, 2011; MIRÓ QUESADA, 1981; ZEA, 1976, 1978, 1986), the concern with the *problem of the inauthenticity of knowledge* also occurred, in different ways, in other disciplines (O'GORMAN, 1977; STAVENHAGEN, 1972; IANNI, 1976), creating a fundamental dilemma for intellectuals, the foundation of a critical procedure with permanent impacts, in order to construct a "proper" counter-discourse in opposition to the theoretical matrices coming from European modernity in crisis[1].

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[1] A synthesis of this program was elaborated by Enrique Dussel (2011, p. 179), based on the proposals of the "Philosophy of Liberation": "The hypothesis is the following: it seems it is possible to philosophize in the periphery, in underdeveloped and dependent nations, in dominated and colonial cultures, in a peripheral social formation, from the exploited and popular classes, only if one does not imitate the discourse of the philosophy of the center, only if one discovers another discourse. This discourse, being radically other, must have another point of departure, must think other themes, must arrive at different conclusions and with a different method. This is the hypothesis, the program. The present work is intended as an outline of what should be the first provisional philosophical theoretical framework of such a discourse. In other words, it is necessary not only not to conceal but to start from the center-periphery, dominator-dominated, capital-work, totality-externality asymmetry, and from this point rethink everything that has been thought up to now. But, more than that, to think what has never been thought: the very process of liberation of the dependent and peripheral peoples. The theme is the very praxis of liberation; the option for such praxis is the beginning of a philosophical proto-discourse. Politics introduces ethics, and ethics introduces philosophy".

Following this critical procedure, the perception of an original reality has contrasted the theoretical waves at every step of history, as if to challenge the strength of strange theories at every moment, in a kind of ring of knowledge, not merely to defeat them at all costs, but to expose their limits and inadequacies. However, the indistinction between common patterns and specific features of production of knowledge, which emerge from the very same social realities investigated, seems to serve more to compartmentalize reflections than to integrate them dialectically. Even so, Leopoldo Zea's (1976) version of the problem leaves no doubt as to the need for a deeper and more consequential epistemological break:

> Latin American made use of ideas that were relatively strange to them in order to face their reality: illustration, eclecticism, liberalism, positivism and, in recent years, marxism, liberalism and existentialism. In each of these cases, in the acceptance of this influence, the central idea in the mind of the Latin American was to make of his America a world on a par with the so-called Western world; of its peoples, nations similar to the great Western nations (p. 28).

But this requirement to adopt a theoretical orientation away from the canons of Europe and United States without a clear point of attachment to the social and economic gears that promote and eternalize all forms of colonialism in Latin America ends up mirroring its opposite: the emergence of a more exacerbated particularism that only reverses the signs of the equation. In this way, a broader understanding of the perpetuation of power differences in the interstate system of the capitalist world-economy (ARRIGHI, 1994; WALLERSTEIN, 1996) and the logic of internal

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domination corresponding to each political formation (MARINI, 1976) is often overlooked.

Gino Germani (1964) had already noted this problem in the case of sociology, although he restricted himself to defending the universality of science, "sociology as a science in general", given its collective and accumulative nature. But this resulted, on the other hand, in a contradictory position that disregarded the contingencies of scientific activity in the international arena, both from the point of view of each specific case and the comparison between them:

> insofar as science – sociology included – is supranational and represents the result of the joint efforts of men from different times and different countries, no nation, taken in isolation, can hope to maintain a utopian intellectual autarky, which, moreover, would imply stagnation and sterility for science at both the national and universal levels. (…) The universality of science – and of its contributions – does not derive from the blind application of theoretical models, wherever they come from, but from the continuous interaction between theory and concrete reality. (GERMANI, *ibd.*, p. 03-04).

This naturalization of scientific neutrality was part of his project to found a "scientific sociology", in order to establish the variants of the discipline in each "concrete reality", even if he didn't fully consider them in all their variables. In other words, for him, it was simply a question of promoting a methodological adjustment that would allow him to maintain a safe distance from the material and political conditioning factors involved in founding "a serious scientific tradition" (GERMANI, *ibd.*, p. 05), in carrying out research and in the formation of a community of researchers (available public and private research funds, the creation of libraries and laboratories, budget disputes, the awarding of scholarships, stable positions in teaching and research centers, the financing of publications, the reception and maintenance of students at universities, etc.), as well as bypassing hierarchies that emerge from these differences in scientific and technological development, not to mention the unequal distribution of results. Thus, for the author,

> the reception of theories from different societies or times presents itself as a *problem*, a problem that can be solved to perfection by using the general procedures of scientific knowledge. That is, it is a question of a purely methodological kind; a question, moreover, that arises in any country, whether or not it is a *producer* or *dependent* country in terms of the creation of theories (GERMANI, *ibd.*, p. 04-05).

However, contrary to this ideal of universal science, the defense of a consequent epistemological break presupposes dealing with the fetishized and multifaceted forms of domination in fundamentally capitalist ways, observable in any society, cultural tradition or historical singularity. It is therefore necessary to unravel, beyond the development of possible alternative routes, the effects of the forms of expansion of the society of merchandise, and the inexorability of the world market that underlies it, on the production of knowledge in general. But for Germani, these questions, which certainly refer to the "cultural imperialism" and "intellectual colonialism" he criticizes, are all in the realm of "ideology", and his defense of science in that of "objectivity". Nevertheless, it is precisely the opposite that is observed when the issues mentioned are not disregarded: "objectivity" as if seeking to precede and deny "ideology".

In contrast, as we know, the incorporation of modern theories produced in Europe and United States, which mainly date back to the reception of liberal ideas in the 19th century, in the context of the independence processes of the nascent Latin American nations, did not occur in a uniform way here: it was made up of specific mediations of the oligarchic political system of that time, in line with the progressive insertion of countries into the international division of labor. The construction of nations required, right then, a doctrinal body to underpin and direct it (RETAMAR, 1971; ZEA, 1976; ARDAO, 1991; SANTANA, 1992), in a search for our own form of expression, through the superimposition and fusion of cultural elements (UREÑA, 1980, p, 95). However, the independence movements did not form a coherent and harmonious whole, since economic and cultural dependence and internal social contradictions were at odds with the project of political emancipation from Europe. Simón Bolívar had already noted these difficulties in his *Letter from Jamaica* (2020), highlighting our common cultural traits and customs that could eventually support the necessary unity of peoples, as well as orient strategies to overcome the military obstacles of breaking with the European metropolis.

After all, much more than understanding that "upside-down" reality in an autonomous way, it was up to these movements to justify the new order from which they benefited. Despite all, this was our starting point, our common intellectual heritage, because before, "under colonial domination, the region was not in a position to produce its own ideas: it imported them ready-made from the metropolis, either by absorbing those brought to it by the intellectuals who came from there, or by sending its educated men, its literates, to appropriate them" (MARINI, 2008, p. 238).

Thus, the effort to think of oneself based on the reflections of others expressed, at that time, the condition of dependence in favor of the local ruling classes. This situation of limitations in the search for and selection of conceptual references closer to the Latin American social and historical context would not change afterwards, and the greater or lesser extent of acceptance of these epistemological exchanges, which were practically one-way, corresponded, in turn, to the form of the material exchanges between the rising

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political formations. In this way, the predominance of certain ideas conformed to the economic foundations that emerged along with the new patterns of colonialist actions and their resilient local means of domination, ultimately re-establishing the relationship between a given dominant social and economic system and the dominant ideas that accompany and justify it[2].

Although the incongruities of the economic and social base (summarized in the institutes of servitude, slavery and, in particular, favor[3]) hindered the safe anchoring of liberal novelties (SCHWARZ, 2000, p. 10-31), this encounter with European modernity would be the pillar of Latin America's "mental emancipation" (ZEA, 1972), referenced above all in positivism (ZEA, 1976, p. 223-383), and whose meanings would remain in dispute (BONDY, 1969; ZEA, 1969). This continuing relationship thus would represent the late result of the singular process of economic and cultural development set in motion since the colonial period.

At this point, the aforementioned problem of knowledge on the Latin American continent was gradually formalized, *the intersections between what is proper and what is external*, which involves the conceptualization of this plural and diverse reality, both from a historical point of view and in terms of languages and cultural expressions. Since then, the meaning of the question posed by Carlos M. Rama (1977), "Is there Latin America?", has been revisited over and over again, and the most recent answers to it (ALTAMIRANO, 2021) restore the divergences observed in each period.

On the one hand, the focus on the symbolic apparatus involved in this definition and the disputes over meaning that accompany it, that is, the constant search for a univocal "cultural identity" that flattens this evident diversity, has made it difficult to define an object of study with unequivocal contours in order to establish a common epistemological basis about ourselves. On the other hand, there is no country, of any latitude, in Latin America without divided and hierarchized societies, marked by generalized violence and a deep economic abyss between its social classes (FERNANDES, 2008). For this reason, perhaps we should base the most general characteristic to guide our common reflections on these universal difficulties and sufferings, which makes it both possible and necessary to consider Latin America as a "unity", or as a "specific whole", at the same time empirical and political.

But this suggestion does not correspond to an original proposition, it is just an indication of the convenience of strengthening, with possible reservations, a line of reflection established by the most diverse Latin American authors[4] as clear authenticity in the production of knowledge in the human sciences in general and sociology in particular. In any case, which guidelines should be used for the methodological framework of this "unity"? On what level does it present itself most consistently? How will this affect the content of epistemological reflections among us?

As might be expected, given the international transit of ideas and the continuous expansion of the global capitalist market, there are many lines of continuity here with what happened in Europe or United States in terms of the development and dissemination of concepts and theories, although, as we have seen, fruitful attempts to nuance this genesis according to our historical and social specificities stand out. These forms of knowledge production in Latin America have thus demarcated moments and paradigms that are quite distinct from each other, which have resulted from peculiar social processes, according to each disciplinary field or theoretical tradition.

Jaime Osorio's (1995) diagnosis of the development of Latin American sociology expressed all these distinctions well, at a time of profound political changes in the countries that were rebuilding their democracies (1980s and 1990s), after long years of political closure and state terror, with all the contradictions, difficulties and limits involved in this process. This highlighted an irreducible stance of demarcating theoretical and political positions that blocked conceptual advances through the clash of ideas, or, as he noted, "Latin American sociology refuses to dialogue with itself" (p. 19), which had repercussions, from one side to the other, in the choice of research topics and their different approaches.

Actually, these positions once again demonstrated the element of continuity between us: "(...) reflection maintains a high degree of commitment to the political and social processes of the region. This is one of the aspects that underlies the strength of this discipline on the continent, as well as its high ascendancy over politics and political discourse" (OSORIO, *ibd*., p. 20). And this "ascendancy" also makes it possible to understand the different ways in which researchers are involved with the "destiny" of

[2] "The ruling ideas are nothing more than the ideal expression of the dominant material relationships, the dominant material relationships grasped as ideas (…)" (MARX AND ENGELS, 1974, p. 64).

[3] According to Maria Sylvia de Carvalho Franco (1997, p. 65-113), for free men in the slave order, the specificity of the favor in relation to the rigidity of slavery consisted, in the case of Brazil, in its effectiveness as a mean of personal domination (without the need, thereby, for the mediation of a bureaucratic body), which was achieved in the duty to provide different services in circumstances of supposed lack of social differentiation, constituting a network of debts and obligations whose participants were recognized as free and equal, which, in turn, allowed them to be precariously integrated into the social order, and *appearing* as a "harmony of wills", given by respect, loyalty and veneration, and not merely as the imposition of the will of the strongest.

[4] Without pretending to exhaust the large number of authors situated, in their respective specificities, in this long tradition, it is worth remembering Ramírez Necochea, 1966; González Casanova, 1969; Bagú, 1970; Fals Borda, 2009; Fernandes, 2005; Zavaleta Mercado, 1978; Quijano, 1980; Errandonea, 1989; Vargas Valente, 1992; Martins, 2009 and Osorio, 2001.

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Latin American peoples (NEVES, 2022). But this relationship would be revealed from now on in a negative way, demonstrating an uncomfortable truth from the point of view of the historical conformation of these novelties: "if the old sociology sinned by its economic reductionism, the current one sins by its political reductionism" (OSORIO, *ibd.*, p. 22).

The abandonment of material referents that followed caused a short-circuit in research proposals and different conceptual elaborations that would never leave us again, embracing all sorts of political-epistemological projects:

> (…) social actors whose referents in which they act never appear; democratization projects without alluding to the material frameworks that would make them possible; individuals for whom their mere condition of voting already makes them citizens, without differentiating between the subsistence conditions and the political and cultural specificities of an Indian from the Peruvian or Ecuadorian highlands and a city dweller from São Paulo or Buenos Aires (OSORIO, *ibd.,* p. 22)

Thus, the element of continuity was now replaced by another one of rupture, with a profound generational, thematic and theoretical break: "From Frank and Marini, we moved on to O'Donnell and Lechner. From economics to politics. From dependency and revolution to democratization, political culture and social movements. From marxism to different paradigms. From Latin America to national cases, local studies or general reflection without specific historical references" (OSORIO, *ibd.*, p. 22). The challenge launched by Jaime Osorio, to overcome these reflections limited to "interpretative localism", distant from structural variables or the concept of "social totality" even without aiming at major generalizations, seemed to foresee the current difficulties, in which lies a significant part of the controversies observed in the vast sociological literature produced in recent years, in various fields of research and with colliding approaches to innumerable objects of study.

However, despite this profound change in political direction, this diagnosis would not invalidate, a decade later, the counterpoint of Lucio Oliver Costilla (2005), for whom, setting a new turning point in the history of the discipline, contemporary Latin American sociology has consisted of a return to critical thinking, of an emerging tendency to relate particularities to the social totality, although this has not represented a unique orientation of the discipline, given, for example, the fragmentation of results, methodological individualism and theoretical eclecticism. This new situation, combined with the creation and expansion of institutions, scientific journals and spaces for debate at congresses, meetings and seminars to discuss research results, continues to contribute to greater dissemination and integration of research, which was previously much more dispersed and isolated. It can thus be seen that the development of Latin American sociology presents moments of rise and fall of categories, concepts and theories, which have always arrived on the continent by plural routes and with varied results, configuring receptions with irregular and fluid contours (CARASSOU, 2006; MORCILLO LAIZ AND WEISZ, 2015; BLOIS, 2017).

But the connection between one economic context and another, one theoretical tradition and another, or one social experience and another, is not simple or straightforward. The objects of research and ways of approaching them emerge as symptoms of the demands, difficulties, curiosities, impasses, dilemmas and crises of each social reality, and it is from this complex of problems that concepts, theories, research tools and perspectives of analysis intersect in the task of building knowledge, that is, in the quest to understand or explain the social phenomena that each researcher sets out to scrutinize.

The way in which these connections crystallize depends on different variables in the production of knowledge itself (available resources, methodology adopted, breadth of the research problem, training of the technical staff, networking of researchers, etc.) and their results remain available for examining by the specialized community in each field of research. Latin American sociological research therefore continues to reveal the social components encoded in it, which are not just the combination of "external" elements to them, but also shape their own "internal" variations, the specificity of their results.

In this way, the problem of the inauthenticity of knowledge among us takes on more intricate contours in contemporary times, since it is combined with practices that correspond to the maintenance of conventional forms of research, albeit in a renewed internal tension, as we have seen in the case of sociology, in search of innovative solutions in a context of widespread neoliberal hostilities (budget cuts, renewed authoritarianism, commercial interferences, restrictions on the labor market, biased surveys, etc.). In the most recent conjuncture, however, the persistent distancing of structural variables and strengthening of particularist readings of social phenomena seems to be obstructing, as we have already said, the conceptual claim of Latin American "singularity" as a common platform for systematic reflection that embraces all social formations, regardless of the theme or focus intended.

This feature reopens many of the debates that took place at the origins of the discipline[5], even though

[5] On institutional disputes, the process of institutionalization of sociology and the corresponding theoretical clashes, see Brunner (1988); Briceño-León and Sonntag (1998); Serrano (1994); Blanco (2006, 2007); Blanco and Jackson (2004, 2015); Carassou (2006); Trindade et. al (2007); Medina and Carreño (2008); Rosenmann (2008) and Blois (2017).

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the scope of the problematizations and polemics over concepts and categories has gradually widened in each country, always in line with the historicity they share. Despite this and the continuous search for "authenticity" in the production of knowledge, it is certain that the subjects to which sociologists have dedicated themselves are not decisively different from what is done in Europe or United States.

In fact, the most important concerns here are much more about the logical and methodological impracticability of simply transposing results from one context to another, rather than proposing *sui generis* research objects. For this reason, the quest for a difficult "totalizing vision" (RAMA, 1977) is what allows us to glimpse the unity of the Latin American social base, its essential "singularity", without its variants being diminished.

This way of conceiving the basic interdependence between countries that are near or far from each other, and its effects on the societies that correspond to them, is not new and can already be found in the seven essays by Mariátegui (2007) on the indigenous question as an economic question, which concerns the land ownership regime according to the colonial enterprise. Also in Sergio Bagú's (1949) well-known essay on the economy of colonial society, in which he deals in his own terms with Caio Prado Jr.'s (2004) theme of the "sense of the colonization", the idea of a structural interdependence between metropolis and colony was already predominant:

> the structuring of a colonial economy is always so closely intertwined with the metropolitan economy that you can not understand one without knowing the other. Nor is it possible to follow the main historical lines of Spain and Portugal without referring to the economic history of Western Europe. The panorama is widened with this method, not to complicate it, but to better illuminate the fundamental processes (BAGÚ, *ibd*., p. 31).

The organization of the colonial economy on the basis of subordination to the world market, a global trait that would later be complemented with new theoretical suggestions, as we will see below, is, for Bagú, the "nature of the colonial economy", in other words, "producing for the international market" was the predominant orientation of "colonial capitalism". In this sense, the elaboration of a conceptual framework based on Marx (1959, 2011) results in an unavoidable explanation *of Latin America's place in the world capitalist system*, identifying the structural barriers and restrictions that permanently block the way out of the condition of dependence and *allowing us to draw up a common analytical framework*, despite the specificities of social and cultural formations. Consequently, in our view, any theoretical formulation that tries to escape these decisive considerations for the more general characterization of our historical obstacles and dilemmas will remain in a kind of prison that is both logical and ideological: without a common foundation to support this relationship between the "whole" and the "parts", it only remains to invest in a reiterated description of the devastated social landscape and the existing individual misfortunes as compensation for the explanatory deficit.

