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تنبيه

ما ينشر في المجلة يعبر فقط عن رأي صاحب المقال
و لا يعبر بالضرورة عن وجهة نظر المجلة و لا عن هيئة تحريرها

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تقديم (تعريف) المجلة

مجلة علمية محكمة نصف سنوية تصدر بانتظام كل ستة أشهر عن قسم علوم الاعلام و الاتصال / كلية العلوم الاجتماعية و الانسانية بجامعة غرداية ، تعنى بنشر البحوث و الدراسات في شتى تخصصات العلوم الاجتماعية و الانسانية ، و باللغة الانجليزية كما تختص هذه المجلة في نشر الأبحاث التي تتناول مختلف جوانب الدراسات الاجتماعية والتواصلية، مسلطة الضوء على كيفية تشكيل التواصل وتأثره بالمجتمع. تغطي المجلة مجموعة واسعة من الموضوعات، بما في ذلك دراسات الإعلام التي تبحث في دور وسائل الإعلام الجماهيرية في التأثير على الرأي العام، والتواصل بين الأشخاص الذي يركز على ديناميات التفاعل وجهاً لوجه. كما تستكشف المجلة الدراسات الثقافية، محللة كيفية تأثير السياقات الثقافية على ممارسات التواصل، والاتصال الرقمي الذي يتناول تأثير التكنولوجيا على التواصل في الفضاءات الرقمية. بالإضافة إلى ذلك، تعرض المجلة أبحاثاً حول الاتصال المؤسسي والاتصال السياسي والاتصال الصحي، متناولةً كيف يؤثر التواصل على المؤسسات والعمليات السياسية والصحة العامة. كما تُعنى المجلة بالعلاقات العامة والصحافة، مستعرضةً استراتيجيات إدارة التصور العام وعمليات جمع ونقل الأخبار. وأخيراً، تتناول المجلة علم العلامات الذي يدرس دور الرموز والإشارات في التواصل. من خلال تشجيع الأبحاث متعددة التخصصات، تهدف المجلة إلى تعزيز الفهم النظري والتطبيق العملي في هذه المجالات

تقديم (تعريف) المجلة باللغة الأجنبية

This journal is dedicated to publishing research that delves into various aspects of social and communication studies, offering insights into how communication shapes and is shaped by society. It covers a broad spectrum of topics, including media studies, which examines the role of mass media in influencing public opinion, and interpersonal communication, focusing on the dynamics of face-to-face interactions. The journal also explores cultural studies, analyzing how cultural contexts influence communication, and digital communication, which looks at the impact of technology in digital spaces. Additionally, it features research on organizational communication, political communication, and health communication, addressing how communication affects organizations, political processes, and public health. Public relations and journalism are key areas of focus, examining strategies for managing public perception and the processes involved in news

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dissemination. Finally, semiotics studies the role of signs and symbols in communication. By promoting interdisciplinary research, the journal aims to advance both theoretical understanding and practical application in these fields.

معلومات إضافية

شروط النشر

يجب أن تكون المقالات المقدمة إلى المجلة أصلية وغير منشورة وألا تكون قيد المراجعة في أي جهة أخرى، ينبغي أن تضيف الأبحاث قيمة حقيقية إلى مجالها المتخصص وأن تكون مكتوبة بوضوح لضمان سهولة الفهم، كما يتعين على المؤلفين الالتزام بالمعايير الأخلاقية، والإفصاح عن أي تضارب في المصالح.

شروط النشر باللغة الأجنبية

Manuscripts submitted to the journal must be original, unpublished, and not under review elsewhere. Submissions should contribute meaningfully to their field and be clearly written for accessibility. Authors must adhere to ethical standards, disclose conflicts of interest, and ensure proper attribution of prior work.

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The Shift from Strategic to Managerial Paradigms: A Theoretical Foundation.

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Abstract

The evolution of strategic and managerial thought has undergone multiple stages, culminating in the term "strategic management." This concept arose in response to the accelerating transformations in business environments and the increasing need for comprehensive visions capable of anticipating future challenges and formulating effective decisions. The convergence between these two fields reflects an intellectual progression aimed at transcending traditional administrative boundaries toward adopting a more dynamic and holistic perspective. Strategic management has thus become a methodological framework that enhances the organizational capacity to adapt to rapid changes while maintaining a sustainable competitive advantage.

Moreover, the reciprocal relationship between strategic and managerial thought has given rise to diverse approaches for understanding planning, execution, and evaluation processes within organizations. This interaction has led to the developing of integrated analytical and practical

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models, reshaping core concepts such as vision, mission, and long-term objectives into essential components of modern management practices. The influence of strategic management extends beyond the economic sphere to include public and non-profit sectors, reflecting the broad applicability and impact of its principles.

This article explores the intersection of managerial and strategic thought, emphasizing the integration of strategic concepts into administrative sciences. By tracing the evolution of both classical and contemporary strategic approaches, the study seeks to establish a conceptual foundation for strategic management, highlighting how organizations adapt to dynamic environments and implement strategic principles in their decision-making processes.

Key words; Strategic Management, Managerial Thought, Organizational Adaptation, Strategic Planning, Conceptual Integration

Introduction

The most important schools and theories that studied the concept of management from its various aspects, it can be said that they differed among themselves in many matters, and at the forefront of these differences is the nature of the approaches adopted by each school or theory, although we see that the pioneers of these schools also differed in understanding, interpreting and defining the content of management, its principles and even its meaning, and we also see that some schools practiced a break spontaneously, as they ignored the results of the schools that preceded them, although logic requires that the position of all researchers and pioneers in the field of management be justified through the environment, circumstances and period in

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which they lived in order to establish their theories, and from the researcher's point of view, it can be said that no modern theory in management can do without taking into account the assumptions of the systemic school and the situational school while dealing with the problems facing management science based on the basic concepts that crystallized through the stages of development of administrative thought. Despite the continuous changes in the field of administrative thought that crystallize in a set of modern concepts that seek to keep pace with different environments, modern methodologies for this thought have emerged in parallel, drawing their foundations from other fields, areas, and sciences. In addition, contemporary organizations will not achieve their goals except within the framework of a clear future vision toward anticipating prospects, where organizations find themselves faced with a single option, which is to adopt a strategy that includes all the frameworks and dimensions of the organization and its capabilities towards what is coming, which will support the options of any organization in adopting strategic thought.

This article aims primarily to try to clarify the modern convergence that administrative thought has reached towards implementing the concepts of strategic thought in the heart of management through methods of employing traditional or contemporary concepts of strategy and strategic thought, which may contribute to some extent to crystallizing an intellectual foundation for the term strategic management. From this standpoint, the problem of this article will revolve around explaining the nature of the convergence between administrative thought and strategic thought.

Strategic thought, including strategy, has gone through many historical stages. Over the ages, different strategy concepts have crystallized, each according to the field in which they were

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known. Accordingly, strategic thought was established, which included many trends, and many models emerged from it. This paved the way for the emergence of contemporary strategic thought, one of whose sources was a convergence towards administrative thought.

I) Roots of the concept of strategy and models of ancient strategic thought:

I) Roots of Strategy:

The concept of strategy dates back to ancient Greek civilization, where it was derived from the Greek word "Strategies," which means the science of the general. Accordingly, this concept is ancient in human thought. The specific uses of this word in that historical period indicate that the word "general" describes a personality consisting of three dimensions: (Al-Qatamin, 2002, p. 15)

1) The first dimension: The general is the person who acts decisively, as the job description of his role is to choose the most appropriate path promising to achieve a competitive experience. The meaning behind this idea stems from the fact that winning or losing battles is due to the generals who manage them by making correct or incorrect decisions in the process of employing the appropriate quantity and quality of capabilities (linking the objectives and the general's strategic capabilities in the decision-making process).

2) The second dimension: The general is the person who acts while knowing that he is not in a vacuum and that other forces around him affect and are affected by his way of acting and making decisions, and thus, these forces exert pressure on the results he seeks to achieve. He is

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a person who is well aware that he must monitor all events, big and small, and follow up on the strategic deliberations taking place on the battlefield among opponents and allies alike. He also analyzes what is said by his high command and among the ranks of his troops. He is a person who realizes that he has important roles to play in order to resolve the conflict in a way that leads to achieving his goals.

3) The third dimension: The general is the person who has a deep sense of time and when he should act. He studies his plans and strategic movements in-depth and implements them at the appropriate times to yield the desired results.

Thus, it is clear from the above that the ancient Greeks understood strategy as being based on three pillars:

A) Importance: This means that strategy deals with decisions and issues of utmost importance without other issues with tactical dimensions.

b) Comprehensiveness: The strategic action is characterized by being broad in scope, dealing with the general framework of movement towards the future, and performing broad-minded roles.

c) Long-term future outlook: The strategy's actual scope of application is in the future, meaning that it is implemented over a timeline that begins now and extends into the future for many years.

Thus, the concept of strategy is old in history. However, practical interest in it outside the framework of wars and the generals who led them did not appear until the past few decades, as

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the interest of researchers and business people in this concept increased with the beginning of the fifties of the twentieth century and during this period the concept of strategic planning developed and then the concept of strategic management.

The credit for the development of this concept and its subsequent applications in management goes to two people:

- First: "Chester Barnard," a senior employee at the American Telephone and Telegraph Company;

- Second: "Alfred Chandler," a university professor at the Harvard Business School.

Without prior coordination between them, they were able to complete the circle. The practical experience that Barnard gained from work was combined with the scientific, systematic approach of the university professor Chandler and was the starting point for what was known as: "strategic management."

I.2) Definition of Strategy

The concept of strategy has many definitions, and of course, what is meant by strategy depends on the accepted definition. It was defined as "the plans and activities of the institution that are developed in a way that ensures a degree of compatibility between the mission and objectives of the institution and between this mission and the environment in which it operates in an effective and highly efficient manner" (Bin Habtour, n.d., p. 31). We note here that strategy is a means to achieve a specific goal, which is the mission of the institution, as Drucker defined it as "analyzing the current situation and changing it if necessary, including determining the

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nature and amount of resources" (Al-Rikabi, 2004, p. 25). He emphasized that strategic analysis is the true beginning of strategic thinking.

Chandler defined it as "determining the basic long-term goals of the institution, by adopting executive plans and allocating resources to achieve them" (Sawakri, 1996, p. 32). Hence, strategy is based on determining the future image of the institution (LE QUOI), and what it should be, not how to reach that, which is within the scope of strategic planning.
As for strategy, according to (Ansoff), it is: "The organization's vision of the nature of the expected relationships with the external environment, in light of which the type of work that must be carried out in the long term is determined, and the extent to which the organization seeks to achieve its goals and objectives is determined" (Al-Douri, 2005, p. 25). That is, the strategy is linked to the external factors of the organization without the internal ones, as the organization's relationship with the environment is determined in the form of (product/market).

According to Ansoff, strategy is: "The organization's vision of the nature of its expected relationships with the external environment, in light of which the type of work to be undertaken in the long term is determined, and the extent to which the organization seeks to achieve its goals and objectives is determined" (Al-Douri, 2005, p. 25). That is, strategy is linked to the organization's external factors rather than its internal ones, as the organization's relationship with its environment is determined in the form of a (product/market). K. Andrews, a pioneer of the Harvard Business School, defined strategy as "concerned with the success of the organization and includes the selection of objectives, the adaptation of organizational capabilities, and the mobilization of resources to achieve those objectives" (Souakri, pp. 32-

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33). Accordingly, the Harvard School's conception revolved primarily around the essence of strategy as the content of decisions rather than the process of formulating them. It also emphasized that strategy involves establishing monitoring mechanisms (feedback) to achieve control, adaptation, and change over time.

What constituted a qualitative shift in the concept of strategy was the proposal of Minchiello-Curran-Macgarthy, who defined strategy as "the analysis of the environment and the selection of economic alternatives that reconcile the organization's resources and its objectives at a level of risk justified by profit and the possibility of achieving the alternatives themselves" (Al-Rikabi, p. 29). Here, they considered that objectives are not an element of the concept of strategy but rather fall within the steps of strategy formulation. This is what Steiner-Miner believed, adding that the analysis includes not only the external environment but also the internal environment of the organization. They also added the step of "strategy implementation" to the strategy formulation steps.

In 1979, Mintzberg defined strategy as "a mediating force between the organization and its environment, and a pattern of adaptive decisions made within the environment" (Al-Douri, 2005, p. 25). It appears that the level of these decisions is strategic, ensuring that the organization is aligned with its environment. Here, he emphasized that the task of strategy also includes analyzing the internal environment to ensure compatibility and adaptation between the organization and its external environment.

By the mid-1980s, Michael Porter, a pioneer of competitive strategies, defined strategy as the search for a suitable competitive position within an organization's sector of activity, or wherever competition is primarily evident. It seeks to secure a profitable and sustainable position within

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a framework determined by the competitive forces of the sector. He also emphasized the importance of creating alignment between the organization's activities and adapting to the environment. He added that every organization has a comprehensive competitive strategy that represents a combination of the organization's defined objectives and the means by which it achieves these objectives (Porter, 1999, p. 11).

By the end of the 1980s, Mintzberg pointed out that strategy cannot be given a single concept capable of encompassing it comprehensively and in-depth. Strategy must be viewed from a new perspective that expands its scope to encompass multiple concepts, especially in light of the advent of globalization. After formulating the views of a large group of researchers, he ultimately arrived at what became known as the "Five Ps for Strategy." He believes that strategy is:

1. **A plan**: It defines policies and methods of action. It is a set of guidelines that address the situation.
2. **A maneuver**: A trick or deception to circumvent competitors. Here, policy or tactic becomes a strategy.
3. **A model**: A harmonious set of components, specifically forming a flow of activities resulting from the coherence and coordination of an organization's operations, with the goal of achieving a stable position in the environment.
4. **A position**: A means of defining an organization's position in the environment, making strategy the mediating or harmonizing force between the organization and its environment.

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5. **A vision (a future viewpoint)**: The content of the strategy not only includes a chosen position but also ensures an understanding of the external environment and enables the ability to see and perceive things in their correct relationship (Al-Rikabi, pp. 38-40).

Ali Al-Salami defines strategy as: "The comprehensive master plan that determines how an organization achieves its mission and objectives by organizing its advantages and minimizing its disadvantages" (Al-Salami, p. 131).

Abdul Salam Abu Qahf defines it as: "A unified, integrated, and comprehensive plan that links the competitive advantages of organizations with environmental challenges" (Abu Qahf, 2004, p. 320).

Aida Khattab defines it as: "A set of guiding plans that help management achieve its chosen path, capitalize on surrounding opportunities, and confront the constraints, threats, and risks it faces, to achieve its strategic objectives while ensuring the implementation of the specified plans and programs" (Khattab, 1999, p. 4).

Thus, after examining the most prominent propositions regarding the concept of strategy, and the differing perspectives from which strategy is viewed, we find that the differences stem from three main areas:

1. The breadth of the concept of business strategy;
2. The diversity of strategy elements;
3. The ease of the strategy formulation process.

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Based on the above, we can provide the following operational definition of strategy: It is a future vision for the organization or a path that determines its direction in a way that achieves alignment between the organization and its environment to achieve a stable position that enhances the organization's survival, continuity, and growth. This is achieved by adopting a "master and comprehensive plan" (this plan must respond to the opportunities and threats facing the organization, ensuring the achievement of strategic objectives using distinctive efficiency to leverage the organization's available resources) (Al-Rikabi, p. 43).

II) Models of Traditional Strategic Thought

Throughout history, strategic thought has evolved through multiple stages, leading to the emergence of the following models:

1.II) Ancient Asian Strategic Thought (Chinese Model)

Writing held a prestigious place in China, with a significant portion dedicated to military affairs. By the 5th and 4th centuries BCE, Chinese strategic thought began to take shape, although many of these writings have been lost today. Some of the most notable figures in early Chinese strategic thought include "Master Hsün," "Master Kuan," "Lao Zi," and "Mo Zi."

The most famous Chinese strategist, however, was Sun Tzu (Zi), who is believed to have lived in the 5th century BCE. Many historians initially ignored him, while others only recognized his influence much later. Nonetheless, serious research confirms the antiquity of his contributions to strategic thought, particularly his thirteen essays on *The Art of War*, which were widely utilized by ancient Chinese military leaders (Hervé Coutau-Bégarie, 1999, p.152).

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Sun Tzu laid the foundation for an essential school of strategic thought. Several centuries later, other strategists emerged, such as General Cao Cao, one of the most prominent military figures during the Han Dynasty, and Li Quan, who served under the Tang Dynasty in the 7th and 8th centuries CE. Later figures included He Yanshi and Zhang Yu during the Song Dynasty.

Most of these strategists lived during the period of the Warring States, before the unification of the empire. During this time, strategic thought was divided into two major schools:

- The first school conducted in-depth analysis of the relationship between war and politics.
- The second school took an anti-militarist stance, paradoxically contributing to the development of military thought while opposing warfare, advocating instead for the right to self-defense.

Regarding global interest in this model, it was the Russians who first provided a complete translation of Sun Tzu's work, publishing it in 1860 and 1889. It was not until the early 20th century that European scholars began to show real interest in Chinese strategic thought (Ibid., p.156).

2.II) Ancient Western Strategic Thought (Byzantine Model)

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The Byzantines produced numerous writings on military institutions, leading to a flourishing body of strategic literature, despite their overwhelming focus on battlefield leadership above all else. However, much of Byzantine strategic heritage has been lost.

One of the most well-known strategic figures of this era was Syrianos, a judge who served as a bridge between ancient Greek and Byzantine strategic traditions. So influential was he that Emperor Constantine VII instructed his son to carry the books of Polyen and Syrianos on his military campaigns. Some anonymous strategic studies from this period are believed to have originated from Syrianos (Salāḥ Nayūf, *Introduction to Strategic Thought*, 2005, p.37, adapted).

Today, scholars are engaged in restoration efforts to recover lost or unidentified Byzantine strategic texts. One such initiative is the *Collection of Strategists*, which aims to identify and analyze surviving Byzantine strategic works.

3.II) European Strategic Thought in the Middle Ages (16th Century)

Strategic thought in the Middle Ages was notably underdeveloped. It did not begin to take shape in any meaningful way until the second half of the 15th century. The first clear signs of military strategic thinking appeared in Spain, with the publication of *Libro de la Guerra* (*Book of War*) around 1420, authored by Marquis Vellena (Salāḥ Nayūf, *Previously Cited Work*, p.39-40, adapted).

In France, several authors emerged, such as Robert de Balsac, who published *Principles of Noble Conflicts* in 1502. Meanwhile, in England, Béraud Stuart wrote *Analysis of the Art of War* in the same period. In Germany, the book *Kriegsbuch* (*Book of War*) by Philippe von Seldeneck was published towards the end of the 15th century.

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1) Machiavelli: The Tactician and Strategist

The most famous author of the 16th century was Niccolò Machiavelli, whose *L'arte della Guerra* (*The Art of War*) remains his only book published during his lifetime. Like his renowned work *The Prince*, Machiavelli's military writings focused primarily on critiquing the military institutions of his time. *The Art of War* had a significant and lasting impact. When analyzed alongside *The Prince,* it is clear that Machiavelli laid the groundwork for the development of a structured and institutionalized strategic thought (Hervé Coutau-Bégarie, *Op.Cit.*, p.180-190).

2) English and French Thinkers

English strategic thought suffered a significant setback after the Hundred Years' War, which created a period of isolation from the rest of continental Europe. Consequently, England saw little progress in the field and remained largely dependent on older military theories, such as *The English Military Theory of the 16th Century*. Furthermore, the English Civil War severely disrupted military thought in England, as it dragged on for an extended period.

In contrast, the French benefited immensely from the Italian Wars, which provided them with extensive military experience. This era began with the publication of *The Trees of the Roses of War* in 1502, a book commissioned by King Louis XI to educate and train his heir (Salāḥ Nayūf, *Previously Cited Work*, p.43-44, adapted).

4.II) Strategy in the 17th Century

The 17th century saw a proliferation of writings on tactics. The primary challenge for strategists of this era was the specialization of the field, as there was an urgent need for new methodologies that aligned with evolving military structures and battlefield strategies.

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1) The Rise of Northern Europe

Many scholars consider the Dutch model to have significantly shifted the balance of military literature in favor of Northern Europe, which had previously been dominated by the Spanish-Italian school in the previous century. The Dutch were among the first to establish a more scientific approach to warfare and military organization.

2) French Military Thought

In France, Duke Rohan, a leader of the Protestant faction, published *The Complete Commander* in 1636, drawing inspiration from Julius Caesar as his model military leader. In 1663, the manuscript *Book of War* by Aurignac was released, outlining the five principles of military action: militarization, movement, combat, attack, and defense of territories (Hervé Coutau-Bégarie, *Op.Cit.*, p.190-200).

During this period, the French also made significant efforts to translate numerous military treatises from other European languages into French, contributing to the enrichment of their strategic thought. By the late 17th century, military strategy had evolved beyond battlefield tactics into a structured discipline encompassing statecraft and national security (Ibid., p.195).

II) Toward the Establishment of Contemporary Strategic Thought

The numerous currents of traditional strategic thought paved the way for the emergence of contemporary strategic thinking.

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I) The Founding Fathers of Contemporary Strategic Thought

1.I) Jomini

Henri-Antoine Jomini sought to reconcile the legacy of 18th-century writers with the lessons derived from Napoleon's model. With him, the true foundations of modern strategy were laid. Born in Switzerland in 1779, Jomini served in the French army and became the chief of staff to Marshal Ney in 1805. That same year, he published his first book, *Treatise on Grand Tactics or the Relation of the Seven Years' War*, which was essentially a development of an earlier work by the Prussian General Tempelhof in 1783. Tempelhof's work, in turn, had expanded on an earlier study by General Lloyd, titled *History of the Seven Years' War*.

What distinguished Jomini's work was his incorporation of modifications based on direct comparisons with the operations he had witnessed or participated in. In subsequent years, he published numerous works analyzing the Austrian wars and the Wars of the Revolutionary Empire. Eventually, his writings culminated in an eight-volume series, completed in 1816. He later returned to France and passed away in 1869 at the age of 90.

The final form of his work consists of two major parts: *Analysis of Great Military Operations*, which he devoted to the wars of Frederick II, and *The Critical and Military History of the Wars of the Revolution*, a 15-volume study. Although somewhat forgotten today, Jomini remains one

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of the key founding figures of modern strategic thought. His influence spanned across Russia, the United States, and Europe, with translations of his work appearing in numerous languages.

Jomini had a profound impact on early American strategic theorists, including William Duane, John Armstrong, Dennis Hart Mahan, and Alfred Thayer Mahan. The American strategic tradition has rarely been as profoundly shaped by a single author as it was by Jomini (*Salah Nayouf, Previously Cited Work, p.47, adapted*; *Bruno Colson, La culture stratégique américaine: influence de Jomini, Paris: Ed. Economica, 1993*).

2.I) Clausewitz

Carl von Clausewitz is considered today the most renowned military thinker. His famous book *Vom Kriege* (*On War*) is often compared to Machiavelli's *The Prince*, serving as a fundamental reference for most strategic thinkers. It is rare to find a strategic text that does not reference his work.

Born in 1780, Clausewitz gained extensive military experience through direct participation in various wars. His first strategic work was *A Deep Critique of von Bülow's System of War*. In 1806, he began preparing for his magnum opus, which he started writing after 1815, once his military career reached an impasse.

Clausewitz authored numerous historical studies on the military campaigns of Turenne, Frederick II, and the Revolutionary Empire. Drawing from his historical knowledge, he developed *On War*, which consists of three main books: an analysis of grand strategy, an examination of limited war, and a study of tactical operations. However, due to his sudden death, Clausewitz was unable to complete this vast project.

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Clausewitz revolutionized strategic thinking by defining war as a continuation of politics by other means (*Hervé Coutau-Bégarie, Op.Cit., p.200-210*).

3.I) The New Clausewitzians

Clausewitz did not publish any of his studies during his lifetime, believing that they were incomplete. After his death, his wife edited and published his manuscripts in ten volumes between 1832 and 1837. However, the initial reception of his ideas was mixed, which prevented his immediate rise to prominence.

It was not until 1870 that Clausewitz's reputation as a strategic thinker truly emerged, driven more by nationalist interests than purely intellectual ones. The victorious Prussian Empire, after its successes at Sadowa in 1866 and Sedan in 1870, sought a theoretical justification for its battlefield superiority. Jomini’s theories, despite their significance, were insufficient for Prussian ambitions, particularly because he was Swiss and had once been an intelligence theorist for Napoleon. Additionally, Jomini occasionally criticized Frederick II. Clausewitz, in contrast, was a true Prussian and an ideal ideological figure for German readers.

Following Germany’s military triumphs, many nations attempted to replicate the German strategic model. As a result, Clausewitz’s works were translated into multiple languages. In Germany itself, *On War* became a legal reference for strategic thought, with Field Marshal Alfred von Schlieffen writing a preface for it in 1905.

However, Clausewitz’s emphasis on politics as the primary determinant of war, followed by defense as a strategic preference, was met with resistance. Many admirers of his work selectively interpreted his writings to justify offensive doctrines and decisive battles.

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In France, military academies translated many of Clausewitz's studies on military campaigns. However, German and French scholars remained divided over his interpretation of Napoleon's wars—French scholars argued that Clausewitz failed to analyze Napoleon adequately, while Germans generally praised his perspective (*Salah Nayouf, Previously Cited Work, p.50, adapted*).

In the Anglo-Saxon world, Clausewitz's writings encountered significant reservations. The philosophical nature of his work clashed with British pragmatism. In the United States, his theories were largely disregarded until the latter half of the 20th century.

Raymond Aron, writing in 1976, remarked on this intellectual neglect:

"Among the leading names working in strategic studies in the United States, only Bernard Brodie has deeply engaged with Clausewitz" (*Raymond Aron, Penser la guerre: Clausewitz, Vol.1, L'âge européen, Paris: Gallimard, 1976, p.347*).

Contemporary Strategy in the 20th Century

In 1914, a heated debate emerged regarding the fundamental changes in military art, with a clear dominance of practical aspects over theoretical ones. Various records from this period testify to the ideas imposed by events, especially since most military officers lacked the time to write, as they were either on the front lines or in military command headquarters managing operations. This explains the near-total absence of military publications during this period. By the outbreak of World War I, strategic sciences had largely fallen into oblivion. But did they disappear entirely?

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In reality, many intellectuals and writers discussed strategic sciences, not in books or dedicated references, but rather in journalistic articles appearing sporadically and in non-military or non-specialized books.

By the end of 1918, theoretical strategic concepts had been rebuilt. Previous convictions and certainties collapsed with the conclusion of World War I. What became firmly established after this period was the division between those who adhered to the new military doctrine centered on continuous frontlines and the superiority of defensive operations, and the innovators who sought to capitalize on the new capabilities offered by weapons introduced during the war—most notably, tanks and aircraft (Aron, 1976, p. 347).

Strategic Thought in the 1930s: Between Renewal and Stagnation

During the 1930s, there was a noticeable tendency toward rigidity in strategic thought. In Italy, General Visconti-Prasca wrote a widely recognized book titled *La Guerra Decisiva* (The Decisive War) in 1934, which was translated into German and French in 1935. In this book, the general advocated for a return to the doctrine of offense.

In France, too, conservative currents in strategic thought continued to emerge, as evidenced by General Chauvineau’s book *Is Assault Still Possible?*, published in 1939, which clearly indicated the return of traditionalist views.

Similarly, in Germany, this trend expanded significantly, with numerous theorists contributing, including Wilhelm Reinhardt, Alfred Krauss, Waldemar von Erfurth, and Herman Foertsch. Regarding offensive doctrine, the Germans made significant advancements following the mass

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production and deployment of both aircraft and tanks. Notably, German strategists were heavily influenced by British military theorists such as Azar Gat.

Meanwhile, in Russia, the Soviets sought to develop an original strategic theory of their own. The most renowned writer in this field was General Alexandre Svechin, whose book *Strategija* was published in 1926.

By 1939, strategic thought had evolved dramatically from its state in 1914. There was no longer a unified doctrinal consensus; rather, a deep rift had emerged between conservatives and modernists (Aron, 1976, p. 347).

Strategic Thought During World War II

The war that broke out in September 1939 caused a fundamental upheaval in strategic doctrines that had prevailed between the two world wars. Strategic planning was no longer limited to small- or large-scale wars; instead, it expanded to encompass the entire world. One of the primary reasons for this transformation was the technological advancements across all categories of weaponry. Weapons increasingly dictated military strategy, and all strategic theories were tested on the battlefield.

Nevertheless, strategic thought and theorization did not disappear from European nations, as numerous theoretical strategic references and publications continued to emerge throughout the war.

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The most significant development during World War II was the meteoric rise of the United States as a dominant power, which was also reflected in the field of strategic theory. Prior to this, the U.S. had not yet produced major works in strategic sciences, with the notable exception of Alfred Thayer Mahan. However, the U.S. victory in World War II led to a growing interest in the theoretical foundations of strategic sciences, a field that soon gained global prominence.

American universities began developing research programs focused on analyzing and interpreting European strategic thought. For example, Edward Mead Earle launched studies on prominent European strategists in his book *Makers of Modern Strategy*, published in 1943 and later translated into French in 1982. This work remained a cornerstone reference in the field for half a century (Raymond Aron, *Penser la guerre : Clausewitz*, Vol. 1, *L'Âge Européen*, Paris: Gallimard, 1976, p. 347).

The Convergence of Contemporary Strategic Thought with Management

Contemporary strategic thought has not remained confined to the military domain; rather, its applications have expanded into numerous fields, most notably management sciences.

I) The Shift in Strategic Approach

Many scholars consider military affairs to be unique, meaning they differ significantly from civilian activities. Strategy has traditionally encompassed military-related domains, such as military history and military geography. In reality, strategy has maintained a distinctive character, as even military officers who wrote on strategic matters possessed their own network of educational institutions and publishing houses. This exclusivity extended to various strategic

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concepts, which, according to many observers, stemmed from the same assumption—a fundamental separation between the domains of war and peace.

This traditional strategic approach faced significant criticism after World War II. The concept of strategy evolved considerably, shifting beyond its military environment. No longer was it confined solely to military considerations, especially as it began incorporating methodologies, schools of thought, and analyses derived from disciplines commonly applied in civilian fields, primarily economics (notably management sciences) and political science. Since the end of World War II, particularly from 1949 onward, Bernard Brodie established links between strategy and economics, proposing a security approach based on terminology related to resources—especially scarce resources (Brodie, 1949).

II) The Contemporary Strategic Environment

The transformations in strategy, as previously discussed, have been analyzed and evaluated by numerous theorists and analysts. Although military strategists remained prominent, the significant development of this period was the rise of civilian strategists such as Herman Kahn (from applied sciences), sociologists Raymond Aron and Henry Kissinger, historians Bernard Brodie and Michael Howard, economist Thomas Schelling, and political theorist Edward Luttwak.

In the United States, strategic thinking was relatively weak before World War II. However, as the war began, many civilians became involved with the U.S. military command, a trend that intensified in the late 1940s. This shift was institutionalized with the establishment of the RAND Corporation by the U.S. Air Force, which aimed to analyze the new transformations in

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modern armies. In practice, nearly all prominent figures in American strategic thought—except Henry Kissinger—were affiliated with the RAND Corporation.