Nonetheless, some contributions to the explanation of this connection are still fundamental. The essential propositions about Latin America's specific place in the concert of global capitalism can be found in the works of Theotonio dos Santos (2011, 1999, 1968), Ruy Mauro Marini (1973, 1979, 1979a, 1996), Vânia Bambirra (2013, 1978) and, more distantly, Andre Gunder Frank (1967, 1969, 1980). Although there are many differences between them, they argued that the common feature of the continent, far beyond the continuing discussions about "multiple identities", the elaborations of "national types", the successive "populist political practices", the "Iberian heritage" and "Eurocentrism", lies in the formation of a "*sui generis* capitalism", defined by Marini by the "relationship of subordination between formally independent nations" (1973, p. 18).

CEPAL's way of interpreting underdevelopment as the absence of development (PREBISCH, 1949), and not as a result of it, was no longer sufficient, since this was a period in which the world economy had laid new foundations, with the creation of large transnational economic conglomerates and the intense expansion of the world market. The novelty in explaining the recurring impasses, then, was to realize that the disadvantage in the productive capacity of labour resulted in an increase in the rate of exploitation of the local workforce – the "super-exploitation of labour"[6] as internal compensation – and, concomitantly, in the rate of profit of foreign companies. This situation was the result of the combination of the relatively low prices of raw materials, which reduced the value of constant capital, and of basic foodstuffs and other wage goods, which lowered the value of variable capital (OSORIO, 1984), with an increase of productivity in the industrialized countries, due to the high investments in technological innovations they made (DOS SANTOS, 1987).

This type of dependency is a deep and persistent characteristic of Latin America, and it has numerous consequences for the social fabric: the persistence of the social and racial question, endemic violence and constant violations of rights, concentration of land and income, low levels of schooling, contemporary forms of slavery, fluctuating unemployment, etc. Thus, the category of "dependency", in its marxist conception, emerges and differentiates itself as *a common reference of analysis* for

[6] For the foundations and current relevance of this concept, see Osorio (2013) and Sotelo Valencia (1994, 2014).

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Latin America, from which countless research objects can be considered conceptually:

> we sought to redefine it [the category of dependency] and use it as the fundamental analytical-explanatory category of the conformation of Latin American societies and, through it, we intended to define the concrete conditioning character that the relations of dependency between the center-hegemonic and peripheral countries had in the sense of conforming certain specific types of backward and dependent economic, political and social structures (BAMBIRRA, 2013, p. 38).

These specificities, defined by a common structural situation which, however, manifests itself through different characteristics that do not always coincide in each case, make it possible to establish a link between world capitalism and our particular capitalism, provided that the mediations involved in this analytical transition are also incorporated. From this imbrication, a historically developed social totality emerges and allows us to reveal the secrets of the differences and backwardness *between* the countries of the world system, and of the social hierarchies and inequalities *within* each of them:

> (…) the backwardness of the dependent countries was a *consequence* of the development of world capitalism and, at the same time, the *condition* of this development in the world's great capitalist powers. The developed capitalist countries and the peripheral countries form the same historical unit, which has made the development of some possible and the backwardness of others inexorable (BAMBIRRA, *ibid.*, p. 44).

This historical unity, however, is not the result of theoretical automatisms, but of tangible mechanisms that generate inequalities in the world market, with even greater unevenness in a phase of monopolistic integration and, more recently, of growing financialization of economies (MARINI, 1996). Hence the importance of paying attention to the double face of dependency within Latin American social theories. If, on the one hand, we seek to objectively demonstrate and explain global structures and the economic and political mechanisms that perpetuate themselves over time, on the other hand, the very condition of dependency makes it difficult and restricts the fulfillment of this task:

> we need to overcome a one-sided perspective that limits itself to analyzing the problem from the point of view of the hegemonic center, and we need to integrate the peripheral areas into the whole analysis as part of a system of economic and social relations on a global level. In this case, the concept of dependency and its dynamics acquires all its theoretical and scientific value (DOS SANTOS, 2011, p. 358).

All situations experienced socially and individually from this moto-continuum therefore implies the combination of these broader and more general lines of force with the specific elements pointed out by social research. In this way, the typically Latin American forms of dependent capitalist accumulation and reproduction have been incorporated into explanations of our permanent obstacles and dilemmas, which has therefore provided a more general theoretical perspective – the condition of dependence and its social and individual impacts – and greater clarity regarding the different ways in which it manifests itself in each particular case.

For us, the fundamental point is that this socio-economic singularity profoundly conditions the production of social theories in Latin America, since the existence of this dialectical relationship between the general and the particular, the "whole" and the "parts", makes it difficult, on an analytical level, to separate the internal and external variables of each social reality, as well as provides, on a political level, the conceptual tools necessary to apprehend and decode the social content of the production of knowledge and its ties, conscious or not, to the interests, strategies and actions of the ruling classes in their quest to maintain these structural components *ad infinitum*. To disregard these empirical elements is also to take a side in the social system that produces violence, inequalities, injustices and torments that are typical throughout Latin America.

Thus, the inauthenticity of knowledge among us lies much more in taking no account, as an elementary theoretical foundation, of this relationship between the general movement of dependent capitalism and the world capitalist system in their respective forms of reproduction than in the pursuit of a cultural essence that individualizes and differentiates us. In other words, the Latin American effort to free itself from Western formalist logic seems to stumble over the proposition of a particularist logic that ends up detaching itself from its own history and the social origins of the arbitrariness it seeks to correct.

Therefore, the objective foundation exposed here allows for an understanding of the scientific sphere that does not become hostage to indeterminacy, idealism, ideology or performance. In the end, we hope to have briefly demonstrated that the problem of the inauthenticity of knowledge is related to other variables, which basically concern the maintenance of conventional forms of scientific knowledge production with the aggravating factors of cultural essentialism and empirical isolationism.

In a renewed internal tension, the production of social knowledge in Latin America is once again in search of innovative solutions, in its own historicity and in its practical consequences. But this more recent movement could result in losses for scientific discourse if it is content, as in other occasions, to cover up, deny or ignore the background of dependent capitalism that keeps us tied to the past and prevents us from formulating truly authentic research problems.

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The Influence of the "Non-Aggression Pact" of 1932 on the Development of Trade Relations between the USSR and Poland

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Abstract- The article examines the state of Soviet-Polish trade relations based on of periodic materials from the end of July 1932 to the middle of November 1933. It is proved that the planned preparation for the conclusion of the "Non-Aggression Treaty" with Poland was also on the agenda and on the problem of improving Soviet-Polish trade relations (extension of the agreement on "Soviet-polish trade" (February 17, 1933), normalization of the issue of railway tariffed, signing of the convention on the rafting of timber along border rivers (June 19, 1933) and the agreement on the export of wood).

Keywords: riga peace treaty, soviet-polish trade, nonaggression pact, periodicals.

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Abstract- The article examines the state of Soviet-Polish trade relations based on of periodic materials from the end of July 1932 to the middle of November 1933. It is proved that the planned preparation for the conclusion of the "Non-Aggression Treaty" with Poland was also on the agenda and on the problem of improving Soviet-Polish trade relations (extension of the agreement on "Soviet-polish trade" (February 17, 1933), normalization of the issue of railway tariffed, signing of the convention on the rafting of timber along border rivers (June 19, 1933) and the agreement on the export of wood).

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I. Introduction

According to Article XXI of the Riga Peace Treaty of 18 March 1921, the Soviet and Polish parties had to start negotiations on the conclusion of a particular trade agreement and an agreement on compensatory goods exchange no later than six months after agreement ratification. Article XXII of the Treaty obliged the parties to organize the unimpeded transit of goods "through all railways and waterways free for transit" before the conclusion of the international documents mentioned above [1, p. 640]. High-quality commercial relations were urgent for both parties. Most of trade routes to the West passed through Poland. This country was a giant neighbour of the Soviet republics: the length of the border line with it was about 1,400 kilometers. Moreover, the long-term presence of some Polish lands within the Russian Empire strongly connected the economy of these countries. However, according to the People's Commissariat for Foreign Trade, Polish imports to Soviet Russia in nine months of 1921 amounted to 486 thousand rubles, only 0.2% of all imports of the Soviet state. Exports for the specified time amounted to only 24 thousand rubles [2].

To improve Soviet-Polish trade relations, immediately after the conclusion of the Riga Peace Treaty, negotiations began between representatives of the Office of the Plenipotentiary People's Commissariat of Foreign Trade of the RSFSR under the Council of People's Commissars of the BSSR and Polish business circles (joint-stock companies "Britapol", "Palantsina", "Zachodneles", "Gratenau"). They resulted in the conclusion of several commercial contracts for the supply to the Soviet country of agricultural instruments of labour, some types of foods (rice, canned fish, cocoa beans, and others), chemical compounds (Berthollet's salt, red phosphorus, paraffin) [3]. On 4 August 1921, the first diplomatic and trade delegations led by L. M. Karakhan arrived in Poland. From their arrangement, a representative office of the RSFSR and the Ukrainian SSR was opened in Warsaw, and trade missions from the BSSR were included in their composition. For its part, Poland introduced the position of the trade adviser at the diplomatic mission in Moscow.

Numerous attempts to sign a Soviet-Polish trade agreement (meetings of Stefanski-Ganetski, Strasburger-Litvinau, Narutovich-Chycheryn, Darouski-Kop) did not bring a good result. Gradual preparation for the conclusion of the "Non-Aggression Pact" with Poland raised the issue of improving Soviet-Polish trade relations on the agenda. The "Non-Aggression Pact" signed by the USSR and Poland in July 1932, ending one of the stages of Soviet-Polish relations, could become the basis for their rise to a new and higher level. However, it could also become the peak in their development. One or another of its roles depended on how well it corresponded to the strategic goals of the foreign policy of both states. By signing the Pact, the Soviet government seemed to declare that in shotrly it would not use the national movement in Western Belarus and Ukraine to try to collapse the Polish state, as it was done before. Poland, for its part, attested that its active policy in Central-Eastern Europe, along the western borders of the USSR, was not aimed at creating an aggressive anti-Soviet bloc.

II. Research Methodology (Theoretical Fundamentals)

Simultaneously with the normalization of political relations, there is a well-known recovery in economic ties - the conclusion of customs agreements, the extension of the agreement on "Soviet-Polish trade" (17 February 1933), an inevitable increase in mutual commodity circulation, the normalization of railway tariffs, the signing of the convention on rafting of timber along border rivers (19 June 1933) and the agreement

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on the export of wood, the revival of mutual transit through Polish and Soviet seaport terminals. In turn, positive changes in bilateral relations were reflected in the pages of the Polish periodicals. The key topics that worried the Polish periodicals (from the end of July 1932 to the middle of November 1933) was the question of intensification trade operations between the Soviet and Polish parties; plans for concluding a trade agreement were actively discussed.

The source base of the study was the "Summaries of the Polish Periodicals" for July 1932 - November 1933, which was prepared by the press office of the Plenipotentiary Representation of the USSR in Poland, other materials of the Polish periodicals ("Codzyonna gazeta gandliowa", "Kurijr polski", "Ilyustravany kurjer codzionny", "Gazeta polska", "Gazeta Warszawska"). The "Summaries of the Polish journals" was prepared either daily or for several days, consisting of sections: Poland-USSR, foreign policy (usually an overview of Polish-German relations was given), domestic policy, and economic situation. At the same time, some subsections could be missing, depending on the availability of news. The absolute majority of materials are kept in the National Archives of the Republic of Belarus (fund 126 (Office of the Plenipotentiary People's Commissariat of Foreign Trade (PCFT) of the USSR under the Council of People's Commissars of the BSSR), part of which is published in the collection of documents "Documents and materials on the history of Soviet-polish relations" [4].

The initial understanding of the topic happens in the framework of journalistic articles (I. Adamaitsis [5], I. Teumin [6]) and on the pages of the annual reviews of the activities of the Office of the Plenipotentiary People's Commissariat of Foreign Trade of the USSR under the Council of People's Commissars of the BSSR [7]. In Soviet historiography, attention should be paid to P. K. Krauchanka's dissertation [8], which considers the temporary improvement of economic Soviet-Polish relations following the signing of the "Non-Aggression Pact" in July 1932 to be natural. Modern Russian and Belarusian historiography is emphasized by the works of A. V. Barykin [9] and D. U. Ramanouski [10]. For the most part, research on the problem contains a thesis about the interdependence of political contacts and the growth of export and import operations, the expansion of scientific and cultural ties between the USSR and Poland.

The objective of the study: To show the impact of the signing of the "Non-Aggression Pact" on 25 July 1932 on the Soviet-Polish commercial relations based on the Polish periodicals of the end of July 1932 - mid-November 1933. The specified chronological frame is limited expressly: from the moment of signing the "Non-Aggression Pact" as of 25 July 1932 and until 16 November 1933, when the Polish-German Non-Aggression Convention was signed. The study attempts to trace the interdependence of the political factor on the development of commercial relations between the USSR and Poland. The main problems specified in the pages of Polish periodicals were the following: the influence of the "Non-Aggression Pact" on the commercial relations (plans to sign a trade agreement), the issue of extending the "Soviet-Polish trade" agreement, the sending of a Soviet trade delegation headed by the Deputy People's Commissar of Foreign Trade of the USSR T. I. Boeu.

III. Results and the Discussion

A day earlier of the signing of the "Non-Aggression Pact", on 19 July 1932, "Tsodzyonna gazeta gandlyova" published an interview with the Director of the Polish-Soviet Chamber of Commerce, S. Yablonski, who stated that "in the trade turnover between Poland and the USSR, the decisive role is played not so much by tariffs as by general political thoughts". In 1930, imports of goods from the USSR to Poland amounted to 45.8 million zlotys, and exports to Poland amounted to more than 2 million zlotys. In 1931, further improvement of the trade balance was observed, which amounted to 89.2 million zlotys (import) – 36, export 125 million zlotys. A very touchy subject is the lack of capital needed to finance Polish-Soviet trade [11, sheet 139].

The signing of the "Non-Aggression Pact" on 25 July 1932 between Poland and the USSR caused an immediate reaction from the official Polish periodicals. Thus, on 26 July "Gazeta polska" assessed of this Pact as "an agreement that will be of significant importance for the development of mutual trust between both parties and their ever closer peaceful coexistence. Thus, the Polish-Soviet Non-Aggression Pact becomes a factor of great importance for peaceful relations in Europe" [11, sheet 121]. In the same publication on 28 July, a thorough interview of the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Poland A. Zaleski with a correspondent of the "Chicago Daily News" is published. He stated that the signed Pact was an extension of the Kellogg–Briand Pact, i.e. an attempt to give this pact greater regionality, adapted to the particular regional conditions prevailing in Eastern Europe. Similar pacts were concluded simultaneously between the Baltic States and the USSR. The Pact rejected war as a national policy [11, sheet 104].

The expectations of the Polish public that the political Soviet-Polish rapprochement would influence the strengthening of bilateral economic ties are pretty clear. On 28 July 1932, " Ilyustravany kurjer codzyonny" published an interview of a Warsaw correspondent with the former Minister of Industry and Trade, Director of the Central Union of Polish Industry, M. Shydlouski, who stated "the Non-Aggression Pact is undoubtedly of great importance for our economic life. Among the obstacles to increasing the level of export and import operations, the difficulties of commodity credits were noted". The

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interview showed hopes that the political rapprochement of the countries would somehow lead to the conclusion of a trade agreement and an increase in mutual commodity circulation [11, sheet 105].

In turn, despite the positive attitude from the "Non-Aggression Pact", negative assessments were also present. On 24 August 1932, an article by U. Studnitsky was published in "Vilenskae slova". According to the author, "the neighbours of the USSR did not receive any new guarantee; it did not give any obligations that would bind it in any way. On the contrary, conclusion of the Pact with each of the limitrophe states of the USSR, resulted in the possibility of breaking the united front of the Baltic states, Poland and Romania" [11, sheet 31]. On 26 August 1932, an article by S. Rymar on the prospects of Polish-Soviet trade appeared on the pages of "Gazeta Warszawska". It lists the main obstacles to the conclusion of a trade agreement between Poland and the USSR. Among the main ones, the state monopoly of Soviet foreign trade is mentioned, which "on the one hand facilitates the agreement, but on the other hand introduces an element of uncertainty, as it often mixes campaign and political aspects with trade issues". The author concludes that after the signing of the Riga Peace Treaty, the Non-Aggression Pact, the economic rapprochement of Poland and the USSR would be the second step forward toward complete pacification of Eastern Europe [11, sheet 28].

A frequent phenomenon of Polish leading articles of the mentioned period was the posting of information that was not always verified. First, it concerned information about the beginning of Soviet-Polish negotiations on the conclusion of a trade agreement, which began immediately after the signing of the "Non-Aggression Pact". Thus, on 29 August 1932, the "Codzyonna gazeta gandlyova" contained reflections on the usefulness and practicality of the agreement and provided unverified information about the "immediate start of bilateral meetings on the preparation of a trade agreement" [11, sheet 12]. On 15 September 1932, an article by S. Natanson, a representative of Polish industrial circles, about the prospects of Polish exports to the USSR in connection with the implementation of the second five-year plan appeared on the pages of the noted periodical. The author cites several figures that testify to the rapid growth of industrial and agricultural production in the USSR. At the same time he emphasizes that the implementation of the second five-year plan "undoubtedly directs the trade policy of the Soviet government to satisfy domestic consumption and present other states with the opportunity to export to Russia". In contrast to this perspective, the author points out that precisely in the first half of 1932, severe decline in Polish exports to the USSR was noticeable, as it decreased from 72 million zlotys in the first half of 1931 up to 7.3 million zlotys in 1932. The author proves that "the absence of a trade agreement with our eastern neighbor impacts negatively on Polish economic relations" [12, sheet 144]. On 15 October, the same author proposed a settlement-compensation trade project in the pages of "Czas", which would make up 70% of Polish exports and 30% of Soviet imports on credit. For this purpose, he proposes the creation of a unique Settlement Chamber (Clearing House) and a syndicate of Polish financial institutions with a capital of 30 million zlotys. S. Natanson predicts the volume of Polish exports to the USSR at 250 million zlotys, and imports into Poland from the USSR at 170 million zlotys per year [12, sheet 79].

One of the problems that Polish newspapers drew attention to was the drop in the volume of Polish-Soviet trade in the second half of 1932 compared to the first half of 1931 and the same period in 1931. On 11 November 1932, "Gazeta polska" attempted to find the reason for this event. Among the prerequisites are "excessive dependence of Polish and Soviet imports on the German market", the desire of the Soviet party to provide long-term credit, and "the absence of such goods for the Soviet export to Poland, the sale of which would be permanently ensured in Poland". On 29 November 1932, "Gazeta polska gaspadarcza" also notes "the catastrophic drop in Polish-Soviet trade, which amounted to only about 30 million zlotys in 9 months of 1932 against 161 million last year". At the same time, it is noted that "the reduction of Soviet exports to Poland corresponds to the general reduction of all Soviet exports.