American strategic thought was further reinforced and developed through exchanges between universities and major public research institutions, such as the Institute of Defense Analysis, the Center for Naval Analysis, and the Congressional Research Service, as well as private research institutions like the RAND Corporation, the Brookings Institution, and the American Enterprise Institute. Collectively, these entities formed a genuine strategic community unparalleled elsewhere in the world.

In Britain, the country produced several influential strategic theorists, most notably physicist P.M.S. Blackett, who was among the first to discuss the role of nuclear weapons in strategic planning, and Basil Liddell Hart, who clarified many defense-related concepts during the 1950s. However, some scholars argue that due to Britain's deep ties with the United States, it was unable to develop entirely independent strategic doctrines, which ultimately influenced British strategic thought.

In Germany, the country largely disappeared from the global strategic stage following its defeat in World War II and the subsequent loss of legitimacy for its military institutions. The most significant German contributions in this field came from civilian writers such as Wolf Schneider, Erik Grawert-May, Panaiotis Kondylis, and Gunter Maschke.

In France, civilian strategic research failed to establish permanent institutions or exert real influence in practical terms. French research institutions had a marginal impact due to limited resources and, more significantly, the military's strict control over strategic planning and its

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monopoly on critical information. The only major French institution that shaped national strategic thought was the Center for Evaluations and Future Outlook, which was affiliated with the Ministry of Defense. French universities did not recognize "strategic studies" as a distinct academic discipline, instead subsuming it within political science, where it received limited attention.

III) The Contemporary Strategic Approach to Management

The emergence of early models linking strategic approaches to management coincided with the fundamental shifts in the capitalist economy, particularly following the first oil shock (*Le 1er Choc Pétrolier*), which marked the end of the "Thirty Glorious Years" (*Les Trente Glorieuses*). This period ushered in a new phase for businesses, characterized by successive and profound fluctuations and a transition from the prevailing logic of supply-driven markets to one governed by demand. As stated by Pariat and Jacob, quoting a prominent business leader, “Organizations must learn to evolve from a business logic centered on the dictatorship of supply to another that can be called the democracy of demand” (Réal & Pariat, 2000, p. 73). This perspective highlights a clear shift from traditional conflict-based competition to a modern struggle shaped by market mechanisms and competitive dynamics.

The strategic convergence toward management has primarily taken three key directions:

1. **The First Approach: Ageneral Perspective**

   Developed at **Harvard University**, this approach focuses on organizations (a micro-level perspective). The **LCAG model**, named after its founders (*Learned, Christensen, Andrews & Guth*), represents a pioneering framework in this regard. It emphasizes

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diagnosing internal strengths and weaknesses, as well as external opportunities and threats, as a preliminary step toward defining strategic directions. The underlying principle of this model is that strategy involves aligning internal capabilities with external pressures. This model later became widely known as **SWOT analysis** (*Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats*).

2. **The Second Approach: Industrial Economics and Competitive Forces** Rooted in **industrial economics**, this approach primarily focuses on industrial sectors and emerged in the early 1980s through the work of **Michael Porter**. He developed the **Five Competitive Forces Model**, which places the competitive environment at the center of strategic analysis. The model assesses:
    1. Existing industry rivalry
    2. The bargaining power of suppliers
    3. The bargaining power of buyers
    4. The threat of potential new entrants
    5. The threat of substitute products

The fundamental objective of this model is to identify optimal strategies for countering competitive threats and establishing entry barriers against new competitors (Porter, 1980).

Both of these approaches emphasize **external factors** (*facteurs exogènes*), particularly the business environment, as the primary determinants of strategic success. They argue that an organization's ability to adapt to external pressures and market fluctuations is the key to its competitive advantage.

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3. **The Third Approach: The Resource-Based View (RBV)**

   This approach finds its origins in the work of **Edith T. Penrose**, who was among the first scholars to conceptualize the firm as a collection of tangible and intangible resources. She argued that internal resources provide organizations with as much—if not more—growth potential than external factors such as customer demand or competitive pressures (Penrose, 1959, p. 75).

   Penrose made a crucial distinction between the resources an organization possesses and the services it derives from utilizing those resources. She emphasized that the **variation in how firms use their resources is what differentiates them**. That is, the same resource can generate different services depending on the expertise of those utilizing it, while individual employees can develop different competencies depending on the material resources at their disposal. As she concluded, “There exists an interactive relationship between human and material resources that influences the services a firm can derive from them” (Penrose, 1959, p. 78).

This theoretical foundation paved the way for a new wave of scholars who focused on internal organizational resources, thereby creating a major shift in strategic thinking. This development marked a significant epistemological break from traditional approaches and led to the rise of **strategic management** (*management stratégique*), a multidimensional framework that integrates various contemporary and classical theories, including **systems theory, contingency theory, resource-based views, and strategic thought theories**.

Conclusion:

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this study reveals that the concept of strategy is as old as human thought, yet its involvement in the field of management is relatively recent. The development of strategic thought has passed through multiple stages, beginning with its military roots in ancient civilizations, through the crystallization of traditional models in Asian and Western thought, and finally culminating in the establishment of contemporary strategic thought with Jomini and Clausewitz. With the development of global economic and political conditions, especially after World War II, strategic thought underwent a radical transformation, as its applications shifted to various fields, most notably management science. This convergence has contributed to the crystallization of the concept of "strategic management," which employs both traditional and contemporary strategic concepts at the core of administrative processes. This study has contributed to clarifying the trajectory of strategic thought converging with management thought. This is achieved by monitoring the historical development of the concept of strategy, analyzing the schools and intellectual trends that have shaped contemporary strategic thought, and highlighting the pivotal role of this convergence in the emergence of the concept of "strategic management." Through in-depth research into the evolution of the concept of strategy, from its historical roots to contemporary strategic thought, we clearly discover that strategic thought has shifted toward management thought, not vice versa, despite the originality of each. This trend is evident in management's adoption of the concepts and tools of strategic thought, particularly in the context of rapid global economic transformations, which has created an urgent need for management thought to integrate with strategic thought. This combination has resulted in a modern management approach known as strategic management, an approach based on analyzing the organization's internal and external environment, defining long-term goals, developing appropriate action plans, and allocating resources efficiently to achieve these goals.

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This development was not a coincidence, but rather the result of an interaction between management theories and growing environmental challenges. This has prompted organizations to seek new approaches to ensure their continuity and growth in a complex and constantly changing environment. The importance of this integration lies in enabling organizations to understand their competitive environment, anticipate future challenges and opportunities, formulate clear strategic visions, and develop their competitive capabilities to achieve continuity and growth. Therefore, understanding the dynamics of the strategic approach to implementing management principles is essential for organizations' success in the contemporary business environment. This integration does not necessarily mean subordination of management thought to strategic thought; rather, it is an integration and interaction that enriches both fields and enhances their effectiveness in confronting contemporary challenges.

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The Environment and Sustainable Development in Algeria: A Delicate Balance

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Abstract

The environment has become one of the most pressing global concerns, particularly as humanity increasingly recognizes its fundamental role in sustaining life and ensuring long-term prosperity. Sustainable development, which aims to meet present needs without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own, is inextricably linked to environmental preservation. In Algeria, environmental challenges such as resource depletion, pollution, and climate change pose significant threats to sustainable growth. This paper explores the intricate relationship between the environment and sustainable development, highlighting Algeria's efforts to integrate environmental considerations into its national development policies. By examining key initiatives, policies, and challenges, the study sheds light on Algeria's approach to balancing economic progress with ecological responsibility.

Keywords: Environment, Sustainable Development, Algeria, Environmental Policies, Resource Management, Climate Change, Ecological Sustainability.

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Introduction:

The environment today is one of the most pressing global concerns, especially as it has become a major challenge for human survival and well-being. As a fundamental pillar of development in societies, the environment reflects the progress of nations in all fields. Its concept is directly linked to the optimal use of available resources. Sustainable development, in particular, is closely associated with environmental concerns, as it seeks to meet the needs of the present generations without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. This is achieved by avoiding the depletion of natural resources, environmental pollution, excessive public debt burdens on future generations, and neglecting human resource development, which could create difficult conditions in the future due to current decisions.

Sustainable development, therefore, aims to achieve developmental goals while ensuring environmental protection and sustainability. However, environmental degradation remains a significant obstacle to development, especially when developmental needs exceed the capacity of available environmental resources to regenerate.

Recognizing this reality, sustainability has been a central theme in global environmental conferences, leading to the implementation of numerous international and national projects to integrate environmental considerations into development strategies. Algeria, like many other countries, has taken steps to incorporate environmental sustainability into its development policies.

Accordingly, this research paper explores the following questions: What is the relationship between the environment and sustainable development? What is the current state of the

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environment and sustainable development in Algeria? And how has Algeria integrated environmental sustainability into its development policies?

To answer these questions, this study is divided into three sections. The first section defines the concepts of environment and sustainable development, the second examines the relationship between the environment and sustainable development, and the final section discusses the integration of environmental considerations into Algeria's sustainable development strategy.

Basic Concepts of Environment and Sustainable Development:

1.1 The Concept of Environment

The environment is defined as the domain or medium in which humans live, influencing and being influenced by it. This domain can expand to encompass a vast area or contract to a very limited space, such as the confines of a home. The environment includes everything surrounding the Earth, existing on, within, or above it. It comprises the atmosphere, water, energy, plants, and animals, all of which collectively form the environment (Al-Nashif, 2002, p. 13).

Furthermore, the environment is described as everything external to human existence and all surrounding entities. The air we breathe, the water we drink, the land we inhabit and cultivate, as well as all living organisms and inanimate objects, constitute the elements of the environment. It is the framework within which human life and various activities unfold (Dandash, 2005, p. 52).

To fully comprehend the concept of the environment, it is insufficient to merely examine the etymological roots and interpretations of the Arabic term without linking it to Western

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terminology to arrive at a globally accepted definition. The term "Environment" (Environnement) refers to all factors interacting with humans in their surroundings, including the Earth’s surface and subsoil and the resources contained therein. Additionally, it encompasses the atmosphere with its various components, other living organisms coexisting with humans on the planet, and the artificial environment comprising human-made structures that facilitate daily life. The aesthetic environment includes historical sites and artifacts, while the social environment covers population distribution, community organization, and production levels, contributing to sustainable development (Al-Baz, 32, p. 61).

At the 1972 United Nations Conference on the Human Environment in Stockholm, held under the theme "We have only one Earth," the environment was defined as the set of material and social resources available at a given time and place to fulfill human needs and aspirations (Ahmed, 2006, p. 12).

Thus, the concept of the environment extends to encompass various aspects of life, including natural, social, cultural, and economic dimensions. These interconnected elements create a habitat where humans and other organisms meet their needs and engage in activities that influence and are influenced by the environment (Ibid., p. 14).

Divisions of the Environment :

Scholars and researchers have categorized the environment in different ways. Some have divided it into two primary types: the natural environment and the constructed environment (Rashwan, 2005, p. 28).

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1- The Natural Environment

The natural environment consists of elements that exist independently of human intervention, such as deserts, seas, climate, topography, surface and groundwater, and vegetation. It directly or indirectly influences all living organisms, including humans, animals, and plants (Ahmed, 2006, p. 13).

2- The Constructed Environment

The constructed environment comprises the physical infrastructure built by humans, as well as the social systems and institutions they establish. This category includes land use for agriculture, residential areas, resource extraction sites, industrial zones, commercial centers, schools, universities, and transportation networks (Ibid., p. 14).

Another classification, based on the recommendations of the Stockholm Conference, identifies three fundamental environmental components: the natural environment, the biological environment, and the social environment (Al-Baz, 32, p. 61).

- **The Natural Environment:** This consists of four interrelated systems: the atmosphere, the hydrosphere, the lithosphere, and the biosphere. These systems include essential elements such as air, water, soil, minerals, energy sources, and flora and fauna. The interactions among these systems create the necessary biological conditions for human survival and the continuity of economic activities. Plants produce organic matter and energy, herbivores consume plants, carnivores feed on herbivores, and humans utilize both plant and animal resources, maintaining a dynamic relationship with their environment (Rashwan, 2005, p. 28).

- **The Biological Environment:** This subset of the natural environment encompasses all living organisms, from humans and their communities to diverse species within the biosphere.
- **The Social Environment:** This refers to the framework of relationships that define human interactions. It is the foundation of any social organization, whether among individuals in a specific environment or between diverse communities across different civilizations. These relationships form the basis of social systems. Throughout human history, individuals have developed a cultural environment to enhance their existence, modifying the Earth and even venturing into space exploration (Ahmed, 2006, p. 13).

The environment, as studied here, pertains to Planet Earth and its various domains, including the lithosphere, hydrosphere, atmosphere, and biosphere. These interconnected spheres collectively shape the conditions for sustainable development and human progress.

Sustainable Development :

At its core, development results from human efforts to transform natural elements in the environment—such as geological structures—into wealth, meaning goods and services that meet human needs. This transformation depends on human labor, scientific knowledge, and technological tools. However, development alters the environment, potentially disrupting its natural balance. If environmental degradation exceeds the ecosystem's ability to recover, the damage becomes irreversible. This is where the concept of sustainable development emerged as a crucial solution (Environment and Development Journal in the World, Special Volume, Issues 52-53, 2003, pp. 22-23).

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The term "sustainable development" has gained significant traction in contemporary discourse. It was officially introduced in the 1987 report Our Common Future, issued by the World Commission on Environment and Development. This commission was established by the UN General Assembly in December 1983 under the leadership of Norway's Prime Minister Gro Harlem Brundtland, with a membership comprising political and economic elites. The objective was to sustain global economic growth without making radical changes to the international economic system. The report integrated economic, social, and environmental needs into a single definition, stating that "sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (G. Ferone, D. Debas, A.S. Genin, Ce que développement durable veut dire, Editions d'Organisation, 2005, p. 8).

Categories of Sustainable Development Definitions

There are two broad categories of definitions for sustainable development:

Simplified Definitions – These definitions, often slogan-like, lack depth and analytical rigor. Examples include:

Sustainable development is development that does not contradict the environment.

Sustainable development is renewable and continuous development.

Sustainable development puts an end to the mindset of infinite natural resources.

Comprehensive Definitions – These definitions highlight a balance between economic, social, and environmental progress. Some key interpretations include:

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Sustainable development involves fulfilling present needs without compromising future generations' ability to meet their own (Osama Al-Khouli, The Concept of Sustainable Development, Center for Printing and Publishing Studies, Beirut, 1999, pp. 44-45).

It assumes the preservation of natural resources for future growth and development.

It promotes balanced and harmonious economic and social development while ensuring environmental protection.

It is based on incentives that reduce pollution, decrease excessive energy consumption, and impose taxes to limit water waste.

Perspectives on Sustainable Development

The World Resources Report (1992), which focused on sustainable development, compiled around 20 different definitions of the concept. These definitions were categorized as follows:

Economic Perspective – In developed countries, sustainable development entails reducing energy and resource consumption. In developing nations, it focuses on utilizing resources to improve living standards and reduce poverty.

Social (Human) Perspective – Sustainable development seeks to stabilize population growth and improve healthcare and education, particularly in rural areas.

Environmental Perspective – It involves protecting natural resources and optimizing the use of agricultural land and water resources (Othman Mohammed Ghoneim & Magda Ahmed Abu Zant, Sustainable Development: Its Philosophy, Planning Methods, and Measurement Tools, Al-Safa Publishing House, Amman, First Edition, 2007, pp. 28-30).