Meanwhile, Polish exports to the USSR have recently declined incomparably more than Polish exports. As a result of the extreme poorness of the vocabulary of Polish exports, the latter very strongly feel the various restrictions of Soviet orders". At the same time, it is indicated that a significant part of the blame falls on the representatives of Polish industry themselves, who underestimated the importance of the USSR as a sales market, starting negotiations on the placement of their products on the Soviet market only under the pressure of a sharp economic depression [12, sheet 130].

For bilateral discussion of trade problems, at the end of November 1932, the magazine "USSR and Poland" began to be published in Warsaw, with articles in Russian and Polish. The editors define the purpose of the periodic as "the desire to promote the renewal of cooperation between Poland and the USSR in the context of economic relations", and consider the program of their magazine to be "a business discussion on the topics of practical trade policy and practical information" for business circles. The magazine consists of several articles by Soviet and Polish trade and industrial figures, and several pages of advertisements. On 7 December 1932, this magazine published an article by F. Asel, a representative of "Saupolgandl", which strongly emphasized all the difficulties

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encountered by Soviet trade in Poland, the default of the Soviet trade balance with Poland, and answered the Polish periodicals which accused the USSR of excessive demands for credit. The article establishes the complete dependence of the further development of Soviet-Polish trade on Polish trade policy. The possibility of concluding a new contract for supplies to the USSR based on of commodity compensations was considered. First of all, the issue of import quotas for Soviet goods to Poland for 1933 and the financing of orders in Poland should be resolved.

Negotiations between Polish and Soviet representatives on extending the agreement with the "Soviet-Polish trade" became a significant news event. On 31 December 1932, the "Codzyonna gazeta gandlyova" noted that Polish business circles showed increased interest in these bilateral meetings because "during these negotiations, the possibilities of revitalizing and deepening industrial and trade relations between Poland and the USSR are simultaneously discussed". In the opinion of the newspaper, these possibilities are very significant and so far very little used. However, the newspaper expresses its fear that "in its desire to increase Polish exports, the Polish party would not make very far-reaching concessions, which consist in a liberal interpretation of Soviet imports", which could cause a "dumping price policy on the part of the Soviets", would hurt some branches of Polish industry, "for example, on the Polish chemical industry, which is facing the threat of Soviet imports". Therefore, the newspaper calls for "negotiations with the Soviets to be conducted with great caution" [13, sheet 454]. This issue was discussed on the pages of the "Codzyonna gazeta gandlyova" on 6 and 11 January 1933. In turn, on 18 January 1933, "Gazeta Warszawska" noted the difficulties that arose during the negotiations between the representatives of "Polish-russian" and " Soviet-Polish trade" [13, sheet 434, 428]. According to the publication, the critical problem was the determination of the economic exchange plan between Poland and the Soviets within the framework of the activities of the Mixed Import-Export Company "Soviet-Polish trade". The Soviet delegation made several proposals related to the recognition by the Soviet party of customs benefits for the import of Soviet goods in Poland. The Polish party agreed and met some of these demands. At the same time, Polish representatives agreed to reduce exports from Poland to the USSR in 1933 in 500 million zlotys. The main obstacle to the completion of negotiations was the issue of financial credit to 250,000 dollars. This Polish proposal was vehemently opposed by the Soviets and eventually caused a break in the negotiations [13, sheet 356]. Alongside that, on 20 January 1933, "Gazeta Warszawska" noted the "difference in points of view between the Polish and Soviet delegations based on the demands of the Soviet representatives to maintain the financial credit at the former levels" as the reasons for the breakdown of the negotiations on the extension of the " Soviet-Polish trade" agreement [13, sheet 349]. On 30 January 1933, "Nova Tribuna" contained an interview with the Deputy Trade Representative of the USSR in Poland, M. I. Nyumberg, who noted that an agreement had been reached between the Polish and Soviet parties, all controversial points had been removed, "the ground is being provided for re-negotiations. They should start soon in Moscow" [13, sheet 310]. As a result, on 17 February, the agreement with "Soviet-Polish trade" was extended for five years.

According to the interview of the Head of the Delegation of Polish industrialists, E. Ivanouski, with the Iskra Agency regarding the export-import plan of the "Soviet-Polish trade" for 1933, its main content is to determine the number and nomenclature of goods that will be exported from Poland to the USSR and vice versa from the USSR to Poland. "In the current year, the negotiations on the extension of the agreement on "Soviet-Polish trade" went on for quite a long time, about four months, which should be explained mainly by the need to introduce new goods into the mutual exchange. If we are talking about exports from Poland to the USSR, then in 1933, according to the export plan, the Polish party will be able to export goods worth approximately 20 million zlotys, while in the first half of the year, textile goods, as well as agricultural products, will be included in the nomenclature for the first time. As for imports from the USSR to Poland, it provides for the import of goods of Soviet origin of about 10 million zlotys, while the nomenclature includes fish, skins, cloth, mushrooms and for the first time, automobile tires.

The visit of the Soviet trade delegation to Poland from 1 to 19 May 1933 was an essential piece of news. Its members included Deputy People's Commissar of Foreign Trade of the USSR T. I. Boeu, members of the PCFT collegium A. M. Tamaryn, M. I. Firsau, a chairperson of "Technapramimpart", "Sayuzmetimpart", "Stankaimpart". During of this visit, there were meetings with the Director of "Soviet-Polish trade" Yu. Ziabitski, the Director of the Chamber of Commerce of Poland and the USSR S. Yablonski, a visit to some Polish metallurgical enterprises. Members of the Soviet delegation (M. I. Firsau, T. I. Boeu) gave an extensive interview on the pages of "Kurjer polski" and "Codzyonna gazeta gandliova".

IV. Conclusions

The normalization of bilateral relations, which followed the signing of the "Non-Aggression Pact", became an additional impulse to the improving of Soviet-Polish trade relations. However, one cannot exaggerate the political factor, except for the expansion of the list of goods (at the expense of the products of the metallurgical, chemical, and textile industries), the determination of the size of credit benefits for the Soviet party, the extension of the agreement for "Soviet-Polish

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trade". There is no sharp increase in trade between the parties, on the contrary, there is a clear drop in its level in the second half of 1932 compared to the first half of the year and the same period in 1931. This is clearly visible from the materials of the Polish periodicals of the end of July 1932 - mid-November 1933. The main reason for this state of affairs was the lack of necessary means for financing Polish-Soviet trade turnover, the general decline of the world economy (severe economic depression), and the state monopoly of Soviet foreign trade.

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To Understand the Desires and Characteristics of Visitors: A Quantitative Journey through Memory-Based Cultural Heritage

By Pablo Rosser & Seila Soler
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Abstract- This interdisciplinary quantitative study examines the influence of visits to Civil War shelters in Alicante on the perception of memory-based cultural heritage within an urban context. Through the analysis of 407 visitors from August 2023 to January 2024, it investigates how the rehabilitation and opening of these spaces contribute to sustainable urban development and historical understanding. Preliminary results show an increase in interest and awareness of the historical importance of the shelters, indicating a positive impact on the valuation of memory heritage. The study highlights the correlation between the provision of cultural and educational activities and the increase in visitors, underscoring the need for differentiated communication and management strategies to attract diverse visitor profiles. This analysis provides key insights for the management of cultural heritage and suggests improved approaches for the promotion of historical legacy.

Keywords: *cultural memory heritage, spanish civil war shelters, history pedagogy, urban sustainability, quantitative methodology, tourism.*

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To Understand the Desires and Characteristics of Visitors: A Quantitative Journey through Memory-Based Cultural Heritage

Pablo Rosser [α] & Seila Soler [σ]

Abstract- This interdisciplinary quantitative study examines the influence of visits to Civil War shelters in Alicante on the perception of memory-based cultural heritage within an urban context. Through the analysis of 407 visitors from August 2023 to January 2024, it investigates how the rehabilitation and opening of these spaces contribute to sustainable urban development and historical understanding. Preliminary results show an increase in interest and awareness of the historical importance of the shelters, indicating a positive impact on the valuation of memory heritage. The study highlights the correlation between the provision of cultural and educational activities and the increase in visitors, underscoring the need for differentiated communication and management strategies to attract diverse visitor profiles. This analysis provides key insights for the management of cultural heritage and suggests improved approaches for the promotion of historical legacy.

Keywords: cultural memory heritage, spanish civil war shelters, history pedagogy, urban sustainability, quantitative methodology, tourism.

I. Introduction

This study explores the impact of visits to Civil War shelters in Alicante, Spain, and their influence on the legacy of cultural memory heritage in the city (Rosser & Soler, 2024; Rosser, 2023). The research is part of a broader discussion on the role that historical sites play as effective means to educate, reflect upon, and preserve collective memory (Atabay et al., 2022; Laderman, 2009; Wöhs et al., 2018), framed under the Operational Programme FEDER "Sustainable Growth 2014-2020," to highlight the importance of merging the recovery of historical and cultural heritages with the progress of sustainable cities.

Through restoration and public opening, the shelters provide a direct link to the tumultuous past of the Civil War in Spain, facilitating direct contact with visitors' experiences of the time. Beyond preserving these sites, the aim is to promote a greater understanding of history and its repercussions on today's society, under the approach of mnemohistory (Tamm, 2013, 2015; Wagner-Pacifici, 2010).

The purpose of this research is to determine how visits to these shelters impact the perception and appreciation of cultural memory heritage. It will analyze who the visitors are, what motivates them to visit, and how these visits contribute to both historical education and the recognition of cultural heritage, identifying trends in visits that may optimize the management of these historical sites (Cheng et al., 2016; Gounden et al., 2020; Rodgers et al., 2023).

The hypotheses suggest a positive effect of the rehabilitation and opening of the shelters on the heritage of cultural memory, attracting a diversity of visitors and deepening the understanding of the Spanish Civil War. The findings are expected to contribute to the management of cultural memory heritage and promote effective methods of communication and education (Toji, 2023).

Incorporating previous references, the study positions itself at the confluence of cultural heritage management, historical pedagogy, and cultural tourism (Boyd & Timothy, 2002; McKercher & Du Cros, 2012; Nesbitt, 2013; Richards, 2013). Through the review of similar research and the implementation of verified methodologies, a new perspective on the value of the Civil War shelters in Alicante as tools for historical remembrance and advancement toward sustainable urban development is proposed.

a) *Research Objectives*

This study focuses on evaluating the impact of visits to Civil War shelters in Alicante on the preservation and understanding of memory heritage within an urban context. It seeks to determine how the restoration and opening of these spaces enhance the appreciation and understanding of the historical past in contemporary society. The objectives include analyzing the profile of the visitors, investigating patterns of visits, assessing prior knowledge and motivations, and forecasting future trends to improve the management and promotion of these sites. It also examines the effectiveness of different visit formats in conveying historical memory.

b) *Research Hypotheses*

This study posits that the restoration and public opening of Civil War shelters in Alicante significantly enhance the local cultural memory heritage, increasing citizen interest and understanding of the commemorated historical events. A direct correlation is suggested between the variety of cultural and educational activities offered and the increase in visitors, which in turn, enriches the appreciation of the historical legacy. Furthermore, it is anticipated that the

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demographic characteristics of the visitors vary, requiring tailored management and communication strategies. To validate these hypotheses, a statistical analysis of data collected between August 2023 and January 2024 will be employed, utilizing a quantitative approach.

II. Methodology

This quantitative study explores the impact on the cultural memory heritage of Alicante following the restoration and public opening of six Civil War air-raid shelters. The research is framed within the DUSI Strategy Alicante "Área Las Cigarreras," part of the Operational Programme FEDER "Sustainable Growth 2014-2020," promoted by the City Council of Alicante with support from the European Commission. This project aims to foster sustainable urban development and the valorization of the city's industrial, religious, and military heritage, integrating restored shelters as vital elements of its historical and tourist legacy.



Figure 1: DUSI area of the city of Alicante with the Civil War air-raid shelters that have been restored in the project.

This longitudinal quantitative analysis focuses on evaluating the impact and profile of visitors to Civil War air-raid shelters in Alicante, reopened to the public with activities such as guided tours and cultural events. Between 2022 and early 2023, 5,229 visitors were recorded, with notable participation in the various activities offered. Subsequently, the hiring of a specialized company and the resumption of activities allowed for a detailed review of the effects of these initiatives, analyzing data from August 2023 to January 2024 to discern trends and patterns in visits.

The study focused on two main groups: the general public and school groups, documenting their demographic characteristics and booking patterns. Data on the date of visit, type of group, origin of visitors, and their motivations were collected, using advanced quantitative methods (SPSS, R Studio, Python) to analyze and predict visitation trends. The research, covering from the end of summer to winter, offers a perspective on seasonal preferences, though it does not provide a complete annual picture.

The methodological approach included descriptive analyses, correlations, ANOVA, and cluster analysis, among others, to interpret the collected data. This study adhered to ethical principles, ensuring informed consent and the confidentiality of participants. Through this framework, the aim is to better understand how cultural and educational activities at these historical sites influence public perception and the valuation of cultural memory heritage, with implications for the future management and promotion of these heritage spaces.

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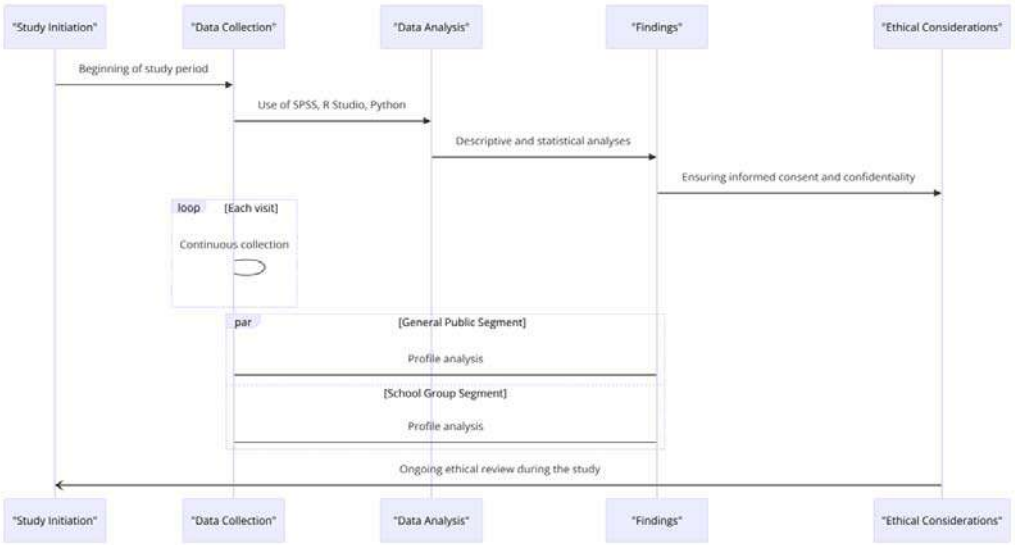

Figure 2: Flowchart of the research conducted.

III. Results

This study analyzes the distribution and characteristics of visits to certain sites, highlighting significant variations in the number of visitors by date, with December 9, 2023, recording the highest influx (4.4%). The visits are predominantly classified as "General Public" (85.7%), while "School" visits constitute 14.3%. There is a predominance of small groups, with 36.9% of visits consisting of two people, though records of exceptionally large groups (90 or 98 visitors) are attributable to specific organizations.

The distribution of the number of visitors per group is asymmetric, evidenced by an average of 8.4791 visitors per group and a median of 3, indicating a tendency towards smaller groups but with the presence of some significantly large groups that skew the average. This asymmetry is reflected in a high standard deviation (14.08661) and variance, signaling a wide dispersion in group size.

The data suggest that visits by the "General Public" are the predominant modality, reflecting a broader preference for this option over "School" visits. Moreover, specific dates with peaks in attendance are identified, possibly associated with organized events or holidays, indicating visitation patterns influenced by programming and the type of audience.

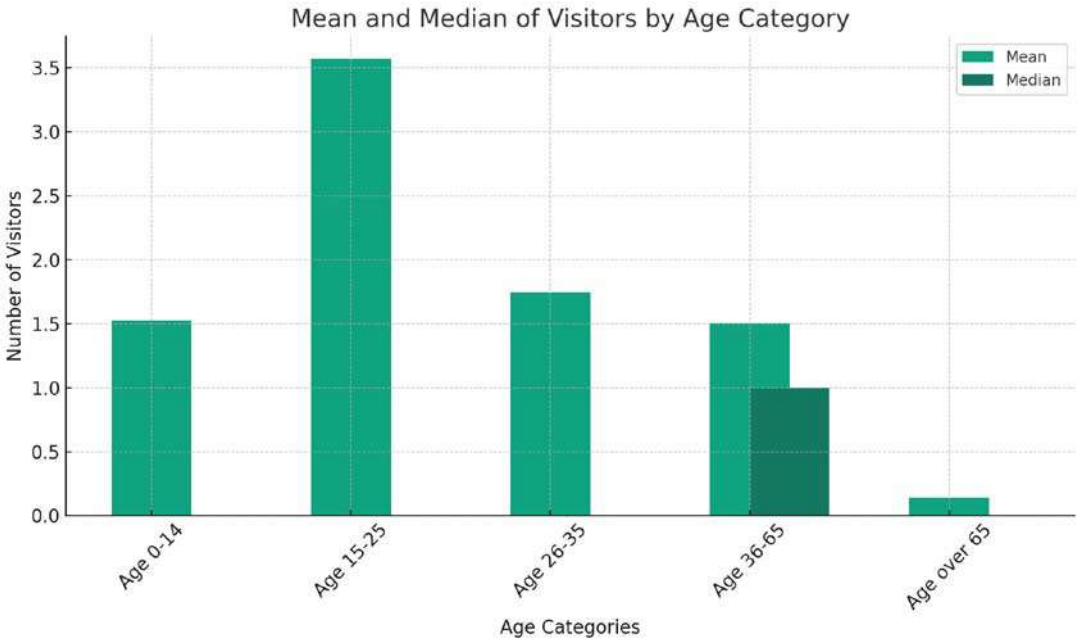

Figure 3: Bar chart showing the average and median number of visitors by age category.