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Technological Perspective – It advocates transitioning to clean industries that utilize green technology and clean energy, thereby minimizing harmful emissions that contribute to climate change and ozone depletion.

The Brundtland Report underscored the interdependence of economic, social, and environmental aspects in achieving sustainability. It emphasized that no sustainable development strategy can be effective without addressing these three dimensions.

Key Objectives of Sustainable Development

Sustainable development aims to achieve several objectives, including:

Improving the Quality of Life – Through strategic planning and developmental policies, it seeks to enhance economic, social, psychological, and spiritual well-being. The focus is on qualitative rather than quantitative growth, ensuring fairness, inclusivity, and democratic participation.

Respecting the Natural Environment – Sustainable development acknowledges the intricate relationship between human activities and nature. It treats natural systems as the foundation of human existence and works towards fostering a complementary and harmonious relationship between the built and natural environments.

Raising Public Awareness of Environmental Issues – It encourages a sense of responsibility among individuals, motivating them to actively participate in finding solutions to environmental challenges through involvement in planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of sustainable development programs.

Rational Resource Use and Management – Since resources are finite, sustainable development aims to prevent their depletion or destruction by promoting responsible utilization.

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Integrating Modern Technology with Societal Goals – Sustainable development seeks to employ technological advancements in ways that serve broader societal needs.

Adapting to Evolving Needs and Priorities – It aims to continuously adjust societal demands and priorities in line with available resources, ensuring a balance that facilitates economic growth while addressing environmental concerns effectively.

From the above, it is clear that sustainable development works to increase awareness of the importance of available resources and ensure their efficient use. Moreover, its goals evolve in response to emerging global challenges, making it a dynamic and forward-looking approach to development.

The Relationship Between Environment and Sustainable Development:

The 1992 World Development Report states that development and sound environmental management are two complementary aspects of the same agenda. Without adequate environmental protection, development will collapse, and without development, environmental protection will fail (World Bank, 1992).

There is now a broad consensus that sound and balanced environmental management is essential for development. At the same time, environmental protection and halting environmental degradation have become key objectives of development efforts in both developed and developing societies. This has led to an increased focus on sustainable development, which aims to meet the needs of present generations without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (Khawaja, 2002, p. 184). Achieving this goal requires not only the prudent use and conservation of existing resources to prevent

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pollution, waste, and destruction but also consideration of the rights of future generations by working to expand the current resource base.

Furthermore, any plans for environmental improvement must include programs to reduce poverty, as poverty is a direct cause of environmental degradation and the erosion of economic growth (Nour, 2002, p. 117). Thus, poverty alleviation and improved income distribution for low-income populations are crucial not only from a social justice perspective and as a driver of development but also for environmental protection and ecological balance. The philosophy of development is based on the principle that environmental considerations are fundamental to economic growth. The depletion of natural environmental resources, which are the foundation of agricultural and industrial activities, has clear negative effects on development and the economy (Taraf, 1998, p. 82). Therefore, the primary consideration of sustainable development is balancing the economic system with the environmental system, avoiding the depletion of natural resources while ensuring environmental security (Taraf, 1998, p. 83). The idea of sustainable development relies on the concept of prudent environmental management, which requires changes in how costs and benefits are distributed and in national accounting methods to reflect environmental resources and factors as part of comprehensive development planning (UN Program, p. 15).

Sustainable Development in International Environmental Conferences:

Since environmental issues are directly linked to development, as mentioned earlier, most global environmental conferences have addressed development as a core topic. The concept of development has been associated with economic growth levels, which in turn depend on environmental factors. A new socio-economic philosophy has emerged from the evolution of

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sustainable development applications, focusing on poverty reduction through the promotion of sustainable living patterns that rely on managing natural resources and investing in the capabilities of the poor to improve their living standards sustainably (Gharib et al., 1997, p. 137). In this context, we summarize the key international environmental conferences and their approaches to poverty reduction.

2-1 Stockholm Conference (1972):

Held in Stockholm, Sweden, in 1972, this conference was attended by representatives from 113 countries and various United Nations agencies. It was the first international conference sponsored by the UN to discuss environmental issues. The conference concluded with the first international document on environmental affairs and an action plan with 109 recommendations urging governments, UN agencies, and international organizations to address environmental problems (Rio Declaration, 1992, p. 153).

One significant outcome of the conference was the establishment of the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), which generated significant momentum in recognizing and addressing emerging environmental problems at both national and global levels. Key commitments included:

1) Ensuring sustainable productivity in the use of natural resources and ecosystems.
2) Reducing environmental pollution.
3) Establishing adequate environmental protection standards.

In 1983, the World Commission on Environment and Development was established to propose long-term environmental strategies and explore ways for the international community

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to address environmental and development concerns more effectively. After three years of work, the commission published a comprehensive set of recommendations in 1987 under the report "Our Common Future," which emphasized the need to integrate ecological and economic dimensions into sustainable policies (Khneish, 2005, p. 32).

2-2 Nairobi Conference (1982):

Held in Nairobi, Kenya, from May 10 to 18, 1982, under UN sponsorship, this conference addressed environmental and development issues, particularly the rising global population, especially in developing countries. The conference called for international and regional cooperation to combat poverty and pollution, highlighting that widespread poverty, illiteracy, disease, and malnutrition contribute to social tensions and conflicts. The Nairobi Declaration emphasized providing financial, technical, and scientific assistance to developing nations to combat desertification, drought, and poverty while improving environmental conditions. However, many of its provisions were not implemented due to global political conflicts and the division of the world, which weakened the UN’s ability to enforce the declaration (Ministry of Environment, 2004, p. 155).

2-3 The Earth Summit (1992):

Officially known as the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), this summit took place in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, from June 3 to 14, 1992, under the theme "The Earth in Our Hands." It saw broad participation from world leaders, scientists, experts, non-governmental organizations, and civil society representatives. The conference

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aimed to bridge the gap between developed and developing nations by addressing environmental protection and sustainable development.

Key outcomes included:

- **Rio Declaration on Environment and Development:** Signed by representatives of 178 countries, this declaration consisted of 27 principles aimed at fostering global cooperation for sustainable development. It emphasized human-centered development, knowledge exchange, the right to environmental information, environmental protection during conflicts, and the need for national and international laws to penalize polluters and compensate victims of environmental disasters (Dardar, 2002, p. 132).
- **Agenda 21:** A comprehensive strategic plan addressing social and economic dimensions, resource protection, and the role of different human groups in sustainable development. The agenda also introduced the Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD) to monitor and coordinate sustainability-related activities within the UN system.

Despite its success, the conference revealed tensions between industrialized and developing nations. Developed countries advocated for the "polluter pays" principle, seeking to impose a carbon tax on oil-producing nations and restrictions on deforestation in tropical countries. However, developing nations rejected these proposals, viewing them as threats to their economic survival.

2-4 The Johannesburg Summit (2002):

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A decade after the Rio Summit, the World Summit on Sustainable Development was held in Johannesburg, South Africa, from June 26 to July 4, 2002, with over 20,000 participants. The summit served as a wake-up call regarding the deteriorating global environmental situation and revisited the commitments made in Agenda 21. Key objectives included:

- ❖ Reducing the gap between wealthy and poor nations through international cooperation.
- ❖ Establishing a global action plan for sustainable development.

The summit reaffirmed the need for defining economic and social development goals with long-term sustainability in mind, improving living standards without harming the environment. The guiding formula was: **Sustainable Development = Protection + Progress.**

While governments viewed the summit as a success, non-governmental organizations criticized it for failing to produce concrete measures to combat poverty and address global challenges such as disease, conflict, and corruption.

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- Reducing the gap between wealthy and poor nations through international cooperation.
- Establishing a global action plan for sustainable development.

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While governments viewed the summit as a success, non-governmental organizations criticized it for failing to produce concrete measures to combat poverty and address global challenges such as disease, conflict, and corruption (Bouteraa, 2012, p. 40).

3- Environmental Dimension in Algeria's Sustainable Development Strategy

3-1 Environmental Reality in Algeria:

Like other countries, Algeria has faced environmental challenges that emerged gradually after independence due to rapid industrialization and urbanization aimed at developing national infrastructure and improving economic conditions (Ministry of Environment, 2005, p. 27). The most pressing environmental issues include:

- **Air Pollution:** Caused by vehicle emissions, industrial gases, and the burning of solid waste near residential areas (Bouteraa, 2012, p. 41).
- **Water Pollution:** Agricultural chemicals have contaminated surface and groundwater in various regions (Aouj, 2001, p. 358).
- **Waste Management:** The increasing volume of waste due to urbanization, coupled with low public awareness of proper disposal methods (Ministry of Environment, 2005, p. 28).
- **Desertification:** Exacerbated by climate change, deforestation, and poor land management, leading to significant ecological challenges (Abdawi, 2005, p. 75).

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- **Water Table Rise:** Particularly affecting areas such as Ouargla and El Oued due to natural and human-induced factors, including excessive irrigation and inadequate drainage systems (Ministry of Environment, 2005, p. 28).

3-2 Prospects for Sustainable Development in Algeria:

Algeria has recognized the need to balance environmental protection with economic development through responsible resource management. To achieve this goal, various policies and initiatives have been implemented to improve living conditions while preserving natural resources (Ministry of Environment, 2005, p. 27).

Key initiatives include:

- **Completed and Ongoing Projects:**
  - Coastal protection programs.
  - Biodiversity conservation projects.
  - Environmental impact studies.
  - Safe drinking water supply projects.
  - Urban improvement initiatives.
  - Waste management projects (Ministry of Environment, 2005, p. 28).
- **Support for Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs):**

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- Creation of 600,000 SMEs by 2020 to generate 6 million jobs while ensuring quality and productivity (Ministry of Environment, 2005, p. 28).
- Establishing industrial zones compliant with environmental regulations.

- **National Environmental Protection Plan (2001-2011):**
  - A ten-year strategy aimed at improving public health and environmental quality.
  - Focus areas include reducing pollution, improving water quality, increasing recycling rates, and expanding green spaces (Ministry of Environment, 2005, p. 28).
- **Law 03-10 on Environmental Protection and Sustainable Development:**
  - Adopted following Algeria's participation in international environmental summits, particularly the 1992 Rio Summit (Ministry of Environment, 2005, p. 28).
  - Establishes principles such as biodiversity conservation, pollution control, and environmental accountability.
  - Introduces regulatory measures including environmental impact assessments and penalties for ecological damage.

By implementing these measures, Algeria aims to integrate sustainability into its national development framework, ensuring long-term economic growth while preserving environmental integrity.

Conclusion:

The relationship between the environment and sustainable development is a uniquely intricate one. The environment is a critical aspect of human life, with humanity itself being a fundamental component of development. The true measure of this relationship is seen in real-

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world practices. Human existence inherently demands continuity and expansion, leading to the depletion of environmental resources, which, in turn, negatively impacts development.

Therefore, the responsibility of sustainable development lies in balancing economic and social systems while simultaneously ensuring environmental protection and conservation. This is particularly significant when environmental considerations are integrated into development strategies, as seen in Algeria. While certain indicators reflect Algeria's strong ambition to advance sustainable development, comparisons with neighboring countries highlight a considerable gap in this area, revealing that ambition alone is insufficient.

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Adolescents and the Neighborhood Gang Network
A Sociological Analysis

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Abstract:

Our study aims sociologically to understand the reasons for adolescents' becoming part of the biological gang network and the practices they learn from them, because of the great importance of the subject where young people have become vulnerable to all practices that society rejects, which result from the decline in the role assigned to the family in terms of protection and proper upbringing. Other economic, social and political factors also appear to help in this. And adolescents in our society today are liable to fall into any informal organizations, including the neighborhood gang, in which he finds an alternative to appreciation. The category of adolescents is attracted by the love of exploration, getting to know more about the outside world, and expanding their circle of belonging. Away from the family, especially if they do not find it with in it due to family disintegration and the absence of dialogue and family contact.... They also find role models outside the home that some of the neighborhood's children would gather around, where they find a kind of liberation and self-affirmation away from the authority of the parents.

Through this we are trying to find out - How are the adolescents' needs for affiliation that might lead them into the hands of the neighborhood gang and exploit them for drug use?

Keywords: affiliation, adolescents, neighborhood gang, promotion, drugs.

Introduction:

The phenomenon of neighborhood gangs is a social issue that has been prevalent in most, if not all, countries. These gangs pose a serious threat to both individuals and private and public property. This has made them a subject of psychological and sociological studies, aiming to understand the causes and factors contributing to their emergence and spread. Over time, neighborhood gangs have become a pressing social problem, particularly in Arab societies and Algeria, where criminal activities have significantly increased in urban areas. Crimes such as murder, drug use, and drug trafficking have seen a notable rise, affecting young people and adolescents alike.

The reasons behind the formation of these gangs vary widely. They often emerge in underprivileged neighborhoods, informal settlements, and abandoned buildings. While efforts must be made to combat them, it is also crucial to study the role of adolescents in these gangs. Adolescence is a unique stage in life, marked by curiosity and the desire to explore. Even in families that provide care and proper social upbringing, teenagers naturally seek to expand

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their sense of belonging. This drive can push them to explore external influences, including peer groups and figures that offer them recognition and status.

Neighborhood gangs often capitalize on this need for belonging, providing a sense of power and control over their surroundings. They impose dominance through repeated acts of violence and disregard for social norms, which in turn earns them fear-based respect within the community. This, in effect, strengthens the gang and discourages opposition from others. Adolescents who grow up in such environments are often drawn into these groups, where they are gradually exploited for drug use and trafficking. This raises the key question:

How does the need for belonging make adolescents vulnerable to neighborhood gangs, leading to their involvement in drug promotion and use?

1. The Concept of Drugs:

Linguistic Definition:

Drugs are substances, whether plant-based or chemical, that affect both the mind and body. They induce lethargy, weaken physical activity, and impair cognitive functions. Linguistically, the word "drug" originates from the verb khadara (خدر), which conveys meanings of weakness, sluggishness, and numbness (Hilal & Naji, 1999, p. 23).

Medical Definition:

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In medical terms, drugs refer to any natural or synthetic substance containing sedative or stimulant elements. When used outside prescribed medical purposes and without professional guidance, they can lead to dependence and addiction, posing harm to both individuals and society (Ben Ali Al-Hadiya & Ahmed Bin Abdulrahman, 2008, p. 44).

Additionally, the term narcotic originates from the Latin word narkosis, meaning to numb or induce a state of unconsciousness. Medically, drugs are defined as chemical substances that cause drowsiness, induce sleep, or lead to a loss of consciousness while suppressing pain.

Operational Definition of Drug Use:

Drug use refers to the consumption of substances such as cannabis, heroin injections, or chemical-based pills through various means—whether by ingestion, inhalation, or injection. Repeated use leads to physical and psychological dependence, often with severe health consequences.

2. The Concept of Adolescence:

Adolescence is a crucial stage in personality development, where biological and acquired traits shape an individual's identity. Dorothy Rogers defines adolescence as "a period of physical growth, as well as a social and psychological phenomenon that individuals experience during a specific life phase" (Amer Musbah, 2010, p. 183).

Adolescent Age Range:

Adolescence is typically considered the transitional period between childhood and adulthood (Abdul Karim Bakkar, 2010, p. 27).

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Definition of an Adolescent:

An adolescent is a young person undergoing gradual physical and emotional changes, transitioning from childhood dependence to social independence. This stage is characterized by a desire for self-expression, idealism, and a critical attitude toward societal norms. Adolescents seek autonomy, often distancing themselves from parental authority and traditional structures. Their independence is symbolized by their behavior—spending more time outside the home, challenging family rules, and striving for self-identity.

Operational Definition of Adolescence:

Adolescence is a phase where individuals transition from childhood to early adulthood, experiencing complex physiological and social transformations. This period is often marked by emotional fluctuations, secrecy, and a strong desire for self-affirmation. Due to these changes, adolescents require careful guidance from older figures.