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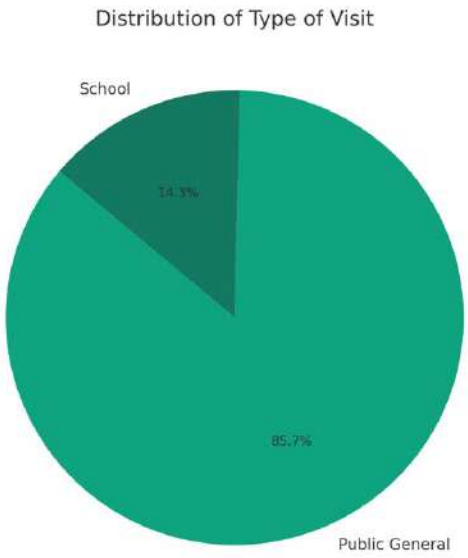

Figure 4: Pie chart showing the distribution of visit types.

The analysis of the monthly distribution of visitors to the Civil War shelters in Alicante, from August 2023 to January 2024, reveals significant variations in attendance. Figure 5 illustrates these trends, highlighting differences in the volume of visitors that can be attributed to seasonality, the organization of large groups, or coincidences with holiday periods. This temporal pattern supports the research objectives by providing a detailed understanding of the dynamics of visits to these historical memory sites.

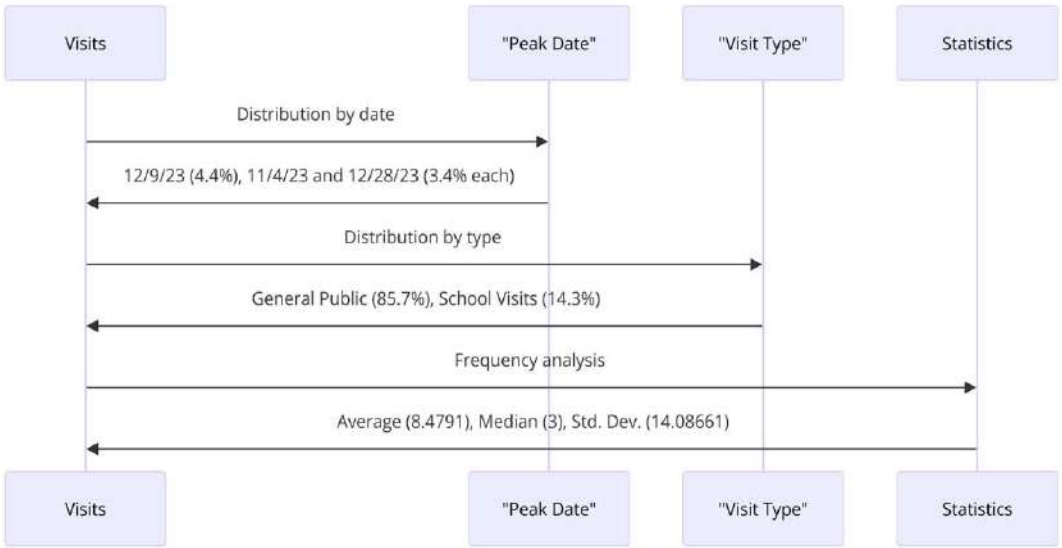

Figure 5: Sequence diagram illustrating the timing and distribution of visits.

The analysis of visits to the Civil War shelters in Alicante reveals that 85.7% correspond to the General Public (Type 1), underscoring the accessibility and universal appeal of these historical sites. The predominance of this group suggests a management approach oriented towards satisfying a diversity of interests and knowledge about the site's history. School Visits (Type 2) represent 14.3%, highlighting the educational value of the shelters and the opportunity to intensify educational programs and collaborations with academic institutions, requiring specific resources and educational materials.

The profile of the visits shows low variability, with a majority identified as "General Public". The composition of the groups varies significantly, with an average of 8.4791 visitors per group and a high standard deviation, indicating a diverse configuration of groups from individuals and couples to larger groups.

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Small Groups (1-2 Visitors) constitute 45.3%, possibly reflecting a preference for a more intimate visiting experience. Medium Groups (3-5 Visitors) account for 26.5%, evidencing attendance by families and friends, while Large Groups (more than 5 Visitors), though less frequent, demand specialized resources such as guides for large groups or specific activities.

These data inform strategic decisions for the shelters' management, emphasizing the need for a balanced approach that considers both the general public and educational needs, along with the preparation to efficiently cater to large groups, optimizing the visitor experience and ensuring the conservation of cultural heritage.

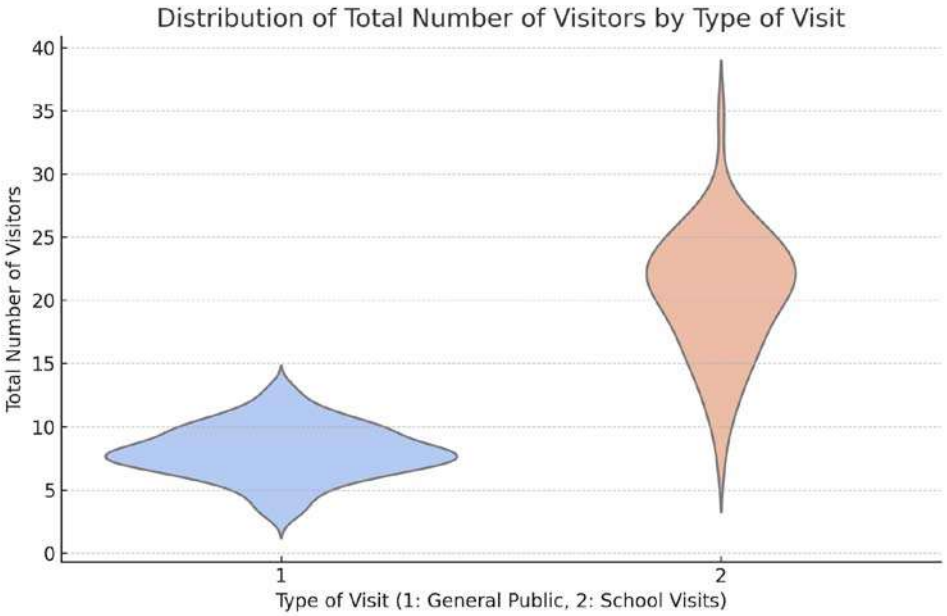

Figure 6: Violin chart combined with scatter points, showing the distribution of the total number of visitors by visit type to the Civil War shelters in Alicante.

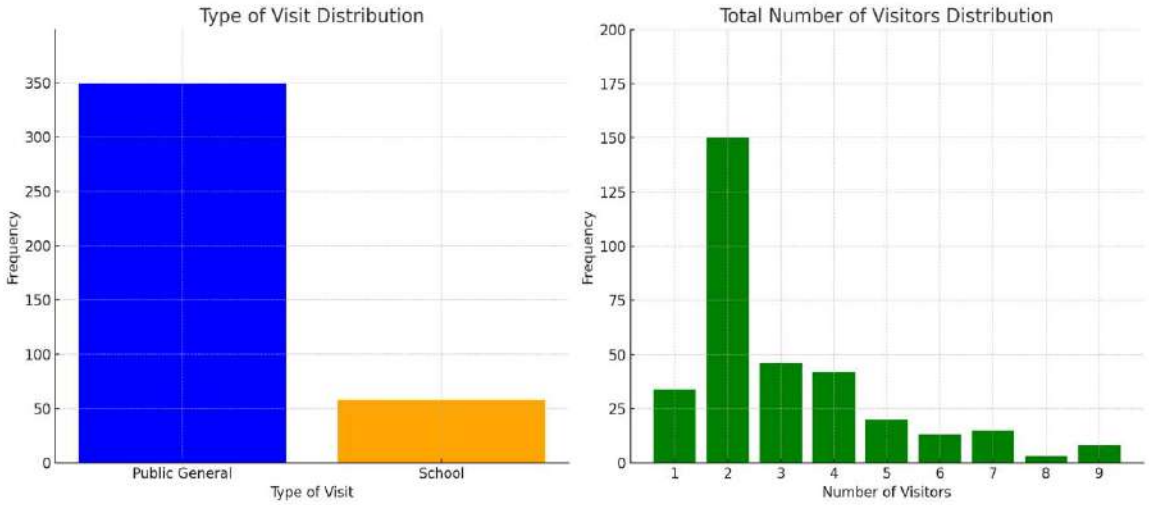

Figure 7: Charts representing the distribution of visit types and the distribution of the total number of visitors.

The Pearson correlation between the type of visit and the total number of visitors shows a strong positive correlation of 0.809, significant at the 0.01 level (Table 1). This indicates a direct and significant relationship between the type of visit and the number of visitors, demonstrating that certain types of visits attract larger groups.

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Table 1: Correlations

		Type of Visit	Total Number of Visitors
Type of Visit	Pearson Correlation	1	,809
	Significance (2-tailed)		<,001
	Sum of Squares and Products	49,735	1619,211
	Covariance	,122	3,988
	N	407	407
Total Number of Visitors	Pearson Correlation	,809	1
	Significance (2-tailed)	<,001	
	Sum of Squares and Products	1619,211	80563,572
	Covariance	3,988	198,432
	N	407	407

. The correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Furthermore, the Kendall Tau-b and Spearman Rho tests (Table 2) also show significant positive correlations between the type of visit and the total number of visitors (0.533 and 0.610, respectively), confirming the relationship observed in the Pearson correlation, but from an approach that does not assume a normal distribution of the data.

Table 2: Non-parametric Correlations

			Type of Visit	Total Number of Visitors
Kendall's Tau-b	Type of Visit	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,533
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	<,001
		N	407	407
	Total Number of Visitors	Correlation Coefficient	,533	1,000
		Significance (2-tailed)	<,001	.
		N	407	407
Spearman's Rho	Type of Visit	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,610
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	<,001
		N	407	407
	Total Number of Visitors	Correlation Coefficient	,610	1,000
		Significance (2-tailed)	<,001	.
		N	407	407

. The correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The Pearson correlation of 0.809 between the type of visit and the number of visitors indicates a strong positive relationship; as the type of visit changes from general public (Type 1) to school (Type 2), the number of visitors increases proportionally. This coefficient, close to +1, shows a high correlation, suggesting that school visits attract more participants per group compared to the general public visits. The two-tailed statistical significance of less than 0.01 confirms the robustness of this correlation, indicating a less than 1% probability that the result is due to chance, which underscores the significant influence of the type of visit on the number of visitors.

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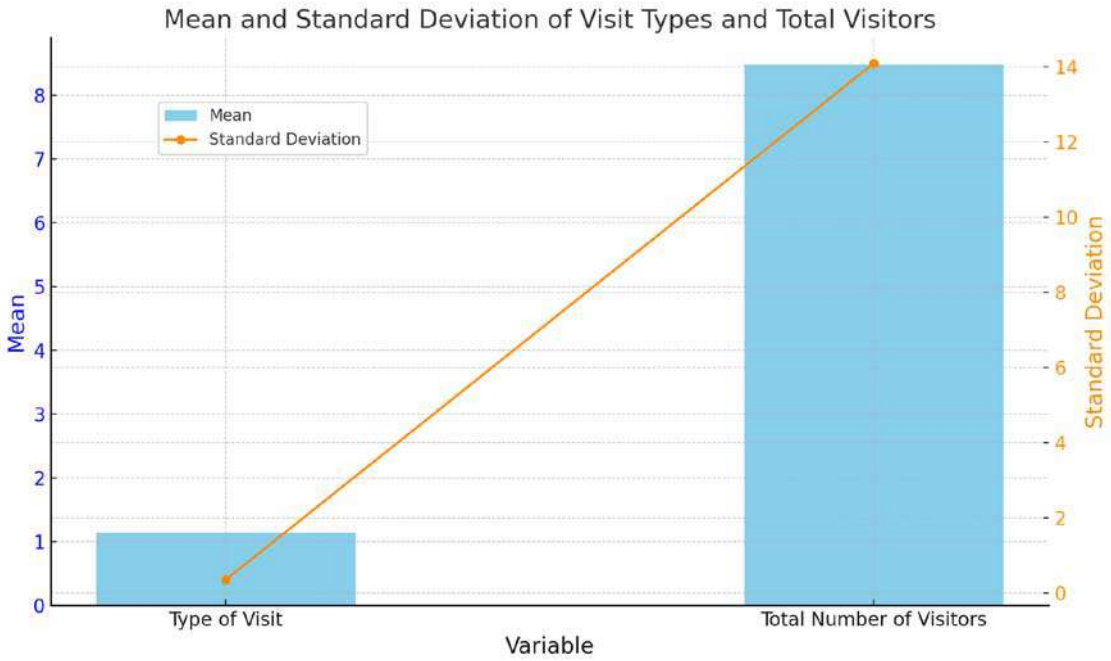

Figure 8: Chart showing the mean and standard deviation for both the type of visit and the total number of visitors.

The T-test for independent samples and the Levene's test reveal significant differences between types of visits, with an F-value of 286.351 ($p < 0.001$), indicating distinct variances. The t-value of -27.689 (405 degrees of freedom, $p < 0.001$) underscores a pronounced difference in the number of visitors between the two types, confirmed under the assumption of unequal variances ($t = -12.565$, 57.820 degrees of freedom, $p < 0.001$). The effect size, measured by Cohen's d (8.29203), Hedges' g correction (8.30743), and Glass's Δ (19.66290), demonstrates an extreme discrepancy between the groups, evidencing the significant impact of the type of visit on visitor influx.

Table 3: Effect Sizes for Independent Samples

		Standardized	Estimation of Points	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
Total Number of Visitors	Cohen's d	8,29203	-3,926	-4,313	-3,537
	Hedges' g	8,30743	-3,919	-4,305	-3,531
	Glass's Δ	19,66290	-1,656	-2,064	-1,241

a. The denominator used in the effect size estimation.
Cohen's d uses the combined standard deviation.
Hedges' g uses the combined standard deviation, plus a correction factor.
Glass's Δ uses the control group's sample standard deviation.

Therefore, the T-test reveals a statistically significant difference in the total number of visitors between the two types of visits, with Visit Type 2 being significantly more popular in terms of the number of visitors. The large difference in means and effect sizes underlines the magnitude of this difference.

This notable difference in the number of visitors between the two types indicates that Visit Type 2 has characteristics that make it more appealing to an organized and larger audience.

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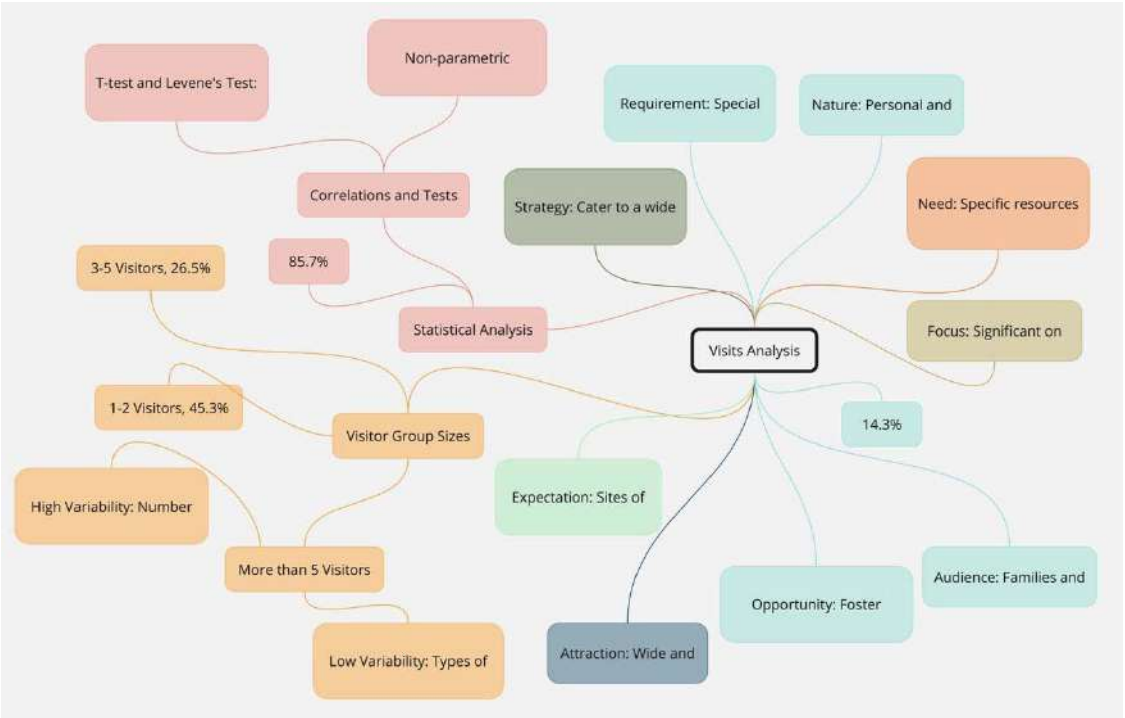

Figure 9: Mindmap diagram illustrating the analysis of types of visits and the total number of visitors.

The prevalence of larger groups in school visits (Type 2) highlights the tendency of these visits to include entire classes, usually transported by school buses, which increases the number of visitors per group. In response, the management of the shelters has implemented strategies to efficiently handle the high influx of school groups, such as assigning additional guides and opening wider spaces. Specifically, the War Interpretation Center in Alicante was constructed next to the Séneca Square shelter to facilitate educational and interactive visits for large groups. This strategic approach has also guided the development of programs and educational materials designed to attract and effectively manage the volume and dynamics of large school groups, as evidenced in the visualization of the sequence diagram (Figure 10), which illustrates the flow from identifying the needs of school visits to the implementation of tailored solutions.

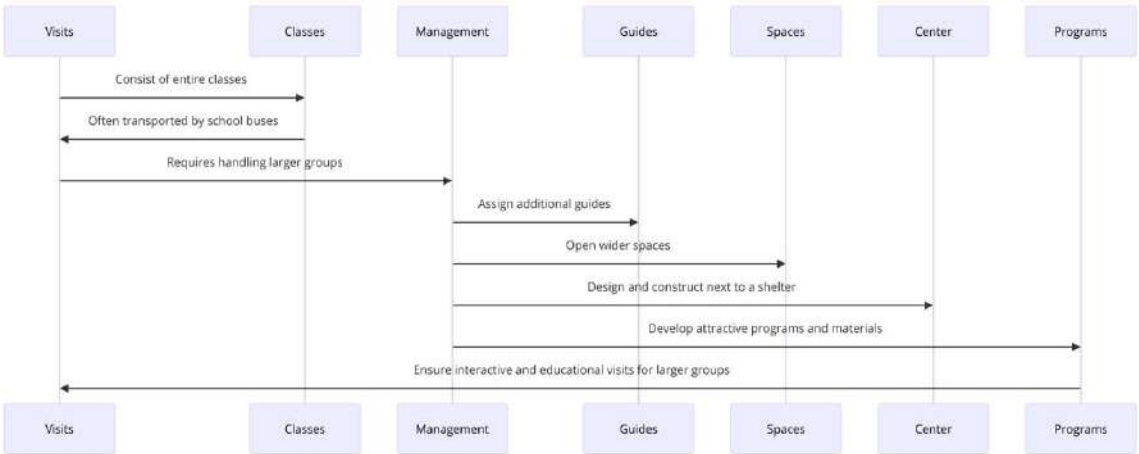

Figure 10: Flow from the identification of school visits as larger groups

The descriptive analysis reveals that the ways in which visitors discover the Civil War shelters vary widely, with an average of 11.9853 and a standard deviation of 5.00687 across 407 observations. The most frequent method is through "Internet" (24.3%), highlighting the importance of an effective online presence to attract visitors. However, 22.6% of the responses were classified as "Unknown", suggesting a diversity in discovery methods not specifically identified by respondents. This underscores the relevance of digital strategies and the existence of various communication channels.