According to psychological studies, individuals are driven by social needs, which in turn shape their behavior. Fakher Aqel (1990) highlights that one of the primary social needs is security (Amer Musbah, 2010, p. 191).

Security is a fundamental necessity for every individual, whether within the family or the broader residential environment. When a person lacks security in their surroundings, they actively seek it elsewhere. This search often leads adolescents toward neighborhood gangs, where they find protection and a sense of belonging, even if it comes at the cost of engaging in

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violence and crime. This highlights the urgent need for authorities to address the presence of these gangs and the social dynamics that allow them to thrive.

3. The Concept of Neighborhood Gangs:

The term "neighborhood gang" is a relatively modern expression used to describe groups of criminals who operate informally within residential areas. These gangs organize themselves secretly and engage in various forms of criminal activity, including physical assaults, vandalism, theft, and verbal harassment of local residents.

Gangs are often loosely structured, consisting of small, loosely connected groups involved in varying levels of criminal behavior (Guay & Others, 2015, p. 95).

In Algeria, Law 20-30 legally defines neighborhood gangs as "groups of more than two individuals residing in the same or different neighborhoods who engage in activities that threaten public security, enforce territorial dominance, or violate individual freedoms and safety—whether through verbal harassment, physical assault, or the use of weapons" (Fawzia Hamel, 2022, p. 1115).

Operational Definition of Neighborhood Gangs:

Neighborhood gangs are informal criminal groups, typically composed of local youth from the same or nearby residential areas. They engage in physical and psychological violence, often utilizing weapons such as knives. Their activities include theft, drug distribution, and extortion, which contribute to widespread insecurity within their communities.

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4. The Concept of Promotion (Drug Trafficking):

Economic Definition:

From an economic perspective, promotion refers to all activities undertaken by sellers to communicate with potential consumers and persuade them to purchase a product. This includes advertising, personal selling, sales incentives, and public relations (Fahd Salim Al-Khatib & Mohammed Suleiman Awad, 2000, p. 6).

Operational Definition of Drug Promotion:

Drug promotion refers to the process of distributing illegal substances through various marketing tactics, often targeting vulnerable individuals such as adolescents. It involves direct and indirect communication methods aimed at encouraging drug consumption, either for financial profit or social influence.

Sociological Analysis of the Impact of Neighborhood Gangs on Adolescents in Drug Use and Trafficking

Modern societies face various forms of violence, which manifest in different settings, including schools, sports fields, and residential neighborhoods. According to Webster's Dictionary (1979), **violence** is defined as "the use of physical force to harm or injure others" (Jaber Awad Al-Sayed & Abu Al-Hassan Abdel-Mawgoud, 2004, p. 239).

Crime has spread in all its forms, and its roots often lie in family-related social issues such as lack of communication, rigid parental authority, and neglect during childhood and

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adolescence. When parents fail to guide their children or involve them in decision-making, young people often seek validation elsewhere. Beyond basic physiological needs like food and shelter, human beings crave **security**, which includes protection from crime, abuse, and economic instability. If these needs go unmet, individuals—particularly adolescents—seek alternative sources of safety and belonging, sometimes within neighborhood gangs.

The famous **Maslow's hierarchy of needs** suggests that after satisfying physiological needs, individuals are driven to seek safety and social belonging. Adolescents, in particular, are drawn to social groups where they feel recognized, valued, and protected. If they do not find this within their families—especially in cases of domestic instability, substance-abusing parents, or communication breakdowns—they are likely to turn to external influences, including gangs.

This phenomenon has given rise to neighborhood gangs, a form of informal social grouping that often emerges in lower-income urban areas, abandoned buildings, or informal settlements. These gangs, usually consisting of local youth, impose their dominance through violence and intimidation, creating fear within the community. Over time, they become powerful enough to engage in criminal activities such as drug trafficking and extortion.

The Rise of Neighborhood Gangs and Their Impact on Adolescents

In Algeria, the government has taken legal measures to combat the spread of neighborhood gangs. **Law 30-20, issued on August 30, 2020**, defines neighborhood gangs as "any group of two or more individuals residing in the same or different neighborhoods who engage in acts intended to create insecurity, impose dominance, or violate the freedoms of others through

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psychological, physical, or material aggression—often involving the use of weapons" (Official Gazette of the Algerian Republic, 2020, p. 5).

However, legal action alone is not enough. Social factors such as **poverty, unemployment, school dropout rates, and family disintegration** significantly contribute to the formation of these gangs. The failure of institutions such as schools, religious centers, and community programs in providing proper social education and instilling values has left many young people vulnerable. Social environment theory suggests that **crime is often a product of one's surroundings**, particularly in overcrowded neighborhoods where economic hardships and community tensions create a breeding ground for delinquent behavior (Mohammed Harshouf, 2008, p. 82).

Adolescents growing up in disadvantaged areas often compare themselves to wealthier individuals, leading to resentment and a desire for quick financial gains. This frustration can either manifest in **peaceful social movements** (as seen in some studies from the United States) or, more commonly, the **formation of violent gangs** that threaten social stability.

The Role of Social Belonging in Adolescent Deviance

According to **Subcultural Theory**, deviant behavior stems from the social and cultural structure of a community. In every society, there exist **two sets of norms and values**:

1. The norms and values upheld by the middle class, which dominate mainstream society.

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2. The norms and values of the lower classes, which often conflict with mainstream culture.

Adolescents born into lower-income families experience **frustration and social alienation**, as they struggle to achieve the same success as their middle-class peers. Since they cannot easily integrate into mainstream cultural expectations, they develop **alternative subcultures** that validate their behavior, often leading to delinquency (Mohammed Harshouf, 2008, p. 83).

The **Anomie Theory**, proposed by **Robert Merton**, explains that social deviance arises when individuals are pressured to achieve socially-approved goals (such as wealth and success) but are not provided with legitimate means to do so. Faced with economic barriers, young people may resort to **illicit activities such as drug dealing or gang violence** as an alternative route to financial stability (Adhim Bin Barak, 2010, p. 14).

Neighborhood gangs exploit this frustration by **offering adolescents a structured identity**, a sense of purpose, and financial incentives through criminal activities. Their goal is to **expand their power and control**, often through intimidation, extortion, and illegal trade. Once an adolescent joins a gang, leaving becomes difficult, as they become entangled in the gang's financial and social structure.

The Connection Between Neighborhood Gangs and Drug Trafficking

Gangs rely on **drug distribution** as a primary source of income. Adolescents are an easy target for recruitment into drug trafficking operations, often lured by promises of money,

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protection, and social status. **Drug use is introduced gradually**, often under peer pressure in informal social gatherings, making withdrawal and escape from the cycle extremely difficult.

The presence of gangs in residential neighborhoods creates an atmosphere of fear, forcing residents to either submit to their rule or avoid confrontation altogether. This further solidifies the gang's control over the area and makes it easier for them to manipulate young recruits.

The Psychological and Social Impact on Adolescents

Gangs do not merely **influence adolescents**—they **reshape their entire worldview**. Young people exposed to gang culture adopt new norms of behavior, language, and even dress. They begin to equate **violence with power** and **drug trafficking with financial success**. Gang members often flaunt their wealth through expensive clothing and accessories, sending the message that illegal activities lead to material prosperity.

Additionally, gangs use **verbal and psychological manipulation** to recruit new members. Common tactics include:

- Convincing adolescents that they are now "adults" and must take control of their lives.
- Encouraging defiance against parental and school authority.
- Offering a sense of brotherhood and loyalty, making it difficult for members to leave.

The Role of Media and Pop Culture

Modern media and entertainment play a significant role in normalizing criminal behavior. Movies, television series, and music often portray **drug lords as successful and**

untouchable, reinforcing the idea that crime leads to power. Adolescents, who are highly impressionable, may begin to romanticize the gangster lifestyle and seek to emulate it.

Breaking the Cycle: Solutions and Interventions

To **combat the spread of neighborhood gangs and drug abuse**, a **multi-layered approach** is needed. The following strategies should be prioritized:

- **Community Engagement and Parental Involvement:**
  - Strengthening family bonds through **effective communication and parental guidance**.
  - Encouraging fathers to take an active role in their children's lives, rather than leaving all responsibilities to mothers.
- **Educational Programs and Awareness Campaigns:**
  - Implementing **school-based prevention programs** that educate adolescents about the dangers of drug use and gang involvement.
  - Organizing **youth mentorship programs** that provide positive role models.
- **Recreational and Social Alternatives:**
  - Establishing **sports clubs, community centers, and creative workshops** to give adolescents an alternative to gang activities.
  - Encouraging participation in **volunteer work and religious activities**, fostering a sense of responsibility and self-worth.
- **Strengthening Law Enforcement Measures:**
  - Enforcing stricter laws against gang-related crimes while also focusing on **rehabilitation rather than punishment**.

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- Providing **specialized training for law enforcement** to address gang-related issues effectively.

Neighborhood gangs represent a significant **threat to social stability**, particularly in underprivileged urban areas. Adolescents are **especially vulnerable**, as they seek belonging and recognition in a world that often neglects them. Without proper guidance, they become easy targets for gangs that exploit their **psychological needs for validation and security**.

Addressing this issue requires a **comprehensive strategy** that includes **family support, community initiatives, and government intervention**. Only through **collective efforts** can we prevent more young people from falling into the cycle of crime, drug abuse, and social exclusion .

Conclusion

In conclusion, neighborhood gangs have become a growing issue in Arab societies, particularly in Algeria, where their rapid spread has threatened social stability. These gangs have not only endangered public safety but have also contributed to the rise of serious social problems, including drug trafficking and substance abuse—especially among adolescents, who represent the most vulnerable group. The danger lies in the fact that gangs actively recruit young people, drawing them into a criminal network that exploits them for financial gain through drug dealing and other illegal activities.

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Recognizing the severity of this issue, the Algerian government has taken significant steps to criminalize and combat gang-related activities. Laws have been enacted to **penalize gang formation and illegal activities**, while educational institutions have been encouraged to implement awareness programs. These initiatives include **seminars, workshops, and national conferences** aimed at educating both young people and society at large about the dangers of gang involvement.

Adolescents remain the primary target of these gangs, being **lured into a world of crime, drug abuse, theft, and even sexual exploitation**. Therefore, raising awareness among young people is **crucial** to prevent them from falling victim to these criminal organizations. They must be educated about the dangers surrounding them, the negative impact on their futures, and the importance of adhering to moral and social values that promote peace and stability.

Families and social institutions must play an active role in **guiding and supporting adolescents**, particularly those living in high-risk neighborhoods. Parents should **educate their children about the dangers of bad company**, discourage them from associating with unofficial groups whose activities are unknown, and ensure that they **never consume any substance that has not been prescribed by a medical professional**.

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Voices Unfiltered: Gender Gaps in Digital Media Participation A Content Analysis Study

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Abstract:

This study fits current research on the revolutionary changes defining the communication terrain, especially with the emergence of digital media contributors. It investigates the complex interactions between Gender and the function of communicators in group digital media platforms by applying a gender-oriented framework. The work aims to depict the forms of this evolving phenomenon through a broad spectrum of theoretical, analytical, and methodological perspectives. The research analyzed a dataset consisting of one thousand eighty-six entries gathered from the five most frequently visited global platforms: (a) TMZ, (b) Huffington Post, (c) Mashable, (d) Business Insider, and (e) Gizmodo. The results provide valuable insights into gender representation in digital media, specifically examining the relationship between the gender identification of writers and producers, the content they contribute, and the connection between message format and the target audience. The findings offer essential insights into gender communication within contemporary media contexts.

Keywords: *digital media contributors, gender, gender gatekeeper theory.*

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Introduction

Gender studies or gender theory in media and communication sciences have received significant attention from researchers, and it is no exaggeration to say that it has always been one of the main approaches in preliminary studies of media phenomena. This interest in the gender approach in media studies comes perhaps from a firm belief that there is an excellent difference between gender (male, female) in the use of various media and that each has its perspective and method of exposure to media materials. However, the transformation that the reality of practicing the media profession has witnessed - for some time - especially in the form of the medium and the methods of employing it, dealing with it and dedicating it to serving specific media goals, depending on the entity supervising it, whether individual or governmental, and other considerations related primarily to its content and message, where the manifestations of the apparent change in the concepts and frameworks in which communication and media operations are practiced imposed the necessity of returning to reviving the heritage of media studies, and analyzing the phenomena that were formed in Light of those technological developments and what is happening in knowledge societies, to be added to the series of studies that were conducted in the past to diagnose the nature of influence, role, gender, they are today more worthy of being enriched and their research balance enhanced, and establishing ways to benefit from them in an attempt to learn more about what the rapid developments in the forms and patterns of the activities of the communicator conceal, where the central question of the problem of our study was formulated: What are the most prominent representations of the relationship between the gender of the communicator " contributor " and his activities within

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the framework of the network gatekeeper theory? To encompass the various coordinates of our problem, several sub-questions were included within the main question, the answer to which is necessary. The most important of these questions are as follows:

-Is there a relationship between the communicator's gender and the content he publishes?

-Is there a relationship between the gender of the communicator and the form of what he publishes?

-Is there a relationship between the communicator's gender and his audience?

This study, therefore, attempts to combine two research approaches in the field of media and communication, namely, the communicator and gender studies. It also combines the literature of research and its concepts in traditional media and the images of the presence of these concepts in new media. However, our research is important because it has re-initiated the establishment of the communicator and the gatekeeper concept in a communication climate different from its predecessor and thus has raised an important research aspect in media and communication sciences related to research on the new communicator. The study also seeks, through its methodological, theoretical, and field frameworks, to achieve a set of additional scientific objectives, perhaps the most important of which is an attempt to diagnose the communication process in the medium of collective digital media platforms and then reach knowledge of the underlying causes and the implicit relationship of the gender of the communicator to his media tasks and functions.

At the same time, it assumes that the gender of the communicator controls, in principle - as in the previous reality of traditional media - the demand for the same medium (digital media

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platforms), as males use it more than females, and the content of what they publish, its form and the target audience differ according to the difference in the gender of the communicator.

2-The communicator - the contributor.

The concepts and terms that the initiating element carries in the communication process are many, as the name of the communicator takes on many meanings and connotations to express the person or crowd that stands behind a specific media outlet, starting from collecting information to publishing and following it up; News editors and news presenters are all included in the comprehensive concept of the communicator. In communication theories, the term “sender” is used to identify the source of the media message, and both can be inanimate - radio or broadcasting channel - or living - humans. The term also takes the name “addresser” in communication models such as Roman Jakobson’s model in the sixties to indicate that communication is interactive and two-way. The sender is generally known as the creator of the text of the media, whether it is television programs or advertisements (Danesi, 2013, p. 574).

In the communication model of the American political scientist Harold Laswell, the question “Who?” represents the motive or source in communication theory. In mass communication, this motive is a group of senders working within a specific media institution, whether television or advertising (Galician, 2002, p. 11). In a different scientific field, Jakobson views the communicator under another name, “Le destination” - when studying the relationship between language and poetry - as a person who sends a message to a recipient, consisting of a group of signs that are usually common among the communicators, where the communicator performs a

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function called expressive that encourages the recipient to listen and interact. It is also an intentional function; it focuses on the desires and goals of the speaker through carrying out that communication process, on the one hand, and what the listener-receiver can share in terms of goals and desires that that process meets, on the other hand (Verhaegen, 2010, p. 23)

In this context, the term Communicator denotes the one who initiates the act of sending, derived from the word Communication itself. In the Christian religion, a communicator means a missionary or someone who calls for the Christian religion. In addition to many known communication models, the Christian communication model was developed at Santo Tomas University in Manila. This model arose from the teachings of Augustine, as it places the message at the heart of the communication process. For Christians to communicate, the message remains central, which is the word of God or Christ, and he, the communicator, is the only one who sends this word. He not only carries out the sending process but lives the message reflected in him. This does not depend on technical means as much as it depends on the spirituality of the communicating Christian (Baugh, 2006, p. 197). The use of the word -communicator, sender- in the Christian religion in this sense may differ from what it is in the Islamic religion, as long as the process of sending or communicating religious content - the call - remains common among Muslims. They are even commanded to do so as stated in the hadith of the Prophet, peace and blessings be upon him, “Convey from me even if it is a verse” (Al-Bukhari, 2002, p. 875).