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Table 4: How did you hear about the shelter visits?

	N	%
1,00	13	3,2%
2,00	4	1,0%
3,00	34	8,4%
4,00	2	0,5%
5,00	1	0,2%
6,00	1	0,2%
7,00	37	9,1%
8,00	9	2,2%
9,00	7	1,7%
10,00	18	4,4%
11,00	6	1,5%
12,00	38	9,3%
13,00	92	22,6%
14,00	2	0,5%
15,00	5	1,2%
16,00	99	24,3%
17,00	3	0,7%
18,00	15	3,7%
19,00	9	2,2%
20,00	2	0,5%
21,00	1	0,2%
22,00	6	1,5%
23,00	1	0,2%
24,00	1	0,2%
25,00	1	0,2%

The tourist office (9.3%) and previous visits (9.1%) emerge as significant methods for discovering the shelters, highlighting the impact of recommendations and visitor loyalty. Recommendations from friends or family account for 8.4%, evidencing the influence of word-of-mouth. Although less prevalent, social media (4.4%) plays a crucial role, emphasizing the importance of attractive profiles on these platforms to inform potential visitors.

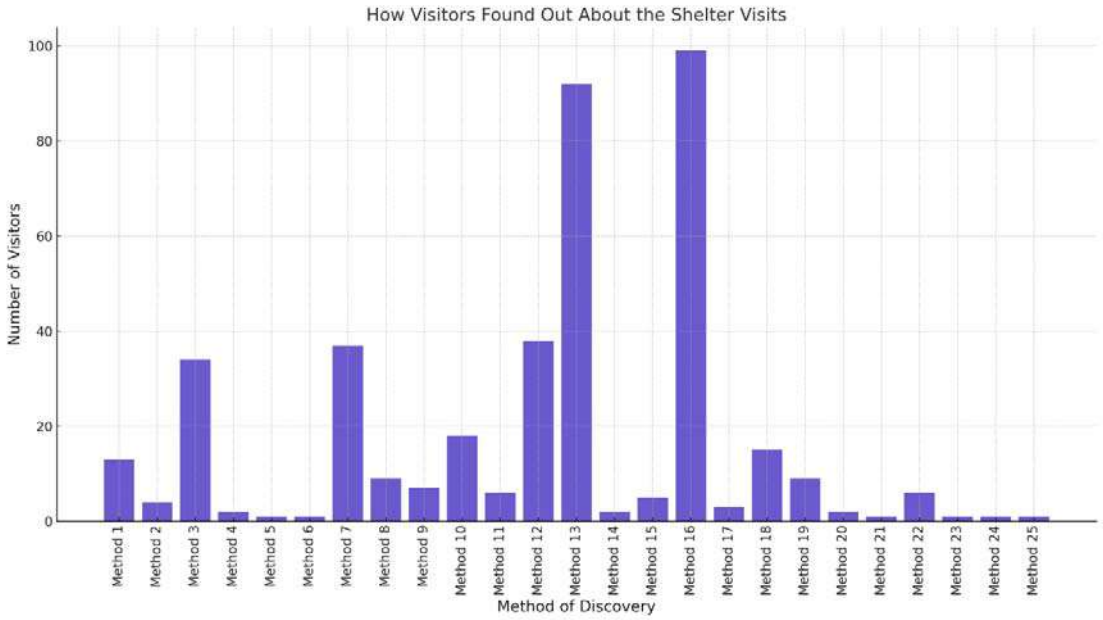

Figure 11: Bar chart showing how visitors learned about the shelter visits, using codes to represent the different methods.

The correlation analysis reveals a moderate positive relationship (Pearson = 0.296) between the type of visit to the shelters and how visitors find out about them, significant at the 0.01 level. This suggests

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that the means of discovery varies with the type of visit, though not markedly so. For instance, school visits might be discovered through educational channels, while the general public might find out via the internet or advertising, indicating trends but not absolute rules.

Table 5: Correlations

		Type of Visit	How did you hear about the shelter visits?
Type of Visit	Pearson Correlation	1	,296
	Significance (2-tailed)		<,001
	Sum of Squares and Products	49,735	210,855
	Covariance	,122	,519
	N	407	407
How did you hear about the shelter visits?	Pearson Correlation	,296	1
	Significance (2-tailed)	<,001	
	Sum of Squares and Products	210,855	10177,912
	Covariance	,519	25,069
	N	407	407

. The correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The Kendall Tau-b and Spearman Rho tests, with coefficients of 0.256 and 0.295 respectively and significance at the 0.01 level, corroborate the moderate positive correlation identified by Pearson. This finding, which does not presuppose normality in the data distribution, suggests that marketing and communication strategies can be specifically tailored for each type of visit, optimizing educational channels for school visits and focusing on social media and online advertising for the general public. However, since the correlation is not strong, a diversified communication strategy addressing multiple channels is recommended.

Table 6: Non-parametric Correlations

			Type of Visit	How did you hear about the shelter visits?
Kendall's Tau-b	Type of Visit	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,256
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	<,001
		N	407	407
	How did you hear about the shelter visits	Correlation Coefficient	,256	1,000
		Significance (2-tailed)	<,001	.
		N	407	407
Spearman's Rho	Type of Visit	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,295
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	<,001
		N	407	407
	How did you hear about the shelter visits	Correlation Coefficient	,295	1,000
		Significance (2-tailed)	<,001	.
		N	407	407

. The correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations between visitors' ages and how they found out about the shelters show specific trends. The 26 to 35 age group has a weak positive correlation (Tau-b: 0.123; Spearman: 0.149), suggesting a slight relationship between their age and the methods of discovery used. In contrast, those over 65 years of age exhibit a weak negative correlation (Tau-b: -0.090; Spearman: -0.105), indicating differences in how this age group learns about the visits. These findings underscore the importance of tailoring communication strategies to different age groups, valuing both online presence and word-of-mouth.

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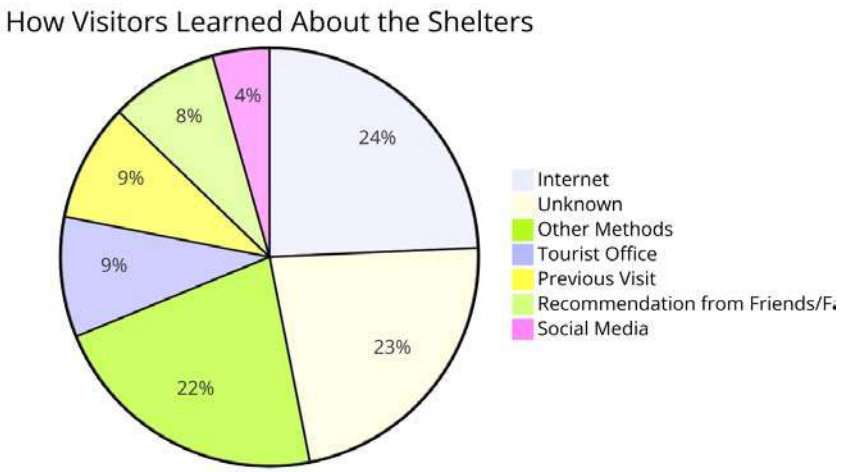

Figure 12: Pie-chart diagram illustrating how visitors learned about the shelters, showing the distribution of discovery methods among visitors.

We have developed a network graph that illustrates the main methods of discovery (Internet, Unknown, Tourist Office, Previous Visit, Recommendation from Friends or Family, and social media) as nodes, interconnecting them with types of visits (General Public vs. School Visits) through correlations. This conceptual approach emphasizes the relevance of each method and its link to the types of visits, facilitating understanding of how visitors combine various channels to obtain information about the shelters, highlighting the interconnection between different means of discovery.

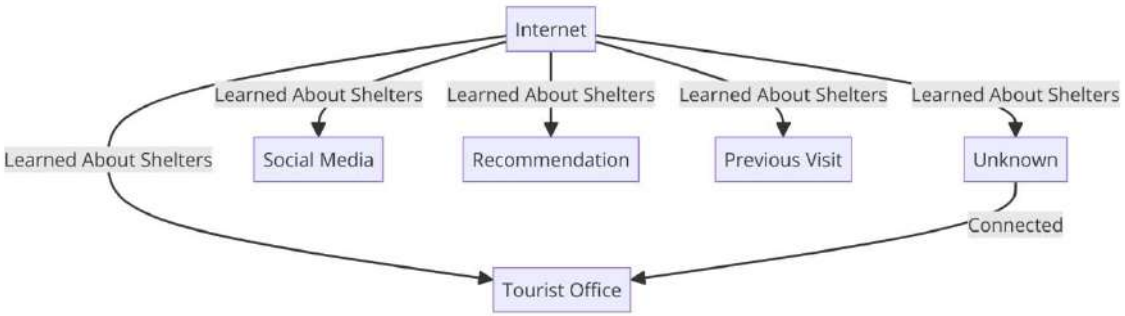

Figure 13: Network graph or connection map, showing the methods of discovery for visits to the shelters as nodes and the interrelations between them as connections.

The analysis of age group participation among visitors to the shelters reveals that children (0 to 14 years) participate minimally, with an 88.7% absence in these groups, suggesting that the content of the Spanish Civil War might not be considered attractive or appropriate for them. The percentages of children's participation significantly decrease in groups, from 3.2% for one child to 0.2% in groups with 72 children, typically school groups.

Non-parametric correlations show a moderate positive relationship between the total number of visitors and age, with Tau-b (0.278) and Rho (0.315) coefficients, indicating that larger groups tend to include children of this age range. A One-Way ANOVA confirms statistically significant differences in the number of visitors among age groups of 0 to 14 years, with an F value of 8.414 and significance less than 0.001, demonstrating that variation in the number of visitors by age group is not random and highlights specific patterns of participation in these visits.

Table 7: ANOVA

	Total Number of Visitors				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Between Groups	23551,288	19	1239,541	8,414	<,001
Within Groups	57012,284	387	147,319		
Total	80563,572	406			

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Furthermore, the fixed-effect Eta squared and Omega squared are relatively high (approximately 0.29 and 0.25 respectively), indicating that a considerable proportion of the variability in the total number of visitors can be attributed to differences among the 0 to 14-year-old age groups.

Table 8: ANOVA Effect Sizesa[a]

			Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval Lower	Upper
Total Number of Visitors	Eta Squared		,292	,186	,329
	Epsilon Squared		,258	,147	,296
	Fixed Effect Omega Squared		,257	,146	,296
	Random Effect Omega Squared		,018	,009	,022

a. *Eta Squared and Epsilon Squared are estimated based on the fixed effect model.*

The majority of visits occur in small groups or individually, as indicated by the total of 361 observations in the individual visitors or small groups category, with an average of 7.3740 visitors and a standard deviation of 12.56655. This shows that participation in small groupings is common, though with variability in group size. Larger groups are rare, with some records reaching up to 98 visitors, but represent exceptions. Predominantly, visits are characterized by a smaller number of participants.

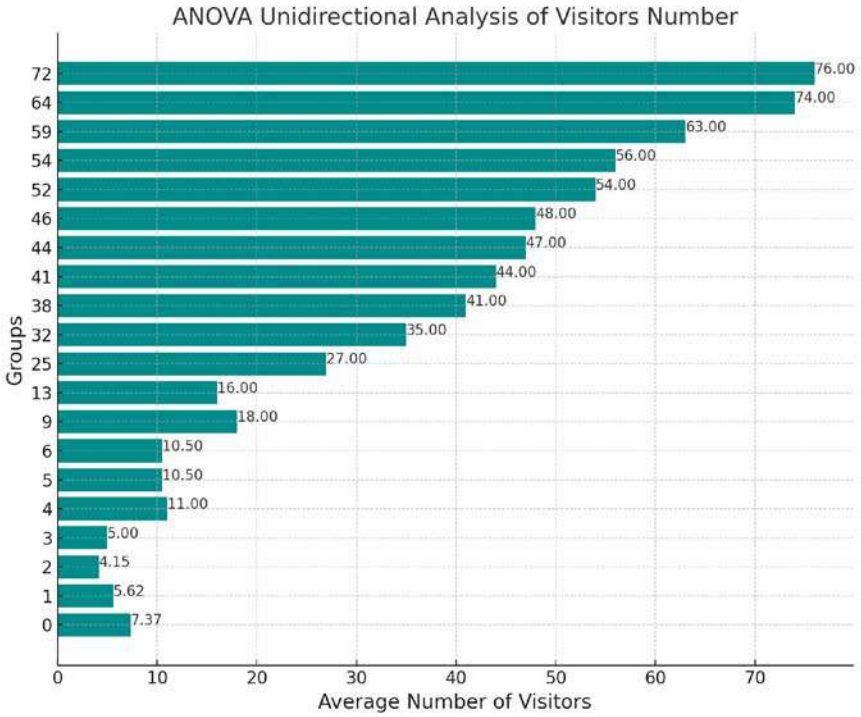

Figure 14: Chart of the One-Way ANOVA analysis of visitors

The correlation between the type of visits and the age of the visitors, though weak (Tau-b: 0.117; Spearman: 0.119), is significant, indicating that children aged 0 to 14 years tend to participate more in school visits (Type 2). This finding reflects the tendency to include children in educational activities, especially in contexts related to history such as the Civil War shelters. The stacked bar chart in Figure 15 illustrates how visitors are distributed by age range in both types of visits, offering a visual comparison between the participation of different age groups in general public versus school visits, highlighting the specific weight of each age segment in the composition of the groups.

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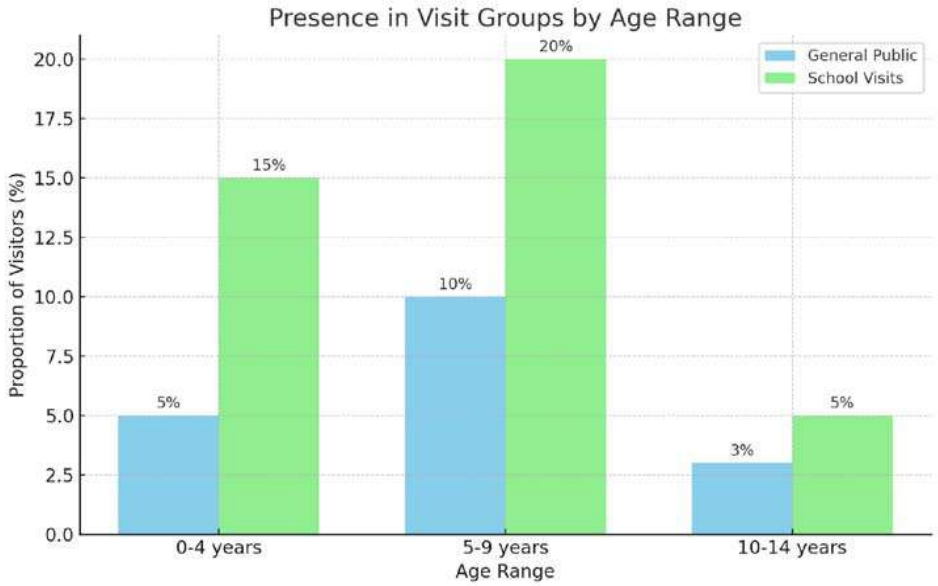

Figure 15: Stacked bar chart to provide a visualization of the distribution of visitors by age range within groups, distinguishing between general public visits and school visits

A significant majority of visit groups (72.5%) do not include young people aged 15 to 25, suggesting lower participation from this demographic group. However, this age range shows a more notable presence compared to younger age groups, especially in configurations of two visitors per group (10.1%). Correlations indicate a significant relationship between group size and the inclusion of young adults (Tau-b: 0.395; Rho: 0.450), and a strong association with visits of a specific type, more common among high school and university students (Tau-b: 0.402; Rho: 0.425).

The One-Way ANOVA analysis on the number of visitors in the 15 to 25 age range reveals variability in the average number of visitors per group, with some groups attracting significantly more young people, implying frequent organization of visits by educational institutions. The variability is confirmed by a sum of squares between groups and an F value of 16.660, indicating statistically significant differences. An Eta squared of 0.604 and a significant Omega squared indicate that more than 60% of the variability in the number of visitors is attributed to differences among groups, reflecting a considerable impact of visits organized by educational centers in attracting this age group.

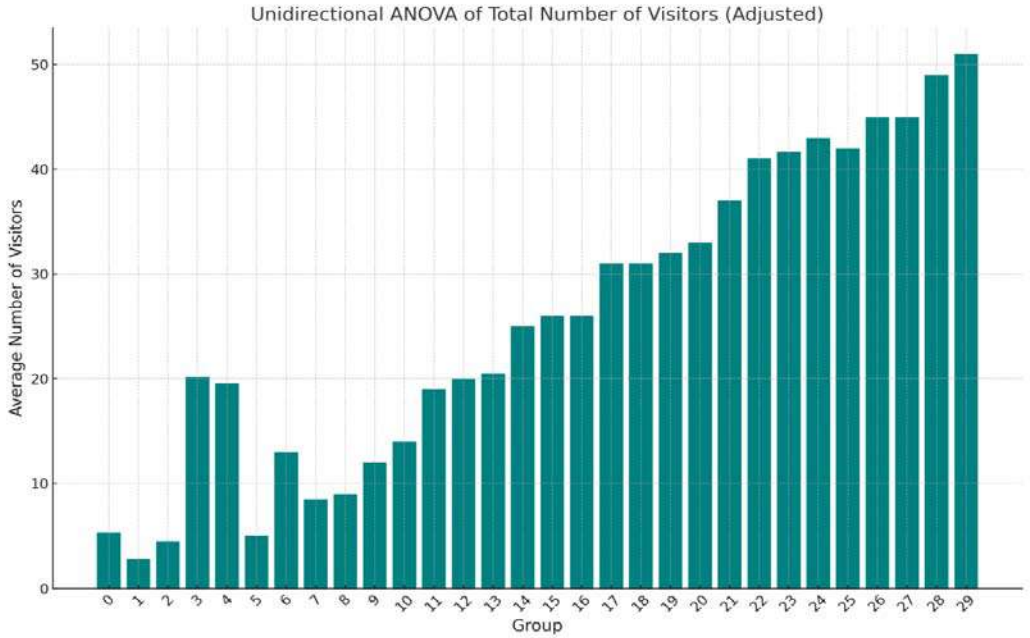

Figure 16: Adjusted chart of the One-Way ANOVA analysis of visitors

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The stacked bar chart in Figure 17 illustrates the age composition of visitor groups, highlighting a higher participation of young people aged 15 to 25, especially in school visits. This visualization evidences a marked interest or organized involvement by educational entities for this age range, in contrast to the 0 to 14-year-old segment. The differences in participation between general and school visits underscore the importance of this group in educational settings.