However, the role of the communicator in the Islamic religion is not just about conveying the message, but also about embodying the message and living it, which is a key difference from

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the Christian perspective. This is not considered a condition that stops the communication process in and of itself. Some consider communicators to be the fourth element of mass communication, in addition to the audience, message, and the means of communication or media. In this context, communicators represent the last element of the mass communication components.

Communicators are divided into two types according to the extent and nature of communication. The first is mass communicators, i.e., professionals who work in the field of media or advertising or various mass media, and personal communicators, i.e., people who contribute to delivering the media message and influencing the audience through personal communication - instead of relying on mass media - and who are considered opinion leaders in various societies at the national and local levels. Opinion leaders are individuals who are influential in their social circles and are often early adopters of new ideas or products. They represent advocates of change in society towards new ideas (Hussein, 1993, p. 153). These communicators, or the person who appears on the screen or other traditional and modern communication channels, embody the characteristics of their audiences. The most important challenges facing them in this regard are producing and presenting programs and messages to diverse segments and audiences in terms of their references and mentalities, and identifying the identity of the communicator can provide insight into the possible motives behind their contribution to the media process. “Communicators effectively use the tension resulting from the triangular relationship between them, the content of their message, and then the audiences they deal with.

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The communicator must balance the tension that connects his experience and capabilities on the one hand and the audience's needs, and he works to bring and ensure the continuity of his work and production (Silverblatt, Ferry, & Finan, 2009, p. 26). Thus, the state of transmission in this complex process is not an easy task or function because it requires much effort to make it successful, not on a personal level or what is used from controllable means, but by exceeding the limits of what cannot be controlled in many cases, which is the receiving party.

The communicator in the media, especially the press, may not be much different from he is in advertising or public relations, as the message is considered legitimate only when the communicator agrees to publish it, and this is one of the similarities between these forms of communication. However, these editorial templates or press releases are often interpreted as “ghostwriting" or “ghostwritten,” as Tom Bivins calls it, which represents several ethical pitfalls because they do not express or represent the truth of the identity of the communicator, meaning that they lack one of the standards of accuracy required by the communication process in its various previous forms. In this context, Richard Johannesen proposed a series of guiding elements that can eliminate some possible ethical errors in this process:

Understanding the communicator's intention and the recipient's awareness is not just important, it's crucial. This understanding not only engages the audience but also prompts them to think critically about the message they are receiving, making them feel actively involved in the communication process.

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- Does the communicator use this type of writing to project or acquire personal qualities that they may not naturally possess? This question is not just a question, it's an invitation for the audience to reflect on the role of authenticity in communication.

- What the circumstances surrounding the communicator's work require him to resort to this type of writing?

To what extent does the communicator participate in editing their message? And crucially, Does the communicator accept responsibility for the messages they present? This question is not just a question, it's a call for the audience to consider the need for accountability in communication (Bivins, 2009, p. 119).

The first step in deconstructing and analyzing the message and understanding the communication process is identifying the communicator. Identifying the latter seems very difficult, unlike personal face-to-face communication, where the communicator and the recipient meet directly, unlike mass communication, where there is a temporal and spatial separation between them and anonymity to the recipients. For example, the film The Message was produced decades ago by someone we do not hear much about today. However, we assume the person behind the camera or microphone is responsible for what is said. However, he only repeated what he received from the scriptwriter or the editing department and what he was asked to say. Therefore, defining the general framework of this process or identifying the identity of the hidden person behind this activity gives valuable dimensions to the content, expectations and prospects for the media product. (Silverblatt et al., 2014, p. 21).

The point of view of the communicator in the media may be clarified in the text through some techniques such as editing decisions, hint words, images, and the challenges of defining and

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identifying the communicator in the media are exacerbated in the global communications space, as the vast number of reports, editors, film producers, and website developers make it impossible to identify all of his backgrounds and orientations, as well as his educational level or the educational institutions in which he studied, and there is often no sufficient information available about the party funding this institution or a television program or text, .., and what are the tasks and objectives of this funding party and who frames it, and to identify the communicator(s) in the media, the focus is on some demographic information such as: (nationality and gender, age, income, religious orientation, race and ethnicity, educational level and other determinants (Silverblatt, 2013, p. 254). and some summarize it in three simple questions:

- Who is responsible for producing the media material?
- What are the demographic elements of the communicator?
- How do these characteristics affect the content and the media producer’s expectations? (Silverblatt et al., 2014, p. 28).

The act of the mass communicator in its broad sense is the servant of the warehouses of these tools and communicative artifacts that give meaning and consistency to the society that has passed through a long period to be added to subsequent generations, and the functions performed by the mass communicator are not new, what is new, of course, are the technologies - new - that man has invented to dispatch these functions, and to enhance his control by controlling his messages and making them more abundant and smooth as well, and it will be practical to maintain the distinction or difference between technology - the mass communication system - and the mass communicator who employs this technology as a means of distributing his products and messages (Educational Technology, 1973, p. 97). Therefore, it

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is the responsibility of the communicator to ensure that the unintended information - the uncontrolled message - or the information through an unintended means is not transmitted. Still, the communicator remains responsible for the meaning conveyed in this message, whether it is intended or not. He remains responsible for ensuring the content His message was not subject to potential confusion between him and the recipient. (Pillai, 2011, p. 60).

- Gatekeeping: the theory, and reality.

The talk about gatekeeping began with the growth of discussion and analysis about the news values contained in the news, especially with the rise of the names of Johan Galtung and Mari Ruge after their article entitled (The Structure of Foreign News, a Discussion of the Crises of the Congo, Cuba, and Cyprus in Four Newspapers) which was published in the international journal Peace Research in 1965. In short, after this article, the serious discussion moved, or instead, the current global events at that time pushed towards a circular gate for the criteria for selecting news worthy of publication according to the perception of the media where the gatekeeping process takes place (Watson, 2012, p. 109).

In addition to this argument, some support the idea of the growing reputation of the concept of gatekeeping in parallel with or as a result of the increasing news consumption and academic interest in it as a product of the media. In the mid-fifties, the term gatekeeper became more noticeable. Perhaps the most widespread model of gatekeeping in media circles is the model of David Manning (1917-1993), who explained how news waves travel through a specific channel that includes gates, where communicators or decision-makers work to influence the way news is viewed and how it is ultimately reconstructed and packaged. White emphasized the role of the telegraph editor, or what he calls Mr. Gate, in deciding whether to accept or reject news

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topics as one of the most important gatekeeping activities. Later, studies showed that gatekeeping includes sources of news topics, people's ability to follow the news, the news policy of the media outlet, various influences in the media outlet, such as legal restrictions or financial needs, and as a matter of fact, news with special topics makes room for other news that are expected. To contain high news values (Fourie, 2008, p. 237).

In Light of this research reality, the concept of gatekeeper is no longer just a term that expresses a form of dealing with information but has become the theory itself that controls the communication process, as it was the subject of the theory of the specialist in sociology and psychology Kurt Lewin, entitled: The Channel and Gatekeepers, which he developed as a means of understanding how to bring about broad social change in society. Since then, it has been adopted and worked with in several other scientific fields, such as media and communication science and journalism. The concepts of the guarded gate or gatekeepers have been used to comprehend and understand the social system in health and technological development, while the traditional concept of gatekeeping has been used mainly in the field of media and communication, primarily to refer to the selective path that includes the media process. It also provides researchers with a framework to analyze, evaluate and understand how the communication process and news selection occur and why specific news topics are chosen. In general, it provides a framework to continue the research that Lewin had begun in social change and the study of sources of cultural diversity (Fisher et al., 2006, p. 247).

However, it must be emphasized that the issue of selection does not only affect news. Alan Bryman and Cheryl Haslam raised the issue of media bias in presenting and displaying sociologists' research, especially with researcher Weiss in 1985, and it was discussed in the introduction to his book. This issue is of paramount importance as it affects the very fabric of

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sociological research representation. Many researchers also confirm that the media shows its bias in its coverage and is thus considered a gatekeeper to the dissemination of knowledge in general. This argument was elaborated by Jane Ussher, who noted at that time that there are terms from sociology that receive greater attention and discussion than other terms from the same field of research. Therefore, the method of selection or screening affects not only the field to which the information will be reached but also the sociologists from whom the media transmits it. It presents a suspicious image of the reality of sociology, the social issues and problems it is concerned with, and other areas of life such as politics, religion, and sports. Therefore, the gatekeeping carried out by the media dramatically impacts our society.

In addition to Lewin, we find among the pioneers of research and investigation into the "social industry of news" White 1950, Gieber 1956, Breed 1960, and Donohew 1967, who advanced their research and studies to what is called gatekeeping or the journalist's gatekeeping function, journalists as individuals, the editorial staff or the organization, which were described as the leading forces in the production of news, and in 1965, researchers Galtung and Ruge had referred to the process of selecting what news is and what is not, but the news is not only selected, it is formed, and the central process can be called "news production," and it has become clear that the news that we read and watch daily is not an objective record of lived reality, but rather a construction based on a professional base specific to journalists as well as institutional and technical factors, which are sometimes referred to as media logic (Schaap, 2009, p. 21).

News is a construction—as is theory itself—and many of the choices in this construction result from a single journalist, editor, or, increasingly, citizen journalist. More importantly, Fishman

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argues, the general focus of early work on gatekeeping was “news selection,” with the assumption that through this selection, the media had the power to distort reality. However, the writings of many scholars and thinkers—such as Fishman’s Newsmaking, Altheide’s Creation of Reality (1976), and Tuchman’s Making the News (1978)—had contributed to a scholarly movement at the time that assumed that reality was what the media wanted it to appear. It was the assumption that news creates reality and that the job of scholars was not just to understand that process of production, but to critically analyze and deconstruct it, thereby playing to critically assess and dismantle it, so significantly influencing our comprehension of the world (Coe, 2008, pp. 56–57).

These research interests - and many others - have contributed to developing the gatekeeping theory and its dominance in the theoretical field of media and communication sciences. However, they have also revealed many gaps surrounding its construction, which renders it invalid with changing circumstances and the extension of time. What we can record in addition to that is that the theory did not die in reality but rather evolved. In line with the research efforts that had been made regarding the gatekeeping theory and what was discussed in the communication literature or what accompanied radical changes that affected many aspects of the communication process, the researcher Barzili Nahon proposed in 2004 the Network Gatekeeping Theory (NGT) which sums up multidisciplinary concepts, as it includes the media and management system, political science, and sociology. His theory provided a new definition for the concept of gatekeeper or gatekeeping by integrating traditional concepts in social networking communities, based on the study of the strength of relationships in the Internet and the media environment, as the network gatekeeping theory depicts the distribution of information and the processes of controlling information. It can also allow us to analyze the

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centralization in social networks that have a decentralized design and structure, as they are often viewed as equal spaces. This theory involves many results about the way we understand the process of information dissemination and the behavior of Internet users, and it consists of five basic concepts: (Fisher et al., 2006, p. 249).

1- Gateway: The entrance or exit of information is the network and its sections.

2- Gateway guarding: The process of monitoring information as it moves through the gate and various activities, including selection, addition, blocking, display, direction, manipulation, formation, repetition, auditing and timing, determining location, integration, ignoring, and deleting information.

3- Gateway guarding mechanism: Technological and methodological means to implement the gatekeeping process.

4- Network gatekeeper: It is a public entity (person, organization, government authority, ..) that has the authority and ability to practice gatekeeping through this mechanism in social networks, and it can also choose the scope in which this process is practiced.

5- The guarded: It is the entity subject to the gatekeeping of the network (recipients).

This development is also evident in the change in the term and concept with which the theory is viewed. In 2005, when Axel Bruns published his book entitled (Gate-watching), he assumed the use of the term gate-watching itself about the growing role of the citizen journalist and his contribution to news production. As its author says, this book was considered a regular documentation of emerging trends in news production (Bruns, 2006). The recipient is the producer of information via social networks and its source. The points of disagreement between the two theories increase when dealing with the elements of power, which in the context of

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gatekeeping theory, refer to the control and influence over the flow of information. These elements seem to have less impact than their counterparts in traditional media, with the growing negotiating power of the recipient (the guarded) despite the presence of more mechanisms for monitoring information in the network theory.

Methodology:

Given the nature of the problem, the research field to which it belongs, and the limited capabilities available to the researcher, we relied on the content analysis tool in our descriptive-analytical study (descriptive method). The research community is all the content and media materials - such as texts, images, videos, etc. - in digital media platforms that rely on the WordPress platform as a work base (editing and publishing), as it is the most popular digital media contribution platform for (journalists, blogger, content editors, ..) whether individuals or companies, according to Alexa statistics and taking into account many scientific and technical reasons and controls that are summarized in the services it provides to both the contributors and the researcher as well as to content editors in general, as these sites contain many services that facilitate this mediatic activities provided by the platform in terms of returning to the archive of entries and posts. Due to the massive size of this content on the one hand and the multiplicity of it in this framework on the other hand, we relied on the most important international classifications of the most prevalent collective platforms. We used the annual classification prepared by Alexa, which specializes in tracking and providing global statistics on the status of various websites, and EBIZ and Quantcast, which specialize in statistics and web audience measurements, as well as providing advice to companies and governments in this field. Given the difficulty of analyzing the contents of these posts together, we relied on a deliberate sample; we carefully chose the first five (05) platforms with the highest

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visit rates to analyze their content because they are more representative of what we are looking for than others due to the high number of visits and thus the richness of the communication process in them.

Table No. (01) shows the analytical study sample

.

Ranking	platforms	Average number of monthly visits (in millions)
01	Huffington Post	**110**
02	TMZ	**30**
03	Business insider	**25**
04	Mashable	**24**
05	Gizmodo	**23**

Many statistical analysis programs were used, as well as the application of many statistical transactions that are considered necessary in studying and analyzing new media phenomena that are characterized by their depth and complexity, requiring a lot of time and effort, in the hope of obtaining more accurate information that leads us to honest research results. The most important of these methods and programs are:

(a) Frequencies and percentages.

(b) Central tendency measures and dispersion metrics.

(c) Statistical analysis program (SPSS version 20).

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Results:

We focused on presenting the results of the relationship between gender variables and specific digital media contributors' activities operating under the principles of the network gatekeeper theory. We selected the most significant information that addressed some of the study's questions and directly related to the study's problem.

Category of features:

- Gender:

Table No. (02) indicates the gender of the message source (digital content).

Platform	**Male Contributors**	**Female Contributors**	**Common Contributors**	**Unspecified Gender Contributors**
Huffington Post	*42 (3.86%)*	*66 (6.07%)*	*4 (0.36%)*	*11 (1.01%)*
TMZ	*39 (3.59%)*	*53 (4.88%)*	-	*181 (16.66%)*
Business Insider	*33 (3.03%)*	*51 (4.69%)*	-	-
Mashable	*196 (18.04%)*	*161 (14.82%)*	-	*153 (14.08%)*
Gizmodo	*39 (3.59%)*	*54 (4.97%)*	-	*3 (0.27%)*
Total	*349 (32.11%)*	*385 (35.34%)*	*4 (0.36%)*	*348 (32.02%)*

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Measures of Central Tendency and Dispersion

Mean	*69.8*	*77*	-	*69.6*
Median	*39*	*54*	-	*11*
Variance (σ²)	*4987.7*	*2239.5*	-	*8019.8*

A proper reading of the table data shows the following:

The title reflects two variables: the first is independent; the platforms of the research sample, and the second is dependent, which is the gender of the contributors of the message content; is male or female or was it formed by two contributors, or may not be specified by their gender; additionally, it shows the size of the variations between the five platforms of the research sample.

The units of analysis used are the frequencies and percentages of the study community, which translate the size of the content in the digital media platforms and its distribution according to the gender variable, and the extent of the latter's association with contributing behaviors, except the null value in the subcategory (subscriber) in each of the platform TMZ, Business Insider, Mashable and Gizmodo, which indicates the absence of contributors who did not specify their gender, concerning that apparent convergence between the percentage of males and females and undetermined gender, with overall figures showing a modest rise in the proportion of female relative to their male counterparts.

The overall disparity reached its maximum, from about (03.03%) or (33) posts produced (edited) by males in the Business Insider to (18.04%) or (196) posts in the Mashable. In

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comparison, this disparity reached its maximum from about (4.69%) or (51) posts in the Business Insider, edited by females, to (14.82%) or (161) content pieces in the Mashable. In contrast, the disparity reached its maximum, about the percentage of (unspecified) contributors who do not indicate their gender, from (0.27%) or (03) females in the Gizmodo to (16.66%) or (181) posts in the TMZ. From the variation in proportions and according to the classification indicators, we record the density of the female contribution community, which indicates a great interest in this category in using this medium.

Returning to the statistical data and proportions included in the table, we can distinguish between two things; the first is related to the large percentage of contributors who do not specify their gender in their publications compared to the total of the male and female categories, as it then constitutes approximately the same percentage of males, and has a large percentage of the total posts as a whole, while the second thing is; the lack of a “subscriber” percentage or the sending activity in which both males and females participate.

In any case, this may be due to many reasons, perhaps the most important of which is Indifference to specifying gender and considering it a secondary matter or the presence of a tendency towards the love of concealment and not disclosing the personality, primarily if it is related to some topics that the contributors do not want to appear through, however, not specifying gender may hinder many opportunities for communication between the two sexes as a whole or each other, and may at the same time express backgrounds and sensitivities (cultural, social, ..) behind the initiative to mention and specify the gender on the pages of digital media platforms.

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On average, we find that the number of contributors (males) in the study sample is (69.8) and (77) (females) in addition to (69.9) in the unspecified category. According to the value of the median, half of the total number of male communicators is less than (39) contributors, and the other half is more than that value, while half of the number of them (females) is less than (54) while the other half is more than that value.

On the other hand, the variance results show a high degree of dispersion in the distribution of gender-unspecified vocabulary compared to female and male, which means less homogeneity.

- The relationship between gender and the intended content.

Table No. (03) demonstrates the correlation between the gender of contributors and the message content.

Platform	Male Contributors	Female Contributors	Common Contributors	Unspecified Gender Contributors	Technology Topics
Huffington Post	42 (3.86%)	66 (6.07%)	24 (2.20%)	11 (1.01%)	12
TMZ	39 (3.59%)	53 (4.88%)	-	181 (16.66%)	-
Business Insider	33 (3.03%)	51 (4.69%)	-	-	33
Mashable	196 (18.04%)	161 (14.82%)	-	153 (14.08%)	249

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Gizmodo	39 (3.59%)	54 (4.97%)	-	3 (0.27%)	93
Total	349 (32.11%)	385 (35.34%)	-	348 (32.02%)	387

Statistical Analysis Framework:

- Sample Size: n−1=3

- **Significance Level**: α=0.05

- **P-Value**: p=0.05

- Pearson correlation coefficient: r 0.94

The correlation coefficient (r) for the relationship between gender variables and message content in the digital media platforms of the study sample indicates a strong association; this implies that both gender variables and message content exhibit a concurrent increase and decrease. The positive sign of (r) signifies that as the contributors are male, the technological sophistication of the message content in the communication process also increases, and vice versa. Given that the probability value (sig) equals 0.05 for the relationship between the two variables, we accept the alternative hypothesis, asserting a significant relationship between gender and message content, while rejecting the null hypothesis, indicating that the relationship is not attributable to chance.

Figure No. (01) illustrates the connection between the contributor's gender and the message content [1]

[1] Source: Prepared by the author, based on SPSS (Scatterplot) software.

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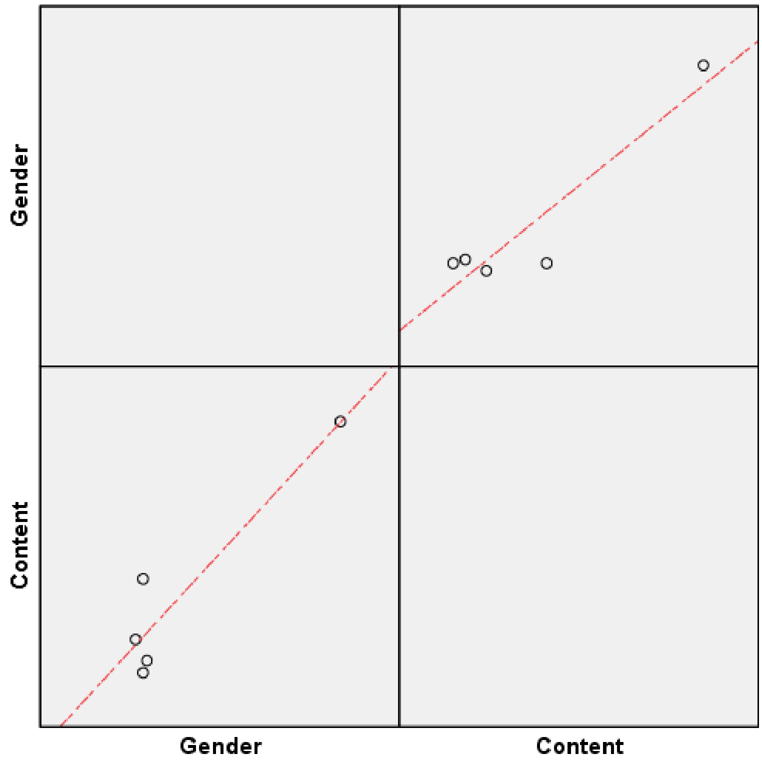

- The correlation between gender and message format.

Table No. (04) illustrates the correlation between the gender of contributors and the format of their messages.

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Platform	Text Posts	Picture Posts	Voice Posts	Link Posts	Video Posts (Gender Breakdown)
Huffington Post	50 (4.60%)	49 (4.51%)	-	-	24 (2.20%) Male: 42; Female: 66
TMZ	123 (11.32%)	123 (11.32%)	-	-	27 (2.48%) Male: 39; Female: 53
Business Insider	38 (3.49%)	37 (3.40%)	-	-	9 (0.82%) Male: 33; Female: 51
Mashable	240 (22.09%)	240 (22.09%)	-	-	30 (2.76%) Male: 196; Female: 161
Gizmodo	35 (3.22%)	35 (3.22%)	-	-	26 (2.39%) Male: 39; Female: 54
Total	486 (44.72%)	484 (44.54%)	-	-	116 (10.65%) Male: 349; Female: 385

Statistical Analysis Framework :

Pearson Correlation Coefficient: $r= 0.91$ indicating a very strong positive linear relationship between the variables under study.

(a) **Adjusted Sample Size**: degrees of freedom $(n-1) = 3$.

(b) **Significance Level**: $\alpha = 0.05$

(c) **Observed P-Value**: $p=0.02$, confirming statistical significance at the 5% level.

The correlation coefficient (r) reveals a robust relationship between the gender variables and the message format in the digital media platform's communication process. This relationship is direct and positive, indicating that both variables move in a single direction, either increasing

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or decreasing. In other words, the more male the communicator “the contributor”, the more textual the message, and vice versa. Since the probability value **sig** is less than 0.05 for the relationship between the two variables, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis that there is a significant significance for the relationship between the gender of male and the nature of the textual message in the communication process, and therefore it is not a result of chance.

- The relationship between gender and the target audience.

Table No. (05) illustrates the correlation between the Contributor's gender and the target audience [2].

Platform	**Male (RSA%)**	**Female (RSA%)**	**Common (RSA%)**	**Unspecified (RSA%)**	**Total Contributions**
Huffington Post	42 (3.86%)	66 (6.07%)	24 (2.2%)	11 (1.01%)	143 (13.14%)
TMZ	39 (3.59%)	53 (4.88%)	-	181 (16.66%)	273 (25.13%)
Business Insider	33 (3.03%)	51 (4.69%)	-	-	84 (7.72%)
Mashable	196 (18.04%)	161 (14.82%)	-	153 (14.08%)	510 (46.94%)
Gizmodo	39 (3.59%)	54 (4.97%)	-	3 (0.27%)	96 (8.83%)
Total	349 (32.11%)	385 (35.34%)	24 (2.2%)	348 (32.02%)	1,106 (100%)

The correlation coefficient (r) reveals a robust relationship between the gender variables and the target audience in the digital platform communication process. This relationship is direct

[2] RSA refers to Repetition of Sample Appearance.

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and positive, indicating that both variables move in a single direction, either increasing or decreasing. In other words, the more female the communicator, the more diverse the target audience is, and vice versa. Since the probability value **sig** is less than 0.01 for the relationship between the two variables, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis that there is a significant relationship between gender of female and the nature of the target audience in the communication process, and therefore it is not a result of chance.

Discussion

This study helped us discover the major axes and coordinates of the relationship between contributor gender and communication processes, set within the network gatekeeper theory, particularly using digital media platforms, with the most important as follows:

Gender Dynamics in Digital Content

According to the results, producing digital material is a common communication activity appealing to both men and women, much as audience interaction with conventional media. Still, the findings expose a clear gender pattern in digital content activities. Comprising 35.34% of the sample, female contributors show a more active participation in this activity, therefore highlighting their importance in this field relative to male contributors. Furthermore, the gender of the contributors is very correlated with the target audience and the kind of material. Male contributors show a notable correlation with text-based communications; female contributors show a stronger association with the audience they aim at. These results fit other studies on gendered media preferences, in which women lean toward series and musicals while men tend toward action-oriented fare like war movies and cowboys (Chandler, 1997, p. 9).

Furthermore, affecting the substance and style of communications sent on digital media are the

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contributor's gender and family situation. This dynamic is clear in how writers craft their messages to fit the expectations of their readers. Though digital platforms provide a variety of formats, including text and visuals, the communicative method maintains conventional gender roles and implies the continuation of social norms inside virtual environments.

Characteristics and Variability of Digital Communication

The study emphasizes even more important traits of digital information as a communication tool. With 80.91% of messages aimed at broad categories, most digital material aims at a general audience. With 44.72% and 44.52% respectively, text and graphics rule the message forms. Especially images are the most often utilized kind of visual on digital pages at a rate of 46.38%. They occupy a significant area. This focus on graphic material captures the increasing relevance of images in networked communication systems.

Another interesting tendency is openness among contributors: 74.09% of individuals reveal their actual names, titles, and personal images, therefore showing an attitude toward authenticity in online interactions. With these developments, the study draws focus on differences, especially in gender representation among viewers and contributors across platforms, suggesting inherent inequalities in digital engagement. These results support the perspective that digital media platforms are changing interaction structures, therefore promoting efficiency and accessibility (Geriş & Özdener, 2021). Particularly for professional users, the reliance on tools including email, instant messaging, and video conferences has simplified communication, so saving time and money (Ram et al., 2023).Yet, difficulties abound including ethical questions, possible misinterpretation caused by nonverbal cue absence, and digital divides resulting from unequal access to technology (Yusoff et al., 2022). Clearly visible in many different fields, the variety of digital media platfroms points to its vast

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potential as well as the need of inclusive methods and continuous research for optimizing its use

Gender and Digital Media Participation

The analysis of this study reveals a nuanced deviation from earlier findings on the relationship between gender and digital media platforms, particularly blogging as a type of digital media contribution. Contrary to the Pew Research Center's (2005) report that 57% of blog creators are male, our findings highlight that over one-third of the content pieces analyzed were authored by females. This divergence may stem from factors such as the perceived irrelevance of specifying gender or a preference for anonymity, particularly when discussing sensitive or personal topics. Concealing gender may hinder potential communication opportunities between contributors, reflecting cultural and societal sensitivities that discourage explicit gender identification on these platforms. Driven by different reasons and experiences, females and non-binary people often participate more actively on digital media platfroms than men, according to Bokase (2023), whose increasing patterns of digital participation line with these observations. These differences show the complex connection between gender and digital media, where use patterns vary not only by activity type but also by the more general societal consequences of these interactions.In addition significant in digital environments is Daniel Chandler's (1997) finding that mass media regularly supports traditional gender preferences—that is, men leaning toward action genres and women toward series. This contradiction reflects the stratified yet dynamic nature of digital media participation, in which new possibilities for involvement socialize with previous interests.

Gendered Patterns in Digital Media Platforms

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The gender and societal roles of contributors directly impact digital media messages, therefore influencing their content, audience targeting, and message forms. Mostly expressed through books and multimedia, these concepts reveal variations depending on the context. Female contributors especially exhibit more involvement in publication than male ones since their work is less text-centric, more multimedia-oriented, and usually directed toward public audiences. This represents many societies tastes and roles impacting digital media environments.

The dynamics of gender presence in digital media may expose a contrast of vulnerability and empowerment. For instance, Wilhelm (2020) notes that whereas digital platforms provide visibility and means for expression, they also expose women to hazards like harassment, therefore compromising their representation. Likewise, Nazir's (2012) sociolinguistic study of online platform use emphasizes different language habits between sexes, therefore underlining more general societal norms and expectations represented in digital interactions.

These trends show the changing terrain of digital communication, where participation and content creation are shaped by societal conventions and platform affordances taken together. Notwithstanding differences, the linked character of digital platforms emphasizes continuous changes in how people interact with and support digital ecosystems, so promoting a transforming transformation in interpersonal communication.

Conclusion

The study reveals that gender significantly impacts digital media contributions and communication dynamics, with increased female participation in content creation. This reflects

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established societal roles and norms. The interconnected nature of digital platforms encourages varied communication practices, but differences in representation persist. These findings highlight the changing nature of digital interaction and the transformative future of communication influenced by evolving societal contexts and technological progress.

Limitations and Future Directions

The main focus of this study on particular digital platforms limits it and might only partially depict more general contexts. Furthermore, restricting causal conclusions is the dependence on correlational data. while the increasing application of artificial intelligence in the production of digital content brings fresh complexity in comprehending the roles and motives of contributors. Future studies should investigate several populations, use longitudinal techniques, and evaluate how gender dynamics and content creation are affected by artificial intelligence integration. Analyzing interacting elements including age, socioeconomic level, and technological access will help us to better grasp digital communication environments.

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The Evolution of Audience Uses and Gratifications: A Journey Through Media Engagement

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Abstract

This article explores the evolution of uses and gratifications research, a paradigm that emerged in response to earlier theories of media's absolute influence. Shifting the focus from what media do to audiences toward what audiences actively do with media, the article offers a qualitative and chronological analysis of the key conceptual, methodological, and empirical developments in this field. It critically examines the contributions of leading scholars and major studies that have shaped the trajectory of this research tradition. The findings suggest that the development of uses and gratifications research can be divided into three distinct phases. The first phase, beginning in the 1940s, marks the foundational studies that established the initial framework. The second phase emerged in the 1970s, when uses and gratifications matured into a more coherent and recognized research approach. The third phase, beginning in the early 1990s, reflects a shift toward investigating how audiences engage with new media, especially following the rise of the Internet as a dominant form of mass communication.