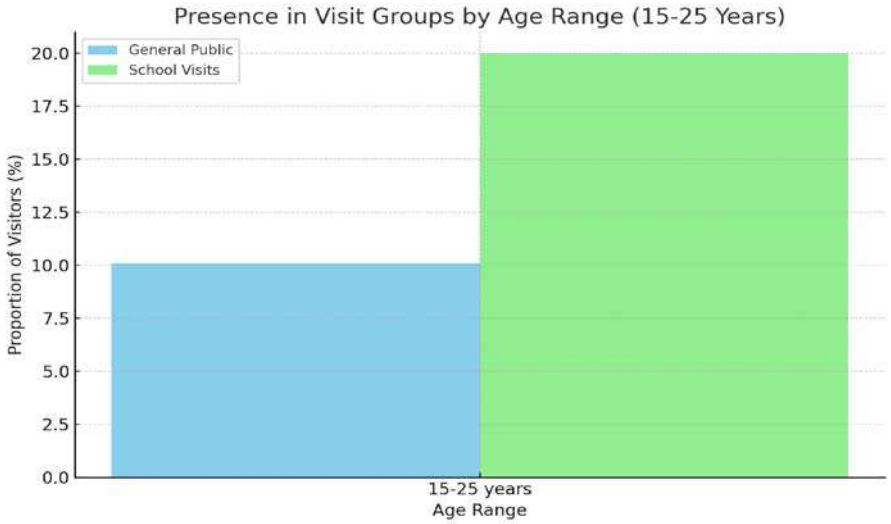

Figure 17: Stacked bar chart to provide a visualization of the distribution of visitors by age range within groups, distinguishing between general public visits and school visits.

The analysis of the age range of 26 to 35 years reveals that 56.5% of groups have no participants of this age, in contrast to 20.1% that include at least one young adult per group. Although the correlation between group size and age is positive (Tau-b: 0.211; Rho: 0.239), it suggests a lesser tendency of these young adults towards large groups compared to the 15 to 25 age group. With a predominant sample of 230 groups, the average of 8.2348 visitors shows variability, highlighting groups with a notably high average of 50.75 visitors, indicating specific activities or attributes that significantly attract this segment.

The ANOVA highlights significant differences in the number of visitors per group, affected by the grouping variable, with an Eta squared of 0.151 indicating a moderate effect, suggesting the influence of other factors on the variability of the number of visitors. The non-homogeneity of variances ($p < 0.001$) and significant differences between groups ($p < 0.001$) confirm that specific demographic characteristics significantly impact the attraction of visitors from this age range.

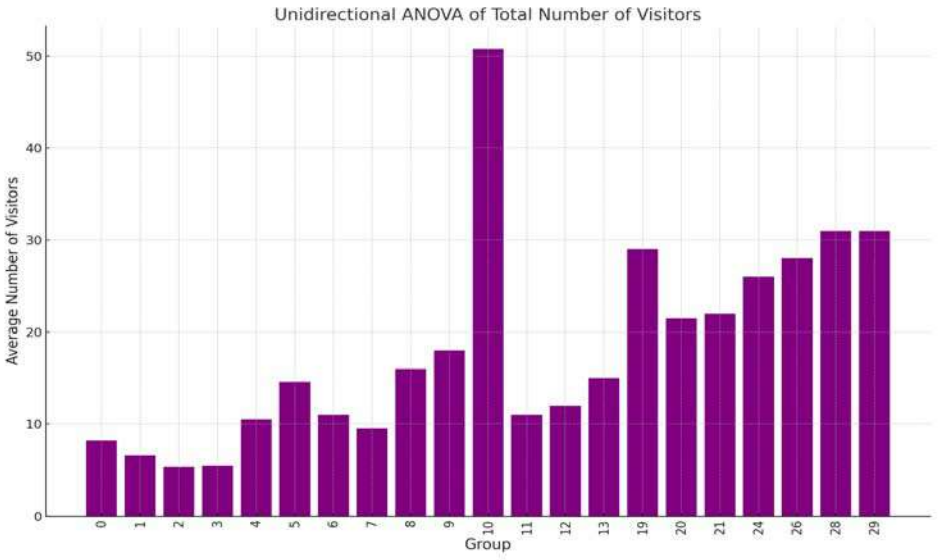

Figure 18: Chart of the One-Way ANOVA analysis of visitors

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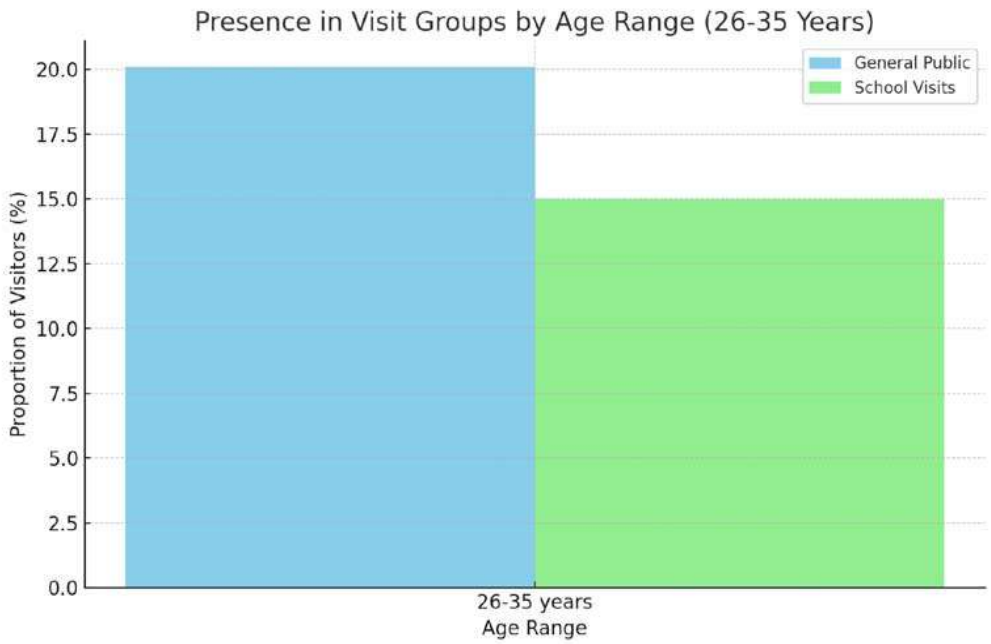

Figure 19: Stacked bar chart to provide a visualization of the distribution of visitors by age range within groups, distinguishing between general public visits and school visits.

The age group of 36 to 65 years shows the highest activity in visits, with only 46.7% of groups having no representatives from this age range, indicating their active participation. The average number of visitors is 8.4791, with a standard deviation of 14.08661, reflecting a wide dispersion in the number of visitors per group, from individuals to groups of 98 people. The high frequency of couples (27.5%) suggests that adult visitors often attend in pairs. Although the correlation between the total number of visitors and age is positive (Tau-b: 0.194; Rho: 0.229), it is less pronounced than in younger age ranges, indicating a significant but not predominant presence in large groups. The ANOVA analysis shows a low Eta squared (0.017), indicating that the influence of the grouping variable on the number of visitors from this age range is minimal, suggesting a limited impact on the variation of the number of visitors among groups.

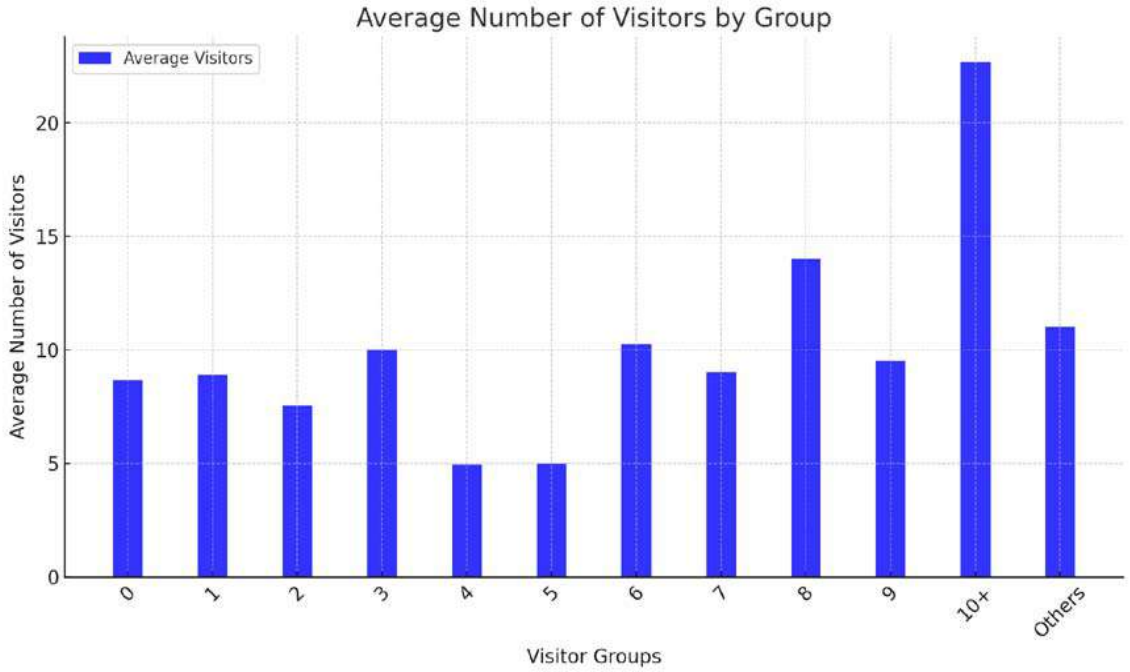

Figure 20: Chart of the One-Way ANOVA analysis of visitors

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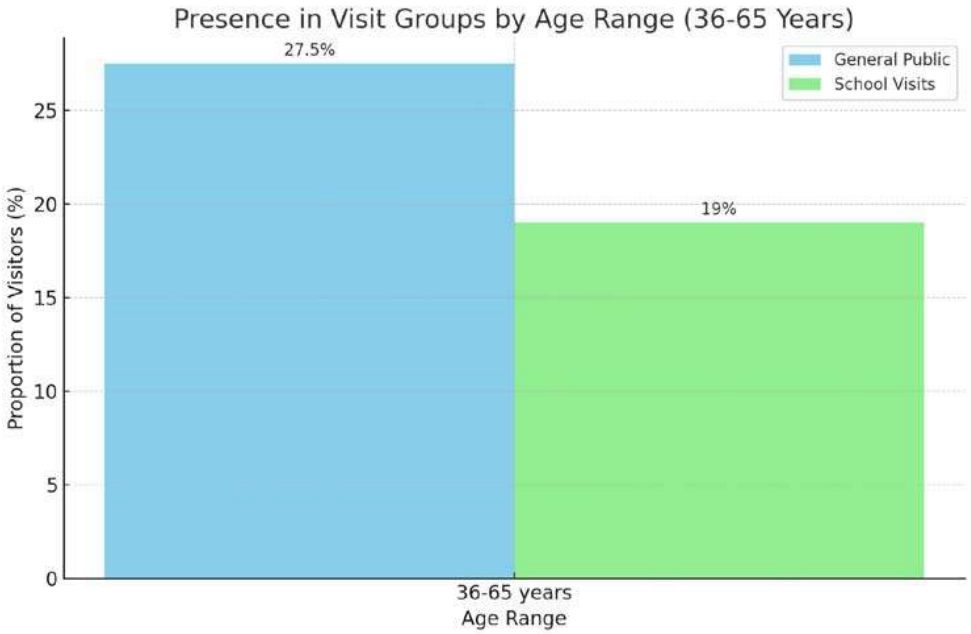

Figure 21: Bar chart for the age range of 36 to 65 years

A 93.9% of visits exclude individuals over 65 years old, suggesting possible perceptions of inaccessibility or disinterest in this age group. Participation from this segment is marginal, with a minority of groups including 1 or 2 older visitors. The lack of correlation between the total number of visitors and age (Tau-b and Rho: 0.000) demonstrates that the presence of visitors over 65 does not significantly affect the size of the group.

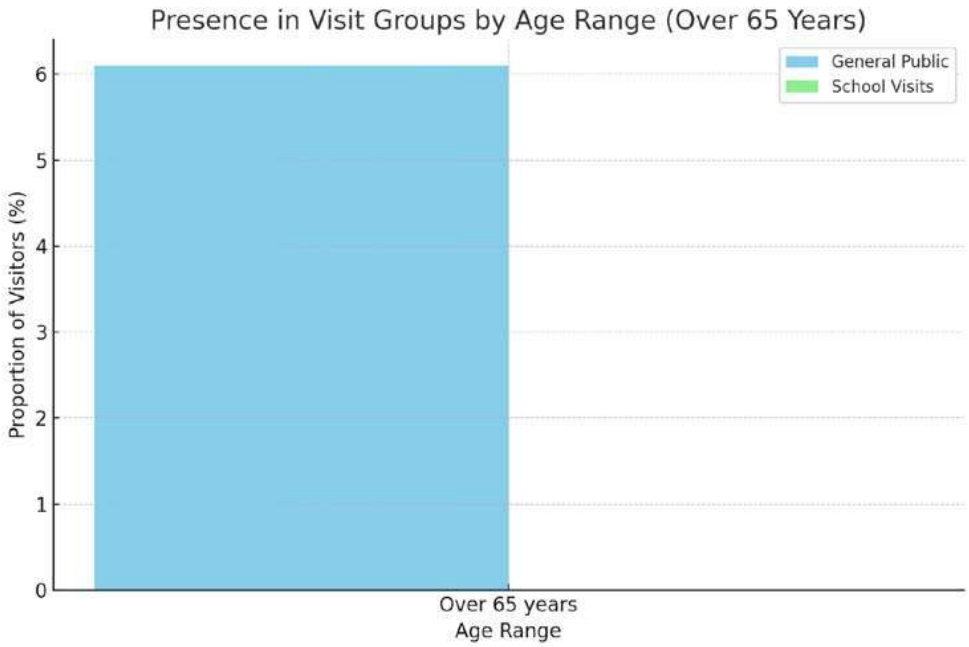

Figure 22: Bar chart for the age range of over 65 years

The data indicate that the size of the visitor group correlates positively with the inclusion of young people (15 to 25 years), suggesting that visits with larger groups are often organized by educational institutions for teenagers and young adults. Similarly, it is observed that adult groups also form part of large gatherings, generally as organized collectives, cruise participants, or in tourist packages, highlighting the varied demographic composition of the larger groups.

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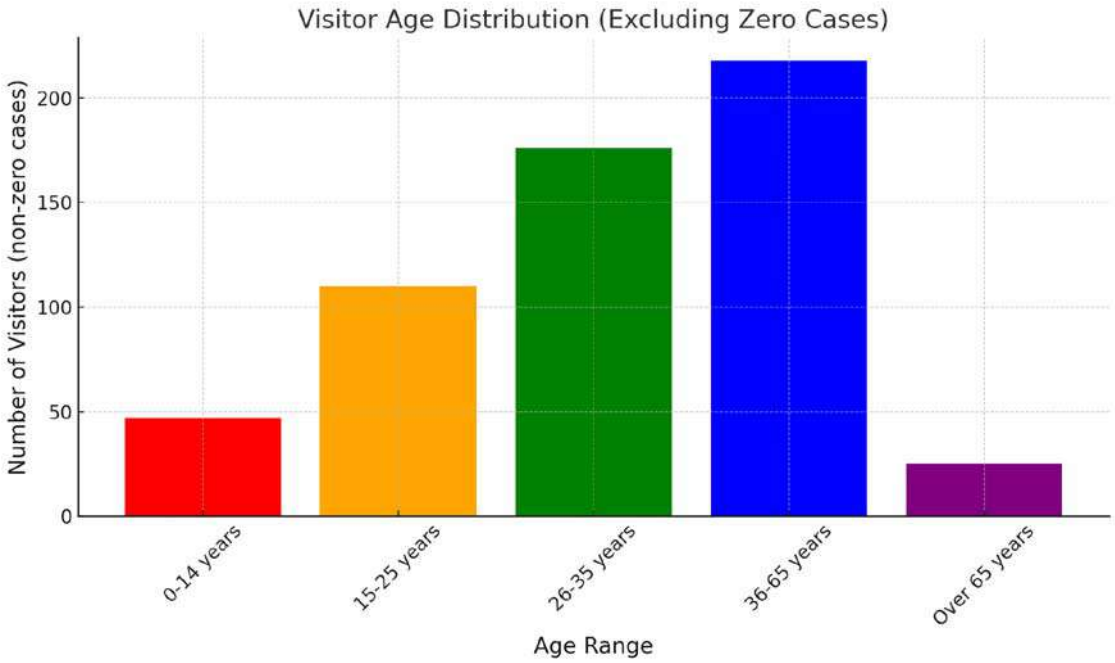

Figure 23: Bar chart showing the distribution of visitors by age range, excluding cases where there are no visitors in that age range.

The lack of correlation between group size and visitors over 65 years old suggests that they prefer smaller groups or participate less in these activities. This encourages the development of programs appealing to youth and young adults, who tend to form larger groups.