Keywords: Evolution, Media Research, Uses and Gratifications Theory, Audience Engagement.

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Introduction

Uses and gratifications research focuses on understanding how individuals engage with media and communication technologies, aiming to explore the relationship between media use and the gratifications audiences seek and obtain through that use. Proponents of this approach argue that media consumption can best be understood by examining the purposes audiences have for turning to specific media, as well as the outcomes they derive from such engagement.

This perspective emerged as a critical response to the early *strong effects* theories that dominated media research in the first half of the 20th century. By challenging the notion of media's absolute power over passive audiences, the uses and gratifications approach introduced a new conceptual framework that reoriented the core question in media studies from "What do media do to people?" to "What do people do with media?". This shift also transformed how the audience itself was perceived—from a passive, powerless recipient of media messages to an active, selective, and goal-driven participant in the communication process.

The redefinition of the audience as conscious, engaged, and empowered led to a new understanding of media use as a process governed by individual needs and intentional choices. Audiences were now seen as capable of navigating the media landscape to fulfill specific personal, informational, or emotional goals. In turn, this change forced media producers to adapt continuously in order to satisfy the demands of a more discerning and dynamic audience, particularly in light of the rapid expansion and diversification of media technologies and platforms. These advancements have provided users with greater freedom, more diverse choices, and increasingly complex patterns of media engagement.

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Against this backdrop, the present article raises several key questions: How did uses and gratifications research originate? What stages has it gone through? What role have researchers played in its development? And how have rapid technological changes in media and communication influenced the trajectory of this research tradition?

1. The Emergence of Uses and Gratifications Research

Uses and gratifications research did not emerge in a theoretical vacuum; rather, it was the product of accumulated knowledge and the contributions of numerous scholars who laid its conceptual foundations. This research orientation arose from a growing awareness of individual differences, social variability, and behaviors associated with media use, prompting a reconsideration of the relationship between audiences and media. Audiences began to be seen as active agents who selectively choose messages and content based on their preferences. Simultaneously, this approach offered a counterpoint to the dominant ideas presented by the *hypodermic needle theory* and the *two-step flow theory*, both of which had portrayed the audience as passive and powerless. “Researchers began to examine these perspectives in search of a model or comprehensive theory that could explain the relationship between media use and the gratifications derived from it” (1).

There were two main factors behind the emergence of uses and gratifications research. The first was the opposition to the assumption of media's powerful effects on audiences—a critical shift that represented a kind of “discovery” of the audience, particularly within the American context. The second factor lay in the fact that this new framework proposed an alternative perspective on the relationship between media content and audiences. It also introduced a new way of

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categorizing media content based on its function, rather than relying on audience appreciation or engagement levels resulting from exposure to media (2).

The origins of uses and gratifications research date back to the 1940s, specifically during World War II. It emerged “as a reaction to the media studies of the time, which subscribed to the belief in the direct and powerful influence of communication on the receiving public—a belief dominant at the start of the twentieth century” (3). This perspective held that media messages had a linear (vertical) impact, where each individual responded directly and uniformly to the content, much like a syringe injecting medication into a patient’s bloodstream (4). It also assumed that the audience was immediately and uniformly affected by the media they consumed, reflecting the traditional American empirical studies of that era, “which viewed the receiver as passive and unable to resist media messages based on their individual needs and desires. Instead, it was believed that media messages determined the audience’s response” (5). This called for a shift in perspective—toward “recognizing the impact of individual differences and social variability on media-related behavior” (6).

The 1940s are often referred to as the golden age of uses and gratifications research. During this period, a wealth of data emerged regarding media use and the gratifications it generated. The concept of the audience as an active participant deepened, and research began to focus on how people use media and how they fulfill their needs through this usage. Thus, this approach represented a significant qualitative shift in media research and came to be known as part of modern media studies. Nevertheless, the development of this approach was initially slow, due to the dominance of effects-oriented research both before and after the Second World War.

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Studies based on individual differences received limited attention, and the early stages of uses and gratifications research lacked a coherent theoretical framework (7).

The true breakthrough in uses and gratifications theory came with Elihu Katz's 1959 study, which shifted the analytical focus from media messages themselves to the audience receiving them. This challenged the prevailing belief that audience behavior toward media was shaped merely by habit, rather than logical or personal reasons (8). Katz emphasized that the initial phase of this approach aimed to provide a deep descriptive account of how media outlets function and how they offer a variety of content choices. However, early descriptive studies suffered from a lack of conceptual clarity and appropriate research methods (9).

A more fully articulated vision of the uses and gratifications approach emerged in 1974 with the publication of *The Uses of Mass Communications* by Katz and Blumler. The book's core premise focused on identifying the functions of media and its content, alongside the motivations that drive individual exposure. While the approach has faced criticisms, its contribution to communication studies remains significant—particularly in shifting scholarly attention away from the content itself ("Who says what?") toward the audience ("To whom?"), who uses that content under specific conditions and within specific contexts (10).

Since then, the uses and gratifications perspective has evolved significantly, driven by advances in modern communication technologies and the increasing richness of media content. This development is reflected in the vast number of studies conducted across different parts of the world, either building on the original foundations or reevaluating some of the approach's core assumptions.

The First Generation of Uses and Gratifications Research:

The origins of uses and gratifications research date back to the 1940s and 1950s, through several foundational studies that laid the groundwork for this research approach. One of the earliest and most significant was **Herzog's** 1941 study on the gratifications audiences derive from listening to a radio quiz show (*Quiz*), in which she used opinion polling techniques. Her findings revealed that respondents experienced various types of gratification, including competition, education, and self-assessment. She concluded that radio programs could fulfill certain psychological needs for their audiences(11).

In a follow-up study in 1942, Herzog investigated the experience of listening to daily radio soap operas(12). Surveying 2,500 female listeners, she found that 21% listened primarily for entertainment, while 41% reported that the programs helped them navigate daily life by offering advice on interpersonal relationships (with spouses, children, family, or friends) and on how to act in specific life situations. She ultimately identified key gratifications provided by soap operas: emotional release, escapism through daydreaming, and guidance in socially appropriate behavior(13).

In 1945, **Berelson** conducted a study that took advantage of a two-week suspension in the publication of eight newspapers due to a distribution strike in New York(14). He interviewed readers about what they missed during this period and found that those most invested in daily news experienced a strong sense of loss, which even affected their interpersonal relationships. Berelson concluded that newspapers serve as a vital source of psychological security for many individuals.

In 1948, **Warner and Henry** explored similar territory through their study on daily radio soap operas(15), discovering that one of the core gratifications audiences gained from these programs was assistance in compensating for social shortcomings.

By the late 1940s, **Lasswell and Wright** had established a functionalist framework for media research. Lasswell identified three main functions of the media: surveillance of the environment, correlation of societal components in response to the environment, and transmission of social heritage from one generation to another. **Wright** later added a fourth function: entertainment.

In 1949, **Wolf and Fiske** conducted a study on children's comic strips and identified three main functions these comics served: the presentation of an invincible hero, the opportunity for identification with that hero, and the provision of information about the real world(16). Each function corresponded to different developmental stages and was linked to specific growth-related needs. However, they also found that excessive comic consumption correlated with signs of nervous tendencies and certain physical impairments(17).

By 1955, after numerous studies, **Katz** posed a critical question: rather than asking, "What do media do to people?", researchers should ask, "What do people do with media?" This marked a pivotal shift in focus. In 1959, Katz emphasized that media research should concentrate on how audiences engage with media rather than on how media affect audiences(18). He argued that the prevailing belief in powerful, direct media effects had become outdated.

This change in perspective was later reinforced by **Klapper**, who, in his influential 1960 book *The Effects of Mass Communication*, concluded that media are rarely a sufficient or necessary

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cause for audience effects. Instead, media work through a series of mediating factors and variables that support, reinforce, or channel the effects(19). These mediating factors include opinion leaders, primary social groups, and selective exposure, whereby individuals tend to engage with media content that aligns with their pre-existing beliefs and attitudes.

The Second Generation of Uses and Gratifications Research:

A landmark contribution to the formulation of uses and gratifications theory came from the 1972 study conducted by **Blumler, McQuail, and Brown**(20) at the Television Research Center at the University of Leeds. In this study, the researchers aimed to move beyond the concept of "escapism"—a notion often emphasized by critics of popular culture—and demonstrated that media use extends well beyond mere escape. Focusing primarily on television, their core research question was: *How do audiences describe their personal experiences with media?* and *What specific functions do certain media contents serve in particular contexts?* To answer these questions, they developed a set of hypotheses and ultimately identified the general dimensions of uses and gratifications research(21).

In the early 1980s, **Katz** conducted a study on cultural differences in interpreting the American TV series *Dallas*, which had become a symbol of American television globalization at the time. The study aimed to explore how the show was understood and interpreted differently across various cultural contexts. Katz found that audience responses to the series varied significantly based on cultural backgrounds, offering strong evidence for the influence of cultural context on media interpretation(22).

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In 1981, **Rosengren and Windahl** proposed a series of classifications relating media content to audience behavior and media functions. Unlike earlier studies that focused primarily on television, their work analyzed a broader range of media. They revisited earlier concepts such as escapism, daydreaming, and parasocial interaction, and emphasized that individuals have biological, psychological, social, and cultural needs. These needs can be fulfilled either through natural (non-media) functions or through media, which serve as alternative means for gratification(23)(24).

Austin, in a 1986 study, identified seven motivational factors that drive audiences to go to the cinema: learning and information, forgetting and escapism, enjoyment and time-passing, alleviation of loneliness, serving as a behavioral refuge, and self-discovery. For radio, Austin found that the main motivations were information and entertainment. However, when it came to newspaper readers, the main drivers aligned with those identified by McQuail and his colleagues: entertainment, surveillance, and interaction(25).

In 1988, **Payne, Severn, and Dozier** investigated audience gratifications through the same three dimensions introduced by McQuail and colleagues: entertainment, surveillance, and interaction. They discovered that general-interest magazines were primarily read for entertainment, while readers of trade magazines were motivated more by the needs for surveillance and interaction(26).

In 1995, **Rubin and Rubin** identified five personal communication motives in their study of interpersonal communication: enjoyment, inclusion, affection, control, and escape from reality. These motives appeared to be more associated with internal psychological drivers than with the external functional categories typically used in mass communication studies(27)(28). Notably,

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Rubin had already observed in 1983 that scholars within the uses and gratifications framework had begun responding to the criticisms leveled against the theory. He concluded that researchers were developing a more refined methodology and adapting their studies by integrating comparative analyses of separate investigations. Media use was increasingly being approached as a holistic communicative and social phenomenon.

Examples of such developments include **Eastman's** 1979 analysis of the multivariate relationships between television viewing functions and lifestyle characteristics; **Jeffres and Ostman's** 1980 study on motivations for TV viewing and their predictability based on lifestyle traits and viewing patterns; and **Palmgreen's** 1982 investigation into the differences in motives for watching general versus specific types of television programming(29).

Uses and Gratifications Research in New Media

Since the early 1990s, the internet has evolved into a mass communication tool. Scholars in the field of communication have actively sought to understand the rapid changes introduced by new media—its interactivity, hypertextuality, multimedia nature, and the shifts in user behavior and media effects. One significant theoretical framework applied in this context is the *Uses and Gratifications Theory*, which had proven effective in analyzing traditional media.

Early Western Studies

One of the early studies by Perse and Dunn (30) examined how people used home computers alongside other media to satisfy a wide range of needs. They identified motivations such as seeking information, entertainment, relaxation, social interaction, and filling time. Their findings showed that only a small portion of users saw the computer as a primary source for

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current events, entertainment, or reducing loneliness. However, with the rise of online news websites, scholars began to focus on the demographics and motivations of these users (31).

Zhang et al. (32) found that users of social networks like Facebook reflected America's demographic diversity. They differentiated between *external pressures* (e.g., site features like birthday reminders) and *internal motivations* (e.g., social integration). Another study by Zhang, using email surveys, grouped motivations for visiting online news sites into three categories: medium characteristics (e.g., immediacy, availability), user exposure patterns, and access convenience. Interestingly, **interactivity**, often seen as a defining feature of the internet, ranked low among reasons for visiting news sites. Similarly, Gallup surveys revealed that **younger users** accessed the internet for diverse activities (e.g., news, socializing, gaming), while **older users** prioritized news and information.

Boyd and Ellison (34) defined social networking sites (SNS) as web-based platforms enabling users to create profiles, connect with others, and navigate social ties. Their study confirmed a **positive correlation between Facebook use and social capital**—defined as the resources available through social connections. Early SNS studies focused on identity disclosure, online friendships, and privacy, while more recent research has shifted to understanding how **personal traits** influence SNS usage.

One comparative study found that **Facebook** is better at fulfilling *entertainment and social exploration* needs, whereas **text messaging** is more aligned with *maintaining existing relationships*. Scholars have also examined how SNS use enhances or diminishes social capital. Facebook enables users to share personal updates and receive feedback, though most users interact more with existing friends than with new contacts. Researchers differentiate between

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strong ties (close friends) and *weak ties* (casual acquaintances), with both contributing differently to social capital.

SNS use can also **reduce feelings of loneliness**, particularly when users actively engage (e.g., posting, liking). Passive usage, however, may increase isolation. Hugh (40) categorized SNS use motivations into nine themes, including relationship maintenance, self-expression, and reputation management.

Arab World Contributions

Arab scholars have also explored these issues. Al-Assimi (42), in a study on Saudi youth, found that **entertainment use** (games, music, emotional images) was dominant. Cultural benefits included greater global awareness and information access, while educational uses were limited to aiding research and communication. Economically, internet use led to higher spending on entertainment.

Baaziz (43) studied **online chat forums**, noting their popularity among 15–25-year-olds. Arabic was the dominant language, followed by English and French. Most users preferred nighttime chats and favored partners based on education level, gender, country, and language. While many preferred real-life relationships, online chatting helped reduce loneliness.

Abu Bakr (44), in a study on **YouTube use among teenagers**, found that users mainly accessed the platform at home or in cafes. Motivations included watching news and entertainment videos, as well as accessing programs missed on television.

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Al-Tamimi (45) explored **youth usage of new media**, emphasizing their high daily internet exposure and the internet's influence in reducing dependence on traditional media. Ritualistic motivations included spending time with friends and tracking their news, while key gratifications included **interaction and engagement** with others' opinions.

Results and Recommendations

The researcher concluded that the development of audience uses and gratifications research can be divided into three main stages:

- The first stage began in the early 1940s and extended to the late 1950s. During this period, studies sought to identify the reasons and motives behind the audience's use of various media and their content. Most of the research in this phase was published during World War II and employed similar methodological approaches.

- The second stage started in the early 1960s and is characterized by the development of models of audience uses and gratifications. Studies during this phase revealed correlational relationships between individuals' media use and the satisfaction of their needs. Most research in this stage, which lasted until the late 1980s, was field-based.

- The third stage began in the early 1990s, marked by new forms of audience uses and gratifications arising from remarkable advancements in media and communication technologies, as well as the increasing public shift towards new media at the expense of traditional media. This shift led to the emergence of new concepts both at the media level and the audience level.

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It can be said that the uses and gratifications approach has attracted significant attention from researchers and scholars studying media audiences. However, this interest has not produced genuine research development that keeps pace with technological advances in media and communication. It is necessary to move beyond the limited application of the uses and gratifications approach—often confined to identifying motivations for use and gratifications obtained—and work towards developing new research directions. These directions should be able to incorporate the vast thematic accumulation resulting from audiences' use of new media.

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