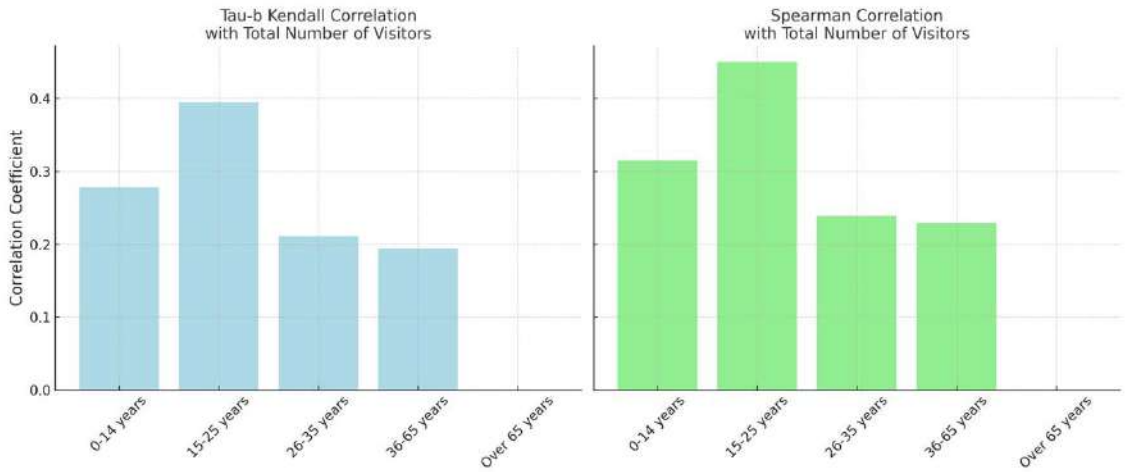

Figure 24: Chart of Kendall's Tau-b and Spearman's correlations.

Similarly, the results highlight a significant relationship between the type of visit and visitors aged 15 to 25 years. This is relevant for organizing events at heritage sites of memory, where activities are designed to attract this age group, leveraging the types of visits that already appear to be of their interest.

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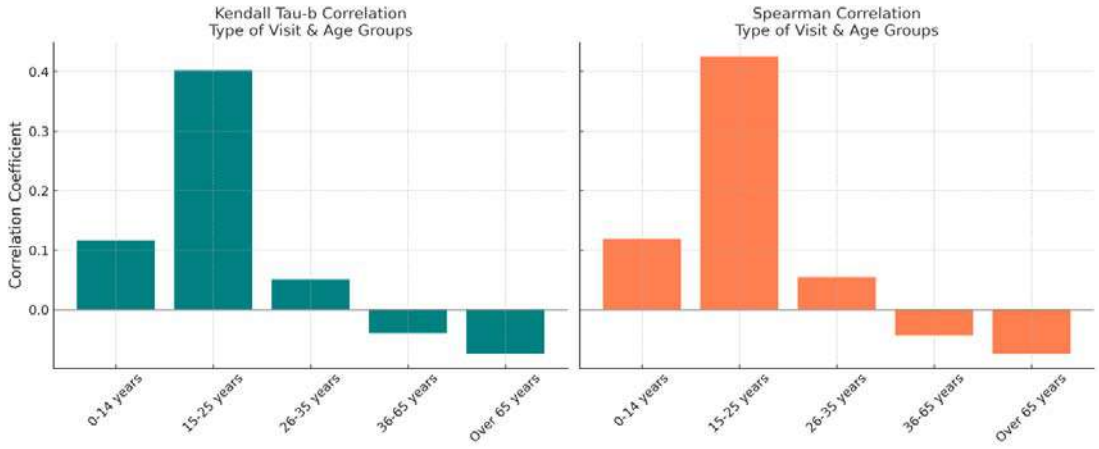

Figure 25: Charts showing the Kendall Tau-b and Spearman correlations between the type of visit and different age groups.

The T-test shows that there are no significant differences in the number of visitors aged 0 to 14 years, while for those aged 15 to 25 years, the differences are marginally non-significant ($p = 0.060$). However, for visitors aged 26 to 35 years, there is a significant increase in the number of visitors ($p < 0.003$), a trend that continues in the group of 36 to 65 years, albeit with marginal significance ($p = 0.065$). These results suggest a growing relationship between the age of the visitors and the size of the group, particularly marked in the age ranges of 26 to 35 and 36 to 65 years. This variability in statistical significance among age groups underscores the importance of tailoring and promoting experiences that attract specific age segments, particularly those who show a greater inclination to visit in significant numbers.

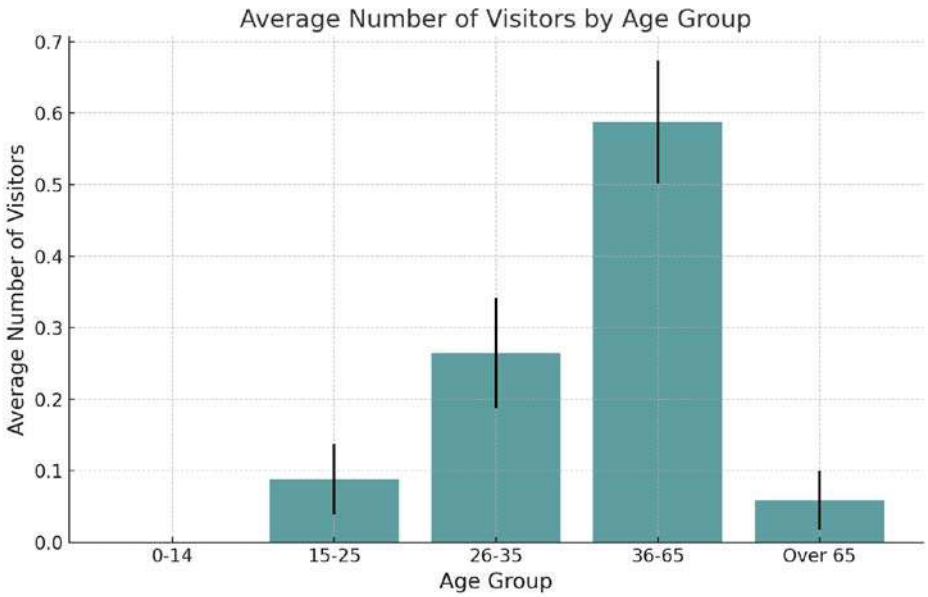

Figure 26: Bar chart visually illustrating trends in the number of visitors in relation to their age, especially highlighting the increase in the average number of visitors in the age group of 36 to 65 years.

Table 9: Group Statistics

	Total Number of Visitors	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error of Mean
Age 0 to 14 years	1,00	34	,0000	,00000	,00000
	2,00	150	,0200	,18208	,01487
Age 15 to 25 years	1,00	34	,0882	,28790	,04937
	2,00	150	,2733	,67453	,05508

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Age 26 to 35 years	1,00	34	,2647	,44781	,07680
	2,00	150	,7333	,95304	,07782
Age 36 to 65 years	1,00	34	,5882	,49955	,08567
	2,00	150	,8533	,98571	,08048
Age over 65 years	1,00	34	,0588	,23883	,04096
	2,00	150	,1200	,47656	,03891

Table 10: Effect Sizes for Independent Samples

		Standardizer[a]	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
Age 0 to 14 years	Cohen's d	,16475	-,121	-,494	,251
	Hedges' g	,16543	-,121	-,492	,250
	Glass's Δ	,18208	-,110	-,482	,263
Age 15 to 25 years	Cohen's d	,62251	-,297	-,670	,077
	Hedges' g	,62509	-,296	-,668	,076
	Glass's Δ	,67453	-,274	-,648	,100
Age 26 to 35 years	Cohen's d	,88315	-,531	-,906	-,154
	Hedges' g	,88681	-,528	-,902	-,153
	Glass's Δ	,95304	-,492	-,867	-,114
Age 36 to 65 years	Cohen's d	,91690	-,289	-,662	,085
	Hedges' g	,92070	-,288	-,659	,084
	Glass's Δ	,98571	-,269	-,642	,105
Age over 65 years	Cohen's d	,44303	-,138	-,510	,235
	Hedges' g	,44487	-,138	-,508	,234
	Glass's Δ	,47656	-,128	-,501	,244

a. *The denominator used in the effect size estimation.*
Cohen's d uses the combined standard deviation.
Hedges' g uses the combined standard deviation, plus a correction factor.
Glass's Δ uses the control group's sample standard deviation.

IV. Discussion

This study delves into the intersection of the rehabilitation of historical sites with cultural heritage and collective memory, evaluating how the Civil War shelters in Alicante, once rehabilitated and opened to the public, impact public perception and contribute to the enrichment of the city's cultural memory heritage. By analyzing the profile and behavior of visitors through quantitative methodologies, this work aligns with previous research that has highlighted the effectiveness of these approaches to understand dynamics at cultural heritage sites (Barrie et al., 2015; Edstrom et al., n.d.; M. Smith et al., 2020).

The analysis of the results obtained in this research is deepened by integrating the findings of previous studies that have addressed the effect of the rehabilitation of historical places on cultural heritage and the conservation of collective memory, as well as those that have employed similar methodologies to investigate the attitudes and profiles of visitors (Boyd & Timothy, 2002; Leask & Fyall, 2006; Richards, 2013). This intersection not only contextualizes our research within an expanded theoretical and methodological spectrum but also provides valuable conclusions for navigating the complex dynamics involved in the management and promotion of cultural heritage in urban settings.

Furthermore, the incorporation of future qualitative analyses to explore visitors' personal experiences and their emotional connection to these spaces follows the suggestion of studies that combine both methodologies (Cheng et al., 2016; Gounden et al., 2020; Rodgers et al., 2023)

The importance of integrating history into the urban environment, emphasizing the rehabilitation of memory sites for education and the conservation of collective memory, has been highlighted by research in the field of mnemohistory (Arnet, 2022; Galaz-Mandakovic & Rivera, 2023; Luo & Cao, 2023; Tamm, 2013, 2015; Wagner-Pacifici, 2010).

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Figure 27: Shelters at Plaza Músico Óscar Tordera.

The relevance of this study is reinforced by the public's increasing interest in the Civil War shelters in Alicante, indicative of greater awareness of the city's turbulent past (Atabay et al., 2022; Laderman, 2009; Moore et al., 2007; Ratnam, 2018; P. Rosser, 2020a, 2020b; Wöhs et al., 2018).

Additionally, it examines how tourism development can coexist with cultural heritage conservation, facing the challenge of maintaining the authenticity and historical value of memory places while promoting their public accessibility (Moore et al., 2007; Ratnam, 2018; Rogério Amoêda, 2017; L. Smith, 2006; Stone, 2019). This balance is crucial for the design of effective tourism and heritage conservation policies.

Therefore, the findings of this study not only contribute to the academic understanding of cultural heritage management in urban contexts but also highlight the potential of the Civil War shelters in Alicante as educational and tourist tools, fostering responsible tourism that values educational historical memory (Carretero & Borrelli, 2008; Ciro Solórzano & Caro-Lopera, 2020; Código, n.d.; Craggs et al., n.d.; Gabriel et al., n.d.; Gutiérrez, 2019; Martínez-Rodríguez et al., 2022; Movellán Haro, 2022; Pappier & Morras, 2008; Restrepo Valencia & Espinosa Ortega, 2023).

The quantitative methodology used in this study to evaluate the motivations and profiles of visitors is in harmony with previous research within the field of cultural and heritage tourism, which has demonstrated the usefulness of descriptive statistical techniques and correlation to reveal visitation trends and preferences at cultural interest sites (Richards, 2002; Prentice, 2003; Timothy & Boyd, 2006; Garrod & Fyall, 2000). Our statistical analysis seeks to deepen the understanding of the demographic dynamics of visitors and their behaviors, as well as the impact these have on the appreciation and recognition of cultural memory heritage.

Contrasting with certain previous research that limits itself to quantitative aspects, this study extends its gaze to qualitative analysis to explore more detailed personal experiences of visitors and their emotional connection with historical memory spaces. This comprehensive approach, blending quantitative and qualitative methodologies, is key to apprehending the richness of the interactions established between people and heritage spaces, as indicated by various studies employing this mixed approach.

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Figure 28: Shelters at Plaza de Séneca.

V. Conclusion

This interdisciplinary study evaluates the impact of visits to the Civil War shelters in Alicante on cultural heritage awareness, combining tourism and heritage studies with a quantitative approach. Analyzing 407 visitors from August 2023 to January 2024, it highlights a positive reception and an increase in historical awareness, contributing to sustainable urban development and historical understanding.

The results confirmed the main hypothesis of a positive impact of the rehabilitation and opening of the shelters on cultural heritage, showing an increase in interest and awareness of their historical importance. The research revealed a varied demographic profile of visitors, highlighting patterns related to age, geographic origin, and visit modality, and offered insights into the motivations behind the visits.

Confirming a link between cultural and educational activities and an increase in visitors, the study underscores the need for management and communication strategies tailored to different audiences. This work not only provides empirical evidence of the positive impact of the shelters' rehabilitation on Alicante's cultural memory heritage but also emphasizes the importance of effective heritage management strategies, including the development of educational programs and cultural activities for diverse audiences, suggesting continued research on visit modalities and communication strategies to enrich the visitor experience and strengthen the understanding and valuation of cultural memory heritage.



Figure 29: Hierarchical diagram of the conclusions.

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The study's conclusion reveals an understanding of the impact of the rehabilitation of the Civil War shelters in Alicante on cultural heritage, highlighting an increase in interest and visits post-opening. A positive relationship is identified between cultural and educational activities and the increase in visitors, along with variations in their profiles based on age, origin, and type of visit. This underscores the importance of adopting communication and management strategies tailored to different audiences, confirming the positive impact of the initiatives on heritage perception. The development of educational programs and cultural activities is recommended to enrich the visitor experience.

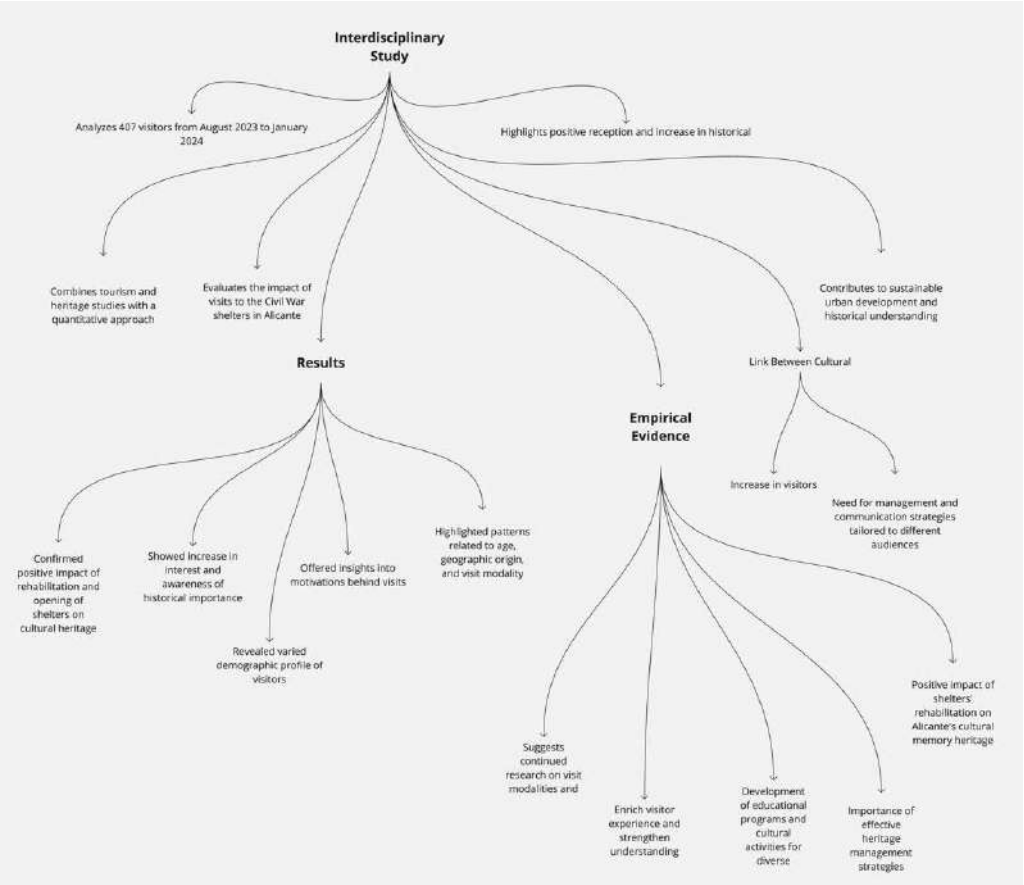

Figure 30: Sequence diagram of the conclusions.

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Conflict of Interest Statement

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Ethics Statement

Surveys conducted in this study were anonymous, and informed consent was obtained from all participants prior to their participation.

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Alternatively, you can download our basic template from https://globaljournals.org/Template.zip

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Unless specified in the notification, the Editorial Board's decision on publication of the paper is final and cannot be appealed before making the major change in the manuscript.

Acknowledgments

Contributors to the research other than authors credited should be mentioned in Acknowledgments. The source of funding for the research can be included. Suppliers of resources may be mentioned along with their addresses.

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Authors can submit papers and articles in an acceptable file format: MS Word (doc, docx), LaTeX (.tex, .zip or .rar including all of your files), Adobe PDF (.pdf), rich text format (.rtf), simple text document (.txt), Open Document Text (.odt), and Apple Pages (.pages). Our professional layout editors will format the entire paper according to our official guidelines. This is one of the highlights of publishing with Global Journals—authors should not be concerned about the formatting of their paper. Global Journals accepts articles and manuscripts in every major language, be it Spanish, Chinese, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian, French, German, Dutch, Italian, Greek, or any other national language, but the title, subtitle, and abstract should be in English. This will facilitate indexing and the pre-peer review process.

The following is the official style and template developed for publication of a research paper. Authors are not required to follow this style during the submission of the paper. It is just for reference purposes.

Manuscript Style Instruction (Optional)

- Microsoft Word Document Setting Instructions.
- Font type of all text should be Swis721 Lt BT.
- Page size: 8.27" x 11'", left margin: 0.65, right margin: 0.65, bottom margin: 0.75.
- Paper title should be in one column of font size 24.
- Author name in font size of 11 in one column.
- Abstract: font size 9 with the word "Abstract" in bold italics.
- Main text: font size 10 with two justified columns.
- Two columns with equal column width of 3.38 and spacing of 0.2.
- First character must be three lines drop-capped.
- The paragraph before spacing of 1 pt and after of 0 pt.
- Line spacing of 1 pt.
- Large images must be in one column.
- The names of first main headings (Heading 1) must be in Roman font, capital letters, and font size of 10.
- The names of second main headings (Heading 2) must not include numbers and must be in italics with a font size of 10.

Structure and Format of Manuscript

The recommended size of an original research paper is under 15,000 words and review papers under 7,000 words. Research articles should be less than 10,000 words. Research papers are usually longer than review papers. Review papers are reports of significant research (typically less than 7,000 words, including tables, figures, and references)

A research paper must include:

a) A title which should be relevant to the theme of the paper.
b) A summary, known as an abstract (less than 150 words), containing the major results and conclusions.
c) Up to 10 keywords that precisely identify the paper's subject, purpose, and focus.
d) An introduction, giving fundamental background objectives.
e) Resources and techniques with sufficient complete experimental details (wherever possible by reference) to permit repetition, sources of information must be given, and numerical methods must be specified by reference.
f) Results which should be presented concisely by well-designed tables and figures.
g) Suitable statistical data should also be given.
h) All data must have been gathered with attention to numerical detail in the planning stage.

Design has been recognized to be essential to experiments for a considerable time, and the editor has decided that any paper that appears not to have adequate numerical treatments of the data will be returned unrefereed.

i) Discussion should cover implications and consequences and not just recapitulate the results; conclusions should also be summarized.
j) There should be brief acknowledgments.
k) There ought to be references in the conventional format. Global Journals recommends APA format.

Authors should carefully consider the preparation of papers to ensure that they communicate effectively. Papers are much more likely to be accepted if they are carefully designed and laid out, contain few or no errors, are summarizing, and follow instructions. They will also be published with much fewer delays than those that require much technical and editorial correction.

The Editorial Board reserves the right to make literary corrections and suggestions to improve brevity.

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It is necessary that authors take care in submitting a manuscript that is written in simple language and adheres to published guidelines.

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Author details

The full postal address of any related author(s) must be specified.

Abstract

The abstract is the foundation of the research paper. It should be clear and concise and must contain the objective of the paper and inferences drawn. It is advised to not include big mathematical equations or complicated jargon.

Many researchers searching for information online will use search engines such as Google, Yahoo or others. By optimizing your paper for search engines, you will amplify the chance of someone finding it. In turn, this will make it more likely to be viewed and cited in further works. Global Journals has compiled these guidelines to facilitate you to maximize the web-friendliness of the most public part of your paper.

Keywords

A major lynchpin of research work for the writing of research papers is the keyword search, which one will employ to find both library and internet resources. Up to eleven keywords or very brief phrases have to be given to help data retrieval, mining, and indexing.

One must be persistent and creative in using keywords. An effective keyword search requires a strategy: planning of a list of possible keywords and phrases to try.

Choice of the main keywords is the first tool of writing a research paper. Research paper writing is an art. Keyword search should be as strategic as possible.

One should start brainstorming lists of potential keywords before even beginning searching. Think about the most important concepts related to research work. Ask, “What words would a source have to include to be truly valuable in a research paper?” Then consider synonyms for the important words.

It may take the discovery of only one important paper to steer in the right keyword direction because, in most databases, the keywords under which a research paper is abstracted are listed with the paper.

Numerical Methods

Numerical methods used should be transparent and, where appropriate, supported by references.

Abbreviations

Authors must list all the abbreviations used in the paper at the end of the paper or in a separate table before using them.

Formulas and equations

Authors are advised to submit any mathematical equation using either MathJax, KaTeX, or LaTeX, or in a very high-quality image.

Tables, Figures, and Figure Legends

Tables: Tables should be cautiously designed, uncrowned, and include only essential data. Each must have an Arabic number, e.g., Table 4, a self-explanatory caption, and be on a separate sheet. Authors must submit tables in an editable format and not as images. References to these tables (if any) must be mentioned accurately.

Figures

Figures are supposed to be submitted as separate files. Always include a citation in the text for each figure using Arabic numbers, e.g., Fig. 4. Artwork must be submitted online in vector electronic form or by emailing it.

Preparation of Eletronic Figures for Publication

Although low-quality images are sufficient for review purposes, print publication requires high-quality images to prevent the final product being blurred or fuzzy. Submit (possibly by e-mail) EPS (line art) or TIFF (halftone/ photographs) files only. MS PowerPoint and Word Graphics are unsuitable for printed pictures. Avoid using pixel-oriented software. Scans (TIFF only) should have a resolution of at least 350 dpi (halftone) or 700 to 1100 dpi (line drawings). Please give the data for figures in black and white or submit a Color Work Agreement form. EPS files must be saved with fonts embedded (and with a TIFF preview, if possible).

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Tips for writing a good quality Social Science Research Paper

Techniques for writing a good quality homan social science research paper:

1. Choosing the topic: In most cases, the topic is selected by the interests of the author, but it can also be suggested by the guides. You can have several topics, and then judge which you are most comfortable with. This may be done by asking several questions of yourself, like "Will I be able to carry out a search in this area? Will I find all necessary resources to accomplish the search? Will I be able to find all information in this field area?" If the answer to this type of question is "yes," then you ought to choose that topic. In most cases, you may have to conduct surveys and visit several places. Also, you might have to do a lot of work to find all the rises and falls of the various data on that subject. Sometimes, detailed information plays a vital role, instead of short information. Evaluators are human: The first thing to remember is that evaluators are also human beings. They are not only meant for rejecting a paper. They are here to evaluate your paper. So present your best aspect.

2. Think like evaluators: If you are in confusion or getting demotivated because your paper may not be accepted by the evaluators, then think, and try to evaluate your paper like an evaluator. Try to understand what an evaluator wants in your research paper, and you will automatically have your answer. Make blueprints of paper: The outline is the plan or framework that will help you to arrange your thoughts. It will make your paper logical. But remember that all points of your outline must be related to the topic you have chosen.

3. Ask your guides: If you are having any difficulty with your research, then do not hesitate to share your difficulty with your guide (if you have one). They will surely help you out and resolve your doubts. If you can't clarify what exactly you require for your work, then ask your supervisor to help you with an alternative. He or she might also provide you with a list of essential readings.

4. Use of computer is recommended: As you are doing research in the field of homan social science then this point is quite obvious. Use right software: Always use good quality software packages. If you are not capable of judging good software, then you can lose the quality of your paper unknowingly. There are various programs available to help you which you can get through the internet.

5. Use the internet for help: An excellent start for your paper is using Google. It is a wondrous search engine, where you can have your doubts resolved. You may also read some answers for the frequent question of how to write your research paper or find a model research paper. You can download books from the internet. If you have all the required books, place importance on reading, selecting, and analyzing the specified information. Then sketch out your research paper. Use big pictures: You may use encyclopedias like Wikipedia to get pictures with the best resolution. At Global Journals, you should strictly follow here.



6. Bookmarks are useful: When you read any book or magazine, you generally use bookmarks, right? It is a good habit which helps to not lose your continuity. You should always use bookmarks while searching on the internet also, which will make your search easier.

7. Revise what you wrote: When you write anything, always read it, summarize it, and then finalize it.

8. Make every effort: Make every effort to mention what you are going to write in your paper. That means always have a good start. Try to mention everything in the introduction—what is the need for a particular research paper. Polish your work with good writing skills and always give an evaluator what he wants. Make backups: When you are going to do any important thing like making a research paper, you should always have backup copies of it either on your computer or on paper. This protects you from losing any portion of your important data.

9. Produce good diagrams of your own: Always try to include good charts or diagrams in your paper to improve quality. Using several unnecessary diagrams will degrade the quality of your paper by creating a hodgepodge. So always try to include diagrams which were made by you to improve the readability of your paper. Use of direct quotes: When you do research relevant to literature, history, or current affairs, then use of quotes becomes essential, but if the study is relevant to science, use of quotes is not preferable.

10. Use proper verb tense: Use proper verb tenses in your paper. Use past tense to present those events that have happened. Use present tense to indicate events that are going on. Use future tense to indicate events that will happen in the future. Use of wrong tenses will confuse the evaluator. Avoid sentences that are incomplete.

11. Pick a good study spot: Always try to pick a spot for your research which is quiet. Not every spot is good for studying.

12. Know what you know: Always try to know what you know by making objectives, otherwise you will be confused and unable to achieve your target.

13. Use good grammar: Always use good grammar and words that will have a positive impact on the evaluator; use of good vocabulary does not mean using tough words which the evaluator has to find in a dictionary. Do not fragment sentences. Eliminate one-word sentences. Do not ever use a big word when a smaller one would suffice.

Verbs have to be in agreement with their subjects. In a research paper, do not start sentences with conjunctions or finish them with prepositions. When writing formally, it is advisable to never split an infinitive because someone will (wrongly) complain. Avoid clichés like a disease. Always shun irritating alliteration. Use language which is simple and straightforward. Put together a neat summary.

14. Arrangement of information: Each section of the main body should start with an opening sentence, and there should be a changeover at the end of the section. Give only valid and powerful arguments for your topic. You may also maintain your arguments with records.

15. Never start at the last minute: Always allow enough time for research work. Leaving everything to the last minute will degrade your paper and spoil your work.

16. Multitasking in research is not good: Doing several things at the same time is a bad habit in the case of research activity. Research is an area where everything has a particular time slot. Divide your research work into parts, and do a particular part in a particular time slot.

17. Never copy others' work: Never copy others' work and give it your name because if the evaluator has seen it anywhere, you will be in trouble. Take proper rest and food: No matter how many hours you spend on your research activity, if you are not taking care of your health, then all your efforts will have been in vain. For quality research, take proper rest and food.

18. Go to seminars: Attend seminars if the topic is relevant to your research area. Utilize all your resources.
Refresh your mind after intervals: Try to give your mind a rest by listening to soft music or sleeping in intervals. This will also improve your memory. Acquire colleagues: Always try to acquire colleagues. No matter how sharp you are, if you acquire colleagues, they can give you ideas which will be helpful to your research.

19. Think technically: Always think technically. If anything happens, search for its reasons, benefits, and demerits. Think and then print: When you go to print your paper, check that tables are not split, headings are not detached from their descriptions, and page sequence is maintained.

20. Adding unnecessary information: Do not add unnecessary information like "I have used MS Excel to draw graphs." Irrelevant and inappropriate material is superfluous. Foreign terminology and phrases are not apropos. One should never take a broad view. Analogy is like feathers on a snake. Use words properly, regardless of how others use them. Remove quotations. Puns are for kids, not grunt readers. Never oversimplify: When adding material to your research paper, never go for oversimplification; this will definitely irritate the evaluator. Be specific. Never use rhythmic redundancies. Contractions shouldn't be used in a research paper. Comparisons are as terrible as clichés. Give up ampersands, abbreviations, and so on. Remove commas that are not necessary. Parenthetical words should be between brackets or commas. Understatement is always the best way to put forward earth-shaking thoughts. Give a detailed literary review.

21. Report concluded results: Use concluded results. From raw data, filter the results, and then conclude your studies based on measurements and observations taken. An appropriate number of decimal places should be used. Parenthetical remarks are prohibited here. Proofread carefully at the final stage. At the end, give an outline to your arguments. Spot perspectives of further study of the subject. Justify your conclusion at the bottom sufficiently, which will probably include examples.

22. Upon conclusion: Once you have concluded your research, the next most important step is to present your findings. Presentation is extremely important as it is the definite medium though which your research is going to be in print for the rest of the crowd. Care should be taken to categorize your thoughts well and present them in a logical and neat manner. A good quality research paper format is essential because it serves to highlight your research paper and bring to light all necessary aspects of your research.

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Informal Guidelines of Research Paper Writing

Key points to remember:

- Submit all work in its final form.
- Write your paper in the form which is presented in the guidelines using the template.
- Please note the criteria peer reviewers will use for grading the final paper.

Final points:

One purpose of organizing a research paper is to let people interpret your efforts selectively. The journal requires the following sections, submitted in the order listed, with each section starting on a new page:

The introduction: This will be compiled from reference matter and reflect the design processes or outline of basis that directed you to make a study. As you carry out the process of study, the method and process section will be constructed like that. The results segment will show related statistics in nearly sequential order and direct reviewers to similar intellectual paths throughout the data that you gathered to carry out your study.

The discussion section:

This will provide understanding of the data and projections as to the implications of the results. The use of good quality references throughout the paper will give the effort trustworthiness by representing an alertness to prior workings.

Writing a research paper is not an easy job, no matter how trouble-free the actual research or concept. Practice, excellent preparation, and controlled record-keeping are the only means to make straightforward progression.

General style:

Specific editorial column necessities for compliance of a manuscript will always take over from directions in these general guidelines.

To make a paper clear: Adhere to recommended page limits.



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- Submitting a manuscript with pages out of sequence.
- In every section of your document, use standard writing style, including articles ("a" and "the").
- Keep paying attention to the topic of the paper.
- Use paragraphs to split each significant point (excluding the abstract).
- Align the primary line of each section.
- Present your points in sound order.
- Use present tense to report well-accepted matters.
- Use past tense to describe specific results.
- Do not use familiar wording; don't address the reviewer directly. Don't use slang or superlatives.
- Avoid use of extra pictures—include only those figures essential to presenting results.

Title page:

Choose a revealing title. It should be short and include the name(s) and address(es) of all authors. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations or exceed two printed lines.

Abstract: This summary should be two hundred words or less. It should clearly and briefly explain the key findings reported in the manuscript and must have precise statistics. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations. It should be logical in itself. Do not cite references at this point.

An abstract is a brief, distinct paragraph summary of finished work or work in development. In a minute or less, a reviewer can be taught the foundation behind the study, common approaches to the problem, relevant results, and significant conclusions or new questions.

Write your summary when your paper is completed because how can you write the summary of anything which is not yet written? Wealth of terminology is very essential in abstract. Use comprehensive sentences, and do not sacrifice readability for brevity; you can maintain it succinctly by phrasing sentences so that they provide more than a lone rationale. The author can at this moment go straight to shortening the outcome. Sum up the study with the subsequent elements in any summary. Try to limit the initial two items to no more than one line each.

Reason for writing the article—theory, overall issue, purpose.

- Fundamental goal.
- To-the-point depiction of the research.
- Consequences, including definite statistics—if the consequences are quantitative in nature, account for this; results of any numerical analysis should be reported. Significant conclusions or questions that emerge from the research.

Approach:

- Single section and succinct.
- An outline of the job done is always written in past tense.
- Concentrate on shortening results—limit background information to a verdict or two.
- Exact spelling, clarity of sentences and phrases, and appropriate reporting of quantities (proper units, important statistics) are just as significant in an abstract as they are anywhere else.

Introduction:

The introduction should "introduce" the manuscript. The reviewer should be presented with sufficient background information to be capable of comprehending and calculating the purpose of your study without having to refer to other works. The basis for the study should be offered. Give the most important references, but avoid making a comprehensive appraisal of the topic. Describe the problem visibly. If the problem is not acknowledged in a logical, reasonable way, the reviewer will give no attention to your results. Speak in common terms about techniques used to explain the problem, if needed, but do not present any particulars about the protocols here.

The following approach can create a valuable beginning:

- Explain the value (significance) of the study.
- Defend the model—why did you employ this particular system or method? What is its compensation? Remark upon its appropriateness from an abstract point of view as well as pointing out sensible reasons for using it.
- Present a justification. State your particular theory(-ies) or aim(s), and describe the logic that led you to choose them.
- Briefly explain the study's tentative purpose and how it meets the declared objectives.

Approach:

Use past tense except for when referring to recognized facts. After all, the manuscript will be submitted after the entire job is done. Sort out your thoughts; manufacture one key point for every section. If you make the four points listed above, you will need at least four paragraphs. Present surrounding information only when it is necessary to support a situation. The reviewer does not desire to read everything you know about a topic. Shape the theory specifically—do not take a broad view.

As always, give awareness to spelling, simplicity, and correctness of sentences and phrases.

Procedures (methods and materials):

This part is supposed to be the easiest to carve if you have good skills. A soundly written procedures segment allows a capable scientist to replicate your results. Present precise information about your supplies. The suppliers and clarity of reagents can be helpful bits of information. Present methods in sequential order, but linked methodologies can be grouped as a segment. Be concise when relating the protocols. Attempt to give the least amount of information that would permit another capable scientist to replicate your outcome, but be cautious that vital information is integrated. The use of subheadings is suggested and ought to be synchronized with the results section.

When a technique is used that has been well-described in another section, mention the specific item describing the way, but draw the basic principle while stating the situation. The purpose is to show all particular resources and broad procedures so that another person may use some or all of the methods in one more study or referee the scientific value of your work. It is not to be a step-by-step report of the whole thing you did, nor is a methods section a set of orders.

Materials:

Materials may be reported in part of a section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.

Methods:

- Report the method and not the particulars of each process that engaged the same methodology.
- Describe the method entirely.
- To be succinct, present methods under headings dedicated to specific dealings or groups of measures.
- Simplify—detail how procedures were completed, not how they were performed on a particular day.
- If well-known procedures were used, account for the procedure by name, possibly with a reference, and that's all.

Approach:

It is embarrassing to use vigorous voice when documenting methods without using first person, which would focus the reviewer's interest on the researcher rather than the job. As a result, when writing up the methods, most authors use third person passive voice.

Use standard style in this and every other part of the paper—avoid familiar lists, and use full sentences.

What to keep away from:

- Resources and methods are not a set of information.
- Skip all descriptive information and surroundings—save it for the argument.
- Leave out information that is immaterial to a third party.



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You must clearly differentiate material which would usually be incorporated in a study editorial from any unprocessed data or additional appendix matter that would not be available. In fact, such matters should not be submitted at all except if requested by the instructor.

Content:

- Sum up your conclusions in text and demonstrate them, if suitable, with figures and tables.
- In the manuscript, explain each of your consequences, and point the reader to remarks that are most appropriate.
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- Explain results of control experiments and give remarks that are not accessible in a prescribed figure or table, if appropriate.
- Examine your data, then prepare the analyzed (transformed) data in the form of a figure (graph), table, or manuscript.

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- Do not discuss or infer your outcome, report surrounding information, or try to explain anything.
- Do not include raw data or intermediate calculations in a research manuscript.
- Do not present similar data more than once.
- A manuscript should complement any figures or tables, not duplicate information.
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Approach:

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Position your understanding of the outcome visibly to lead the reviewer through your conclusions, and then finish the paper with a summing up of the implications of the study. The purpose here is to offer an understanding of your results and support all of your conclusions, using facts from your research and generally accepted information, if suitable. The implication of results should be fully described.

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- Give details of all of your remarks as much as possible, focusing on mechanisms.
- Make a decision as to whether the tentative design sufficiently addressed the theory and whether or not it was correctly restricted. Try to present substitute explanations if they are sensible alternatives.
- One piece of research will not counter an overall question, so maintain the large picture in mind. Where do you go next? The best studies unlock new avenues of study. What questions remain?
- Recommendations for detailed papers will offer supplementary suggestions.

Approach:

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References	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring

